CHAPTER - I
INTRODUCTION

Education is conceived as a powerful agency, which is instrumental in bringing about the desired changes in the social and cultural life of a nation. The whole process of education is shaped and moulded by the human personality called the teacher who plays a pivotal role in giving quality education in any system of education. The horizon of a teacher is broadened with the qualities he imbibes from the institutes providing training to the teachers. The supreme function of these institutions is to make the student – teachers aware of their high mission and impart a new vision to the responsibilities of teachers in the education of children and youth – the future architects of a nation.

In a complex scenario dominated by nuclear technology, laser technology, electronic and communication technology, new and emerging jobs are primarily thinking jobs requiring higher order intellectual, analytical and creative skills. In this era of globalization of education, students hanker after job/career oriented education. The rules at the workplace have also changed. Jobs demand reasoning, computing, divergent thinking, quick and data based decision making and fair amount of emotional intelligence. The new yardstick for performance is how well one handles oneself and one another. Employers of today prefer to employ a trainable person rather than a person trained in a particular vocation, a person with high E.Q. rather than only high I.Q. It strongly appears that emotional intelligence influences day to day problem solving in schools, communities, business and organizations. It accounts for success at home, at school, and at work. At individual level it predicts communication skills, morality, leadership, and aesthetics. The most important hurdle in achievements of pupils are emotional imbalances i.e. anxiety, frustration, disagreements, tensions etc. A teacher who has full control over his/her emotions i.e. who is emotionally stable, can arouse emotional intelligence in pupils too. He/She is likely to emphasize on responsible behaviour on the part of his/her students.

Gradually over the last one decade the notion of emotional intelligence has become a scientific construct for understanding implications of behaviour and adaptation of the individual to his environment. Recently, it has been transpired that emotional
intelligence is also dependent on self-concept of the person. Viewed in this light both ‘self-concept’ and ‘emotional intelligence’ as concepts seem to become significant variables for determining task orientations and their success, in so far as planning and implementing of instructional designs and strategies are concerned. Teacher’s behaviour in classroom is a function of his self-concept. During decision making and decision implementing process self-concept serves both as a crutch and a guide. An insightful teacher can correct his faulty self-concept through self-evaluation, constant watch and observation of his own behaviour, self-discipline, and intellectual discipline, suggestions from others and by peeping into his own self-images for judicious evaluation. In fact emotional intelligence is a continuous process, since every age and every situation calls for something new. The well adjusted teachers have many interests, hobbies and achievements. It has been suggested that emotional intelligence involves broadening and deepening of interests and achievement motivation. Achievement motivation plays a significant role in total shaping of personalities which in turn shape the total destiny of a given society. Every human behaviour is based on some or other cause. The prime causation is motives. Motives play a major role and are the causative factors in human behaviour. When a person tries to manifest concern for excellence in work, it is a behaviour backed by achievement motivation and the will to strive for excellence.

Society wants good and effective teachers to teach the young generation. No one wants ineffective or average teacher. In our country, the selection of student-teachers is based on the meritorious performance of the entrants in their previous educational career though there are some caste-wise, sex-wise and other reservations. A competent teacher is one who cannot only impart the entire educational curricula allotted to him through effective and interactive methods but also teaches emotional and social skills to ensure the best possible academic achievement and optimal development of all round personality in students. The need to recognize emotional intelligence, self-concept, achievement motivation and academic achievement among student -teachers in the teacher education process is therefore immense and a link can be expected among these factors.
1.1 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence is also called EI or EQ, it is described as an ability, capacity, or skill to perceive, assess, and manage the emotions of one's self, of others, and of groups. It means how intelligently we can control our emotions. Emotional Intelligence doesn't mean being soft – it means being intelligent about emotions – a different way of being smart. Emotional intelligence is a combination of two words i.e. emotions and intelligence.

1.1.1 EMOTIONS

Emotions are recognized as one of the three or four fundamental classes or mental operations. These classes include motivation, emotion, cognition and (less frequently) consciousness. Among the triad of motivation, emotion and cognition, basic motivations arise in response to internal bodily states and include drives such as hunger, thirst, need for social contact, and sexual desires. Motivations are responsible for directing the organism to carry out simple acts for survival and satisfying reproductive needs. In their basic forms, motivations follow a relatively determined time course and are typically satisfied in a specific fashion (e.g., thirst is satisfied by drinking).

Emotions form the second class of this triad. Emotions appear to have evolved across mammalian species so as to signal and respond to changes in relationship between the individual and the environment. For example, anger arises in response to threat or injustice; fear arises in response to danger. Emotions follow no rigid course but instead respond to external changes in relationships. Moreover, each emotion organizes several basic behavioral responses to the relationship; for example, fear organizes fighting or fleeing. Emotions are, therefore, more flexible than motivations, though not quite so flexible as cognition.

Cognition the third member of the triad, allows the organism to learn from the environment and to solve problems in novel situations. This is often in service to satisfying motives or keeping emotions positive. Cognition includes learning, memory and problem solving. It is ongoing and involves flexible, intentional information processing based on learning and memory. These three basic classes of personality
components are illustrated in the lower portion of the Fig. 1.1. The next level up in the Fig. 1.1 depicts the interaction between motivation and emotion (on the left) and emotion and cognition (on the right). A great deal of research addresses how motivations interact with emotions and how emotions interact with cognition. For example, motives interact with emotions when frustration leads to increased anger and aggression. Emotions interact with cognition when good moods lead a person to think positively. Thus interaction of emotion and cognition also gives rise to emotional intelligence.

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**FIG 1.1 : PERSONALITY AND ITS MAJOR SUB-SYSTEMS**

(Source: John, D. Mayer, Peter Salovey, and David Caruso in Sternberg (2000).

Hand book of intelligence. Cambridge, UK; Cambridge University Press.)

Sternberg (2000) has given a representation of personality components primarily according to lower versus higher levels of processing (adapted from Mayer, 1995). Components at lower level are generally divisible into motivational, emotional and cognitive groups. For example, an urge to eat is motivational, where as a feeling of
generalized fear is emotional. Mid-level components such as emotional intelligence, involve the interaction between internal emotional feelings and cognitive understanding. High-level components, such as self-esteem, are representations of the personal and social worlds that synthesize the lower levels of processing in more complex, integrated fashions.

It makes sense to distinguish among basic motivation, emotion and cognition and their interactions. The three areas are integrated in more complex personality functioning, however so, people no longer speak of emotional, motivational or cognitive elements separately. Rather, the focus turns to more general personality or social processes which blend the three. For example, the self-concept entails a blended representation of one self involving all three areas or modes of processing. The top of the fig. 1.1 includes components that focus on these more general intra and interpersonal qualities. The term emotional intelligence then implies something having to do with the intersection of emotion and cognition.

1.1.2 INTELLIGENCE

Intelligence is a very general mental capability that, among other things, involves the ability to reason, plan, solve problems, think abstractly, comprehend complex ideas, learn quickly and learn from experience. It is not merely book learning or a narrow academic skill. Rather, it reflects a broader and deeper capability for comprehending our surroundings — “catching on”, “making sense” of things, or “figuring out” what to do.

In general sense, intelligence means the ability to learn from experience and to deal with new situation and also the ability to deal effectively with the task of involving expressions. Voluminous research in the field of education and psychology has led to the belief that intellectual superiority of an individual is the most important determinant in the field of academic performance. Intelligence paves a way for brilliance in academics. The concept of intelligence has been defined in various ways.

Binet (1905) holds that essential characteristics of intelligence include the ability to judge well, to comprehend well and to reason well.

Thorndike (1913) defines intelligence as “the power to make good responses from the point of view of truth or fact”. An intelligent person in his view is one who is able to
come up with the right answer to difficult problems. According to him, there are three kinds of intelligence: the abstract, the mechanical and the social. These three types are neither absolutely independent nor necessarily correlated mutually in a person.

Seymour (1998) defines intelligence as “the ability to use optimally limited resources including time – to achieve goals”.

Sattler (2001) defines that intelligent behaviour reflects the survival skills of the species, beyond those associated with basic psychological processes.

In general sense, intelligence means high level mental ability, such as abstract reasoning, the ability to learn from experience and to deal with new situations and also the ability to deal effectively with the tasks involving expression.

1.1.3 ROOTS AND MEANING OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

In the field of psychology the roots of emotional intelligence theory go back at least to the beginnings of the intelligence testing movement.

Thorndike (1920), the professor of educational psychology at Columbia University Teachers College, was one of the first to identify the aspect of emotional Intelligence that he called as social intelligence.

Social intelligence is “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls – to act wisely in human relations. It is ability that shows abundantly in the nursery, on the playground in barracks and factories and salesrooms, but it eludes the formal standardized conditions of the testing laboratory” (Thorndike, 1920). Although Thorndike did once propose a means of evaluating social intelligence in the laboratory – a sample process of matching of emotive faces with descriptions of emotions – he also maintained that because social intelligence manifests in social interaction, “genuine situations with real persons” would be necessary to accurately measure it.

Thorndike and Stein (1937) reviewed the attempts to measure the social intelligence. Thorndike had discussed, identifying three different areas. The first area encompassed primarily an individual’s attitude towards society and its various components: politics, economics and values such as honesty. The second involved social knowledge: being well versed in sports, contemporary issues and general information
about society. This area seemed often conflated with the first. The third form of social intelligence was an individual’s degree of social adjustment. But Thorndike and Stein concluded that attempts to measure the ability to deal with people had more or less failed. It may be that social intelligence is a complex of several different abilities, or a complex of an enormous number of specific social habits and attitudes.

Gardner (1983) had a major hand in resurrecting emotional intelligence theory in psychology. His influential model of multiple intelligence includes two types of personal intelligence, the interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence. These two intelligences comprise social intelligence. He defines them as follows: interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other people, how they work, how to work co-operatively with them. Successful sales people, politicians, teachers, clinicians and religion leaders are all likely to be individual with interpersonal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence is a correlative ability, turned inward. It is a capacity to form an accurate, veridical model to one and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life.

Bar-on (1988) attempted to assess emotional intelligence in terms of a measure of well-being. In his doctoral dissertation, he used the term emotional quotient (EQ), which gained widespread popularity as a name of emotional intelligence before Salovey and Mayer had published their first model of emotional intelligence.

Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) original model identifies emotional intelligence as the “ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action”.

Goleman (1995) defines emotional intelligence as the abilities which include self-control, zeal and persistence and the ability to motivate oneself.

Bar-on (2000) defines emotional intelligence in terms of an array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities that influence our overall ability to effectively cope with environmental demands. This includes (1) the ability to be aware of, to understand, and to express oneself; (2) the ability to be aware of, to understand, and to relate to others; (3) the ability to deal with strong emotions and control one’s impulses; and (4) the ability to adapt to change and to solve problems of personal or social nature.
1.1.4 DOMAINS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), Emotional Intelligence subsumes Gardners inter and intrapersonal intelligence and involves abilities that may be categorized into five domains:

1. **Self-awareness** - observing one self and recognizing a feeling as it happens.

2. **Managing emotions** - Handling feelings so that they are appropriate; realizing what is behind a feeling; finding way to handle fear and anxieties, anger and sadness.

3. **Motivating oneself** - Channeling emotions in the service of a goal; emotional self control; delaying gratification and stifling impulses.

4. **Empathy** - Sensitivity to others’ feelings and concerns and taking their perspective; appreciating the differences in how people feel about things.

5. **Handling relationships** - Managing emotions in others; social competence and social skills.

Goleman (1995) popularized the view of emotional intelligence. He created a model that also was mixed and was characterized by the five broad areas:

1. **Self-Awareness** – It includes knowing one’s emotions, recognizing one’s feelings as they occur and discriminating between them, that is being emotionally literate; being able to identify and label specific feelings in oneself and others; being able to discuss emotions and communicate clearly and directly. It also includes ability to empathize with, feel compassion for, validate, motivate, inspire, and encourage others; the ability to make intelligent decision, using a healthy balance of emotions and reason; being neither too emotional nor too rational; the ability to manage and take the responsibility for one’s emotions, knowledge of the causes of emotions, recognizing the difference between feelings and actions.

2. **Mood Management** – It includes handling feelings so that they are relevant to the current situation and to react appropriately. It also includes tolerance, frustration and anger management, eliminating verbal pull downs, fights and group disruptions, better able to express anger appropriately without resorting to
violence, fewer suspensions or expulsions, less aggressive or self destructive behaviour, more positive feelings about self, school and family, better at handling stress.

3. **Self-Motivation** – It includes “gathering up” ones’ feelings and directing oneself towards goal, despite self-doubt, inertia and impulsiveness, being more responsible, better able to focus on task at hand and pay attention, less impulsive, more self controlled and with improved scores on achievement tests.

4. **Empathy** – It includes recognizing feelings in others and tuning into their verbal and non-verbal cues, being able to take another person’s perspective, improved empathy and sensitive to others feelings, better at listening to others. Affiliative persons are friendly, sociable, helpful, and skillful in dealing with people, and open about their feelings. They make good companions because they are pleasant and agreeable. Others feel comfortable with them & like them. In other words, affiliative persons have superior emotional social skills in dealing with others, derive gratification and reward from their interpersonal contacts, and tend to be source of happiness to others.

5. **Managing Relationships** – It includes handling interpersonal interaction, conflict resolution and negotiations, increased ability to analyze and understand relationship, more assertive and skilled at communication, more popular and outgoing; friendly and involved with peers, more sought out by peers, more concerned, considerate, more “prosocial” and harmonious in groups, more sharing, co-operative and helpful, more democratic in dealing with others.

Goleman’s (1995) list of specific attributes under motivation includes marshalling emotions, delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness, and entering flow states. He recognized that he was moving from emotional intelligence to something far broader. He states that “ego resilience” is quite similar to emotional intelligence in which he includes social competencies. Goleman makes extraordinary claims for the predictive validity of mixed model. He states that emotional intelligence will account for success at home, at school, and at work. Among youth, he says, emotional intelligence will lead to less rudeness or aggressiveness, more popularity; improve learning and better decisions.
about “drugs, smoking and stress”. At work emotional intelligence will assist people in teamwork, in co-operation, in helping learn together how to work more effectively. Moreover emotional intelligence will confer “an advantage in any domain in life, whether in romance and intimate relationship or picking up the unspoken rules that govern success in organizational politics”.

Bar-on (1997) identifies five main domains of functioning relevant to success in his model of emotional intelligence. These include:

1. **Intrapersonal Skills** – The intrapersonal dimension consists of five related abilities: a) emotional self awareness, the ability to recognize and understand one’s feelings; b) assertiveness, the ability to express feelings, beliefs and thoughts; c) self regard, the ability to accurately appraise one self; d) self actualization, the ability to realize ones potential capacities; and e) Independence, the ability to be self directed and self controlled and in one’s thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependence.

2. **Interpersonal Skills** – The interpersonal skills consist of three related abilities: a) empathy, the ability to be aware of, to understand, and to appreciate the feelings of others; b) Social responsibility, the ability to demonstrate oneself as a cooperative, contributing, and constructive member of one’s social group; and c) interpersonal relationship, the ability to establish and maintain satisfying relationships that are characterized by emotional closeness.

3. **Adaptability** – The adaptability demands consist of three related abilities: a) reality testing, the ability to validate ones emotions; b) flexibility, the ability to adjust one’s emotions, thoughts, and behaviour to changing situations and conditions; and c) problem solving, the ability to identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions.

4. **Stress management** – The stress management dimension consists of two related abilities: a) stress tolerance, the ability to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without falling apart by actively and positively coping with stress; and b) impulse control, the ability to resist or delay an impulse and to control ones emotions.
5. **General mood** – The fifth dimension of the Bar-on Model is general mood, an important motivational variable that facilitates the various other factorial components of emotional intelligence. It consist of two related constructs: a) Optimism, the ability to look on brighter side of life and to maintain a positive attitude even in the face of adversity; and b) happiness, the ability to feel satisfied with ones’ life, to enjoy oneself and others, and to have fun.

Singh (2003) “Emotional intelligence is the ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional stimuli being elicited from the inner self and immediate environment. Emotional intelligence constitutes three psychological dimensions—emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity—which motivate an individual to recognize truthfully, interpret honestly and handle tactfully the dynamics of human behaviour.” The broad areas which these three dimensions seem to cover are as under :-

1. **Emotional Competency**- constitutes the capacity to respond tactfully to emotional stimuli by various situations, having high self-esteem and optimism, communication, tackling emotional upsets such as frustration, conflict and inferiority complex, enjoying emotions, doing what succeeds, ability to relate to others, emotional self-control, capacity to avoid emotional exhaustion such as stress, burnout, learning to avoid negativity of emotions, handling egoism etc.

2. **Emotional Maturity**- constitutes evaluating emotions of one-self and others, identifying and expressing feelings, balancing state of heart and mind, adaptability and flexibility, appreciating other’s point of view, developing others and delaying gratification of immediate psychological satisfaction.

3. **Emotional Sensitivity**- constitutes understanding threshold of emotional arousal, managing the immediate environment, maintaining rapport, harmony and comfort with others, and letting others feel comfortable in your company. It also involves being honest in interpersonal dealings, interpreting emotional cues truthfully realizing communicability of emotions, moods and feelings having an insight into how to evaluate, and relate to you.
Thus, emotional intelligence is the ability to understand emotions and their causes, the capability to effectively regulate these emotions in oneself and in others and most importantly being able to use the emotions as a source of information for problem solving, being creative and dealing with social situation.

1.1.5 SCIENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

We have two minds – one that thinks (rational mind) and one that feels (emotional mind). One acts according to his / her emotional and rational mind. The intellect is based solely on the working of the neo cortex the more recently evolved layer at the top of the brain. The emotional centers are lower in the brain in the more ancient sub cortex. Emotional intelligence involves these emotional centers at work in concert with the intellectual centers.

LeDoux, a neuroscientist at the Center for Neural Science at New York University, made in recent years a landmark discovery about the relationship and interaction of the emotional and thinking brains. He pinpointed the neural pathways bringing information to the brain through the senses, and discovered that information entering through the eyes or ears goes first to the thalamus, which acts as a sort of mail sorter, deciding which parts of the brain to send the information to. If the incoming information, for instance, is emotional, the thalamus sends out two signals -- the first to the amygdala the centre of the emotional mind. and the second to the neocortex. What this means is that the emotional brain has the information first, and in the event of a crisis can react before the thinking brain has even received the information and had a chance to weigh the options. Goleman calls this an emotional hijacking because it occurs so fast that the thinking brain has no opportunity to grasp what is occurring and decide on the best course of action. The amygdala and neo cortex may sound like perfect partners, the alert sentry signalizing danger and the cool strategist selecting prudent courses of action, but the sentry can easily override and powerful emotions can disrupt your ability to think and reason. That’s why one complains that he ‘can’t think straight’ when he is upset.

People who cannot marshal some control over their emotional life, fight inner battles that sabotage their ability for focused work and clean thought. People with well-developed emotional skills are more likely to be content and effective in their lives, mastering the habits of mind that foster their own productivity.
FIG 1.2 : BRAIN STRUCTURES (AMYGDALA AND PREFRONTAL CORTEX)

FIG 1.3 : AMYGDALA: THE AMYGDALA IS AN AREA INVOLVED IN THE PROCESSING AND MEMORY OF STRONG EMOTIONAL EXPERIENCES.

FIG 1.4 AMYGDALA - CIRCUITS
1.2 SELF- CONCEPT

Self - concept is best conceived as a system of attitudes towards one self. Just as a person, as a result of experiences, forms attitudes which he organizes into self-consistent system and defends against threats and attacks, so the person also form attitudes towards himself. Self- concept consists of all the perceptions, feelings, attitudes, aspirations and values of one self concerning one self.

Self - concept is the key stone of personality, one cannot imagine a person without self. Self is the essence of personality. Favourable self-concept coincides with favourable personality development. Important characteristics such as emotional stability, self-assertion and self-confidence emerge out of the favourable self-concept.

Much of the contemporary theoretical work about self-concept derived from James (1890). According to him ‘self’ has one of the three meanings – a dynamic process, a system of awareness and an interrelated process and awareness. Accordingly, the first meaning incorporated the cognitive process such as perceiving, interpreting, thinking and remembering. The second denoted the objectified form of awareness an individual gives to his feelings, evaluations and beliefs about himself. The third gives the body of awareness in terms of its effect upon what is perceived of, how this perception is interpreted and thus of human behaviour learning.

Allport (1961) like James (1890) articulated on the interrelatedness of the self as both object and process with a measure of clarity. He was especially cautions about the use of the term “self” in order to avoid the factotum or agent theories of pre-scientific psychology. Yet, his contributions to an operationally useful concept of a dynamic self have been considerable. Allport calls the ego, or self as the appropriate functions of the personality. For Allport, the term self and ego should be descriptive adjectives to indicate the appropriate functions of the personality.

Although Freud’s (1943) writings were concurrent with the beginning period of scientific psychology, much of his theory finds its basis in pre-scientific instinct postulations. Nevertheless, Freud (1943) give the ego a central place in his theory of personality structure. In counter distinction of James (1890) and Allport (1961), Freud
(1943) pays little attention to the self image. Rather, for him the ego is a functional agent or executive of the personality which makes rational choice and controls action in the healthy person. The ego decides what instincts to satisfy as well as in what manner to satisfy them. In contrast to Freud’s (1943) conception of the ego as a system of processes, Mead’s (1934) self is an object of awareness. Mead claims that the person responds to himself with certain feelings and attitudes as other respond to him. He becomes self conscious (aware) by the way people react to him as an object. Further, various selves can be differentiated by the specific set of responses in different social settings. Home attitudes expressed towards him create a home self; school attitudes expressed by teachers and classroom experience create a school self; and social attitudes expressed by peers and others in social settings create a social self.

Self-concept, according to Lewin (1936), is expressed by a life space region which determines present belief about the self. The term “life space” is a psychology concept to be distinguished from physical space. It includes the individuals universe of personal experience as a space in which he moves. Goals, evaluations, ideas, perceptions of significant objects, future plans and events, all form a part of the life space of the person. Life space can be considered as a complex internal mechanism which produces behaviour. All the variables that determine the direction of behaviour lie in the life space of the individual. If one is to predict behaviour, one must know the life space of the person at the time the behaviour is to be predicted.

Lundholm (1940), another self-psychologist distinguishes between a subjective-self and an objective-self. No mention of the functional, motivational or process dynamics of the self is explicitly stated. The subjective-self is as alterable from the experiences one has in interaction with others in the pursuit of various tasks. This theory is similar to Meads’s (1934) in that the self is primarily an object of awareness.

Sheriff and Cantril (1947) vaguely assert that the self is an object and the ego is a process. They conceive of the ego as a constellation of attitudes that includes personal identity, values, possessions and feelings of worth. Although they do not clearly differentiate self as object and ego as process but they do imply that when the ego becomes involved in a given task it will energize and direct the person’s behaviour. For
instance, if self-esteem is at stake, the ego attitudes are aroused and tend to motivate the person to work much harder.

Symonds (1951) incorporates the psychoanalytic theory of Freud and social philosophy of Mead (1934) and thus sees the ego as a group of processes and the self as the manner in which the individual reacts to himself, while ego and self are distinct aspect of personality, there is considerable interaction between them. There is favourable self-reaction when the ego performs effectively in meeting the demands of life. On the otherhand, the ego functions more effectively when the self is confident and held in high regard. Symonds (1951) cautions that a person may be unaware of his true self-conceptions due to unconscious distortions. In other words, what a person says about himself may not necessarily agree with his unconscious self-evaluations.

Cattell (1950) considers “the self” the principal organizing influence exerted upon man which gives stability and order to human behaviour. He differentiates between the concept of self (awareness) and sentiment of self. The sentiment of self regard is the most important influence in man. Cattell (1956) states that sentiments are the “major acquired dynamic trait structures which cause their possessors to pay attention to certain objects, or class of objects and to feel and read in a certain way with regard to them.”

Cattell (1950) also introduces the process of self-observation. The self which a person must rationally admit to be is the actual (real) self, and the self which a person would aspire to is the ideal self. Cattell (1950) along with James (1890), Allport (1961) and Lewin (1936) conceive of self as both object and process. While James (1890) gives self a dynamic quality of self-preservation and seeking and Allport (1961) gives it the “appropriate” functions of striving activity, Cattell (1952) is even more explicit in terms of selective perception and maintenance of self-esteem and adds the dimensions of aspirational self.

Murphy (1947) attributes the defensive mechanism to the ego processes. The major activities of the ego are to defend and/or enhance the self-complex. Wolman (1950) defines self-concept as the individual’s appraisal or evaluation of himself. Unlike Symonds (1951), who cautions that a person’s unconscious self-evaluations may distort
his self-concept, Rogers (1951) believes that the discontinuity is of major significance in order to understand self-concept theory. People behave in terms of the ways in which they see themselves. Rogers (1951) allows for the probability of an unconscious reservoir, but implies that only when information about self and the environment is “admissible to awareness” then it influences behaviour. He states: “As long as the self-gestalt is firmly organized and no contradictory material is even dimly perceived, then positive self-feelings may exist, the self may be seen as worthy and acceptable, and conscious tension is minimal. Behaviour is consistent with the organized hypotheses and concept of the self-structure. The consistency between behaviour and self-concepts indicates the dual role of self: self as object and self as process.

Chein’s (1944) view of the ‘self’ and ‘ego’ appears to be in accord with the prevalent one that ‘self’ is what one is aware of. Self is not active. The motives and ideas of ego serve the purpose of defending, extending, enhancing and preserving the self and threat of the self is sought to be countered by the ego. He feels that self is thought to be a part of the total personality of an individual. The self follows a course of continuous growth and development and gets more and more complex and is involved with the emerging of individual into adulthood.

Hilgard (1949) thinks that behaviour is not a product of self but rather a complex of psychological processes aroused by proximal and distal stimuli of which a person is largely unaware. Like Chein (1944), he accords weightage to forces or factors outside the self.

Sarabin (1952) regards self as a cognitive structure, consisting of various aspects of an individual’s being. One may have conception of his body (the somatic self), of his sense organs and musculature. Since all these are based on experience, consequently Sarabin (1952) speaks of them as ‘empirical selves’ using the term ‘self’ and ‘ego’ synonymously.

According to Watson (1959) self may be defined as person’s feelings, ideas and attitudes about one’s self. By way of formal definitions, self-concept is the person’s total appraisal of his appearance, background and origin, abilities, resources, attitudes, values
and feelings which cultivate as directing force in behaviour. According to him what a person does or how he behaves is determined by his self-concept. Self-concept has given meaning to behaviour.

Shoebin (1962) defines self as “a relatively stable organization of values that medicates and focuses behaviour”, on account of which it exercises a profound influence on everyday life. He argues: “In any case, self-involved behaviour seems close to impossible to explain the basis of a tension reduction model, and the postulation of self-involvement seems necessary to account for the pursuit of long range goals so typical of human motivation”. Since hardly any mention of ‘ego’ is made by him, it should be presumed that he considers ‘self’ both as object and doer.

Combs (1952) is the clearest representative of the self-concept theory to which we subscribe. Because of the central role they accord to conscious feelings, cognitions and perceptions, he claims that “all behaviour”, without exception, is completely determined by and pertinent to the phenomenal field of the behaving organism. That is, how a person behaves is the result of how he perceives the situation and himself at the moment of his action. In fact, phenomenology, then, is the study of direct awareness. Combs (1952) gives us a phenomenal self which is both an object and a process, thus avoiding arbitrary distinction and semantic difficulties.

According to Labenne and Green (1969), “self-concept is the person’s total appraisal of his appearance, background and origins, abilities and sources, attitudes and feelings which culminate as a directing force in behaviour”.

In ‘Dictionary of Education’ by Good (1973), self-concept is defined as “the individuals perception of himself as a person, which include his abilities, appearance, performances in his job and other phases of daily living”.

According to ‘Dictionary of Education’, by Taneja (1989), “self-concept refers to the picture or image a person has of himself.”
So, an individual’s self-conception is his view of himself. It is derived from taking the role of others in social interactions. In addition, Self-conception consists of

a) A view of identity,

b) Notions of one’s interest and aversions i.e. his attitudes towards objects, cognitively, effectively and evaluatively,

c) A conception of one’s goals and his success in achieving them,

d) A picture, sometimes quite sketchy, of the ideological (‘world view’) frame of reference through which he views himself and other objects, and

e) Some kind of evaluation.

1.2.1 DIMENSIONS (OR ASPECTS) OF SELF

(i) The basic self-concept. It refers to what the person thinks he is. This is the individual’s perception of his abilities and his status. This is the perception of the roles as to be played in the outside world. This concept is influenced by his physical self, his personal appearance, dress and grooming, by his abilities and disposition, his values, beliefs, and aspiration. The self-concept is enhanced when there is intellectual ability to meet problems. The slow reader, for example, may find difficulty in learning, thus causing negative self-concepts to operate in learning situations. Even for person with intellectual abilities and good learning habits, the self-concept still has its ups and downs.

(ii) The transitory perception of self. The individuals self-image may at one time be compulsive, compensatory, and unrealistic and at other time insightful and practical. The self-perception which the individual holds at any given point of time may be determined by some “inner-directed” mood or by some “other directed” influence. Many individuals do not recognize their transitory nature. They are optimistic or pessimistic, elated or depressed, satisfied or dissatisfied in all-or-none sort of way. They are sometimes able to switch rapidly from one extreme to other since there is some tendency for the individual to reflect more on his problems than on his accomplishments, the transitory perception of self is largely negative.
(iii) **The social self.** Social self is how the person thinks other perceive him. “To see yourself as others see you” may or may not be valid. At one time, when in an optimistic mood, the adolescent perceives that others see him in good light. When depressed, he perceives that others depreciate him. When others think him stupid, or socially inapt, there is a tendency for him to amplify his feelings of insecurity: “How could any one like me?” More positive views on the part of others may enhance his perception of his social self, some what, but they play a lesser role when he is down.

(iv) **The ideal self.** It is what the person would like to be, the concept of the ideal self, the kind of person the adolescent hopes to be, involves relating levels of aspiration to level of ability. It also involves opportunities for self-realization.

When the ideal self is set at the unrealistic level, frustration is increased. When it is set below one’s level of ability, motivation may become lacking. The adolescent’s level of aspiration tends to go up with success and down with failure. This up down movement is more exaggerated than that usually found in adults. The ideal self of the adult has evolved slowly through experience. Lacking such experience, the adolescents, depends a great deal on identification with some one else as the ideal an older brother or sister, a parent or a teacher. This ideal person may stimulate either emulation or resentment, sometimes both.

(v) **The real self.** The real self is what the person actually is, large discrepancies between any two aspects (dimensions) of the self spell out a maladjusted personality, showing little insight into oneself and having no self-confidence.

The concept of one’s self is shaped by reward and punishment, praise and blame, and by the feelings of accomplishment that come with solving a problem. During pre-adolescence, both parents and peers influence the self concept. This situation changes gradually until the young person’s self evaluation is determined more by what his age-mates think of him. Finally, the adolescent discovers that self must be determined. Individually, he has to learn the hard way that achieving identity is a long and arduous process. He learns that such identity comes through thinking, feeling and decision
making. It thrives on social interaction and in the end, the question, “who am I?” still remains.

1.2.2 MEASUREMENT OF SELF-CONCEPT

Observations projective techniques and self-reporting lists and inventories are some of the main methods used for measuring self-concept. Out of these, self-reporting technique maintains its unique and important position because it has the single advantage of knowing what the individual feels about himself. No one ever can take over the experiences of another person. Therefore, the best way to know what the person feels about himself is to ask the person himself. For this sentence completion, adjective check lists and inventories have been used. Sometimes projective techniques are employed for assessing real self. For certain types of self-assessment, Q-technique has been observed to be a very useful method.

In self reporting, the social desirability variable tends to affect self-descriptions; an individual is more inclined to mark adjectives which have more social appeal and higher social prestige, adjectives which are socially undesirable and negative are not easily marked. The influence of social desirability variable may operate at conscious or unconscious level. However, since the operative self-concept is of greater consequences, this fact has to be admitted and self-reports as given by the individual have to be accepted for study.

It is true that we cannot see the self-concept, we can observe behaviour. In this instance, and when dealing with all psychological constructs, one infers the nature of self-concept from observable behaviour over a period of time. The behaviour is known to be symptomatic of the problem; therefore, if a person continues to behave in a particular manner, we may infer a linking mechanism from his behaviour.

In order to obtain information more efficiently, psychometrics have developed a variety of tests to elicit the behaviour pattern. Most of these tests require a person to give information about himself, and this may be somewhat limited. However, no one has the continuity of exposure and so continuous an opportunity to observe and evaluate his inner life and thought as the person himself. In order to explore an individual’s likes and
dislikes, interests and attitudes the obvious approach is to ask him about them. Rogers (1951) states: “The best advantageous point for understanding behaviour is from the internal frame of reference of the individual himself”. While the advantage of self-reports is the provision of an “inside view” based on the person’s knowledge and experience about himself, there are some definite limitations. This method is weak from the standpoint of possessing external validity. Self-reports can be easily false unless the good will of the subject is obtained. Some subjects cannot view accurate evaluations of themselves because of emotional blocks or defences. Also, result may be affected by mood fluctuations or by conditions at the time and place of the testing.

The relative status of a person’s self-concept is usually determined through the use of one or more of the following techniques:

- Introspective self-reflections in personal family, social and school or work settings.
- Consequences between descriptions of current self-concept and ideal self-concept.
- Congruence between subjective reports of clinically trained observers.
- Non-introspective references derived from projective techniques and clinical interviews.

Measurement of self-concept is a tricky job for an observer. Each person can have a true picture of his own self, while its measurement by another can only be done by way of interference. Also a person may hold certain non-existing notions of himself or some unconscious attitude of self which are not in conformity with his conscious opinion of himself. Furthermore, a person being conscious of others assessing him, may not project his true self.

In order to assess the self-concept of the individual; researchers have used varying techniques, such as observing actual behaviour, conducting interviews, and objective tests. These techniques or tools can be divided into two categories:-

(i) **ADJECTIVE CHECK LIST.** Sarabin (1952) formulated a list of self-defining objectives. To him it was better than questionnaire method. Taking most of the words from Gough’s list of 284 adjectives and some from Allport’s list, he prepared a
personality word list of 200 adjectives which he used for studying males and females, and neurotics and non-neurotics.

(ii) **ADJECTIVE RATING SCALE.** A modification of adjective check list by Bills (1958) for finding out the sum of self-concept was a rating scale of 49 traits. Ideal-self discrepancies were also calculated on this scale.

Deo (1998) standardized self-concept list (SCL) Rating Scale in Hindi and English medium which contains 90 adjectives and reveals the self-concept in the areas of intelligence, emotions, character, social and aesthetic characteristics.

Ahluwalia (1986) standardized children self-concept scale which contains 80 statements.

From the above, it is clear that self-concept plays a major role in the life of a child if it is thought of as a set of expectations and anticipations plus evaluations. There is relationship between the child’s experiences and formations and establishments of his self-concept. Child anticipates a number of areas in which he will not do well and will not gain acceptance and daily anticipation may be confined. In other areas, child expects to do well and his performance permits him to feel adequate and accepted. As child has a continuing number of similar experiences, he will develop a relatively fixed view of his capacities and expectations in both academic and interpersonal situation. In a sense we have a view of the adult child who may give up easily in some activities and persist in others. Thus experiences and interactions are affecting the self-concept of the individual.

1.3 **ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION**

Achievement Motivation has come to be regarded as one of the major domains of psychology and education. It constitutes an integral part of the scientific endeavour to interpret human and intra human behaviour. The psychologists who are concerned with predicting behaviour have realized that prediction of behaviour is possible only when information about motivational and psychological factor is taken into consideration.

The term motivation is derived from the Latin word Movex or Motum which means to move, motor and motion. It is the move towards set goals therefore; motivation is a force, which energizes the behaviour of learners.
Motivation drives and directs behaviour; achievement motivation governs behaviours relevant to achievement and learning. An understanding of achievement motivation has implications for many aspects of human life, including how individuals develop new skills, and how or whether they make use of existing skills.

Achievement motivation is relatively a new concept in the world of motivation. It is essentially a type of motivation that is personal in nature. The basis of achievement motivation is achievement motive i.e. a motive to achieve. Those who engage themselves in a task on account of an achievement motive are said to work under the spirit of achievement motivation. The desire of the learner to improve his achievement at school or to get a good grade or to become an engineer and so on is known as achievement motive.

Achievement motivation has been referred to as the need for achievement (and abbreviated as n-Ach), a wish to do well. It refers to the behaviour of an individual who strives to accomplish something, to do his best, to excel others performance. This involves competition with a particular standard of excellence or performance.

Achievement motivation has been the subject of great deal of interest to educators and psychologists in recent-years. Theory of achievement motivation was developed by McClelland in 1953 at the Harvard University and Atkinson in 1958 at the University of Michigan.

Achievement motivation is defined by Murray (1938) as a special motive to master, manipulate or organize physical objects, human beings or ideas, to do this as rapidly and independently as possible, to overcome obstacles and attain a high standard, to rival and surpass others, and to increase self-regard by successful exercise of talent.

Sears (1940) and Allport (1955) considered the concept of achievement motivation as synonymous to success or failure, ego involvement, and the level of aspiration.

Stagner and Karwoski (1952) in their book “Psychology” have remarked that it seems correct to say that there are three significant varieties of motivating factors:-
- **Biological Drives.** The most elementary form of energy mobilization arises from definite biological needs of the organism like hunger, thirst, oxygen lack, fatigue, exertion, escape from pain. These readily suggest some of the conditions which give rise to motivated action.

- **Emotions.** Such words as fear, anger, joy, love, hate, disgust and curiosity imply the presence of inner states, reaching to more or less vigorous activity. They differ from the biological drives in that they are less closely tied to physical needs and tissue conditions; they are more directly related to external situations. They are thus more flexible and variable than the drives.

- **Values and interests.** At a still more complex subtle level we recognize the energy effect of broad non-physiological tendencies which may be called values. An easy illustration is that of a deep religious conviction.

  Achievement motivation is the desire to do better, to achieve unique accomplishment, to complete with standard of excellence and to involve oneself with long-term achievement goals (McClelland, 1953).

  McClelland (1953) and Atkinson (1964) investigated human motivation through the intensive study of a single motive know as the achievement motive. They assured that the motive arises from changes in emotional states. Atkinson (1964) stated that achievement motive applies when an individual realizes that his performance will be evaluated according to some criteria, his own or others and that the resulting evaluation will be favourable (success) or unfavourable (failure). Some psychologists consider that all human behaviour is intended to reduce tension and reach a state of psychological and physiological equilibrium (balance).

  Rosen (1955) stated that achievement motive is the persisting characteristic or disposition to strive for achievement goals. Achievement motive is strengthened as a result of successive reward for attaining certain imposed standard of excellence.

  Clark and Lowell (1958) opined that achievement motive is acquired through the reinforcement of responses made in achievement-related activities during childhood.
According to Atkinson (1964), achievement motivation in children can be differentiated into three distinct groups: (i) those who are having a strong persistent desire for achievement, especially long term goals; (ii) those who intend to avoid failure with medium or moderate strength of achievement motivation; and (iii) those who are little concerned with achievement.

Highest attainment in academic field demands both good intelligence and strong achievement motivation. But strong achievement motivation can not compensate for low intelligence. Those with strong achievement motivation generally do well in school, are self reliant and less dependent on others (McClelland, 1961, Smith, 1969)

Finger (1966) investigated some characteristics of academic motivation such as persistence (work success) planning (time orientation) self-control deliberateness (morality) which are present usually in high motivation individuals and lack in low motivation group. One can also add personal responsibility, risk taking, level of aspiration, innovating activities and vocational goals as features of achievement motivation.

Guilford (1966) described that the concept of motivation is employed by social psychologist as means of answering two questions concerning social behaviour:-

- Way a man is impelled to act?
- What determines the direction of his actions? Like cognition, motivation is a variable which is not directly observable, and therefore can only be inferred directly from the behaviour of the organism. It intervenes between the stimulus world of the individual and his behaviour, and interacts with incoming stimuli to determine behaviour.

According to Heckhausen (1967), the standard of excellence might be task-related, self-related and other-related. When it was task related, the person tried to gain perfection as a result of performance. When it was self-related, the person compared his own previous achievement. When it was other-related the person tried to compare his achievement with that of others in competition. He further stated that whether the
standard of excellence was task-related, self-related or other related, it consisted of two parts, namely (i) fear of failure, and (ii) hope of success.

Baltus (1976) described that motivation is any force or combination of forces that causes individuals to act as they do. Although all behaviour is motivated or caused, behaviour is extremely complex, all elements of cause effect relationship are not always known, even to the individual. There are many different ways of classifying motives or needs and wants.

Davidoff (1976) has summarized the achievement motivation as follows:-

1. The achievement motive, commonly considered as a growth or social motive, is measured by having subjects construct stories about TAT pictures which are later scored for achievement related imagery.

2. The achievement motive appears to be learning factors. An innate need for competence may also underline this motive.

3. Men with high n-Ach generally persist in the laboratory and in real life. They also tend to prefer taking moderate risks as opposed to very high or very low ones to achieve success.

4. To predict how specific individuals will perform in particular achievement situations it is necessary to consider their achievement motives, expectations of success in that situation, values placed on task success, and achievement related fears of failure.

5. Women tend to perform differently than men on TAT measures of the achievement motive and in achievement situations. One explanation is that they are frequently more anxious than men in such settings because both failure and success have negative consequences.

Page and Thomas (1977) in international Dictionary of Education defined Achievement Motivation as psychological construct developed by McClelland and his associates as being important for the individual and his/her society in terms of
educational and economic development. An individual with the motive to achieve is spurred by his/her needs to satisfy his/her drives to personal adequacy and self-esteem and to receive approval from others as part of a desire to master his/her environment.

According to Good’s (1981) Dictionary of Education, “Achievement is the (1) Accomplishment or proficiency of performance in a given skill or body of knowledge. (2) Progress in school: theoretically different from intelligence but overlaps with it to a great degree”.

Motivation is the process of arousing, sustaining a regular activity, a concept limited to some aspect such as the energetics of behaviour or purposive regulation. Good (1981) defines Achievement Motivation as a combination of psychological forces which initiate, direct and sustain behaviour towards successful attainment of some goal which provides a sense of significance; no single measurable factor seems to account for it; measurement is in terms of construct validation of interrelated scholastic, societal and individual factor of the individual with a felt need and power to achieve higher.

Stratton and Hayes (1988) treat achievement motivation to accomplish valued goal, and to avoid failure. This concept acquired importance as the motivation theory became less dominated by psychological drives.

Irving (1989) defined achievement motive in terms of the way an individual orients himself towards objects and conditions and he feels that he ought to possess them, he may be regarded as having an achievement motive.

Those with strong achievement motivation are not frustrated with failure in a task because it helps them to determine more firmly to achieve a goal they set for themselves. Those with high anxiety and low achievement motivation prefer to have task at a very easy level where they are unlikely to fail (Mitra 1991)

Motivation is an essential part of learning. The learner learns what he wants to learn more effectively when he is motivated to learn. It is motivation that provides force to the student to change his behaviour. The motivation produced by desire to achieve something is called achievement motivation.
Form the above definitions one thing is clear that motivation is the energy to do particular behaviour and is the activating force. This motivation is termed as need, drive or motive.

The achievement motivation in present study has been measured by Deo-Mohan (2002). Projective Test of Achievement Motivation since the desire to strive and excel in competition can be best known through projective device of kind.

1.4 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Academic achievement has been considered as an important factor in the educational life of students. It encourages the students to work hard and learn more. It is the status or level of a person's learning and his ability to apply what he has learned (Pressey & Robinson, 1944).

Academic achievement, in general, refers to the scores obtained in the annual examination or refers to the degree or level of success or proficiency attained in some specific area, concerning scholastic or academic work. Academic or educational age, accomplishment quotient or achievement quotient are the most commonly used means to interpret the level of academic achievement of pupils in general or in a specific given subject matter.

Academic achievement of the pupils continues to be the primary concern in education and main area of educational research. The study of academic achievement and its factors had claimed the attention of researchers even before 1930, and a number of studies had been reported. They were reviewed by Harries (1931). In the year between 1930 and 1937, greater research enthusiasm was shown in this area and Harries (1940) published another 328 studies during this period.

The term academic has been derived from the term academy which means a school where special types of instructions are imparted. Academic achievement has been assessed in a variety of ways such as Grade Point Average (GPA), performance on standardized tests such as the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT), the Science Research Associate Test (SRA) and scores on essay type examination etc. In many studies,
performance in various courses such as mathematics, reading and other areas has been linked with yet another aspect of performance in the classroom, the verbal behaviour of high and low achieving children.

Academic achievement is the core of a wider term i.e. educational growth and plays an important role in the life of a child. High academic achievement in the school builds self-esteem and self-confidence which leads to better adjustment with the group. Achievement encompasses enhancement, self actualization, self-improvement and some form of competitiveness (Maslow, 1954).

In view of Good (1959), and Biswas and Aggarwal (1971), there seems to be considerable similarities in as much as all of them place emphasis on knowledge attained or skills developed in the academic subjects usually designated by test scores. It is different from proficiency in the area of different arts or physical skills. Academic or educational age, accomplishment-quotient or achievement quotient are the most commonly used means to interpret the level of academic achievement of pupils in general or in specific subject-matter.

Pressey, Robinson, and Harrock (1959) defined achievement as the status or level of a person's learning and his ability to apply what he has learned. According to them, achievement would not only include acquisition of knowledge and skills but also attitudes and values.

Trow (1960) defines academic achievement as the attained ability or degree of competence in school tasks usually measured by standardized tests and expressed in grades or units based on norms, derived from a wider sampling of pupils performance.

According to crow and crow (1969) achievement means the extent to which a learner is profiting from instructions in a given area of learning. In other words, achievement is reflected by the extent to which skills or knowledge has been acquired by a person from the training imparted to him; it is the outcome of general and specific learning experience.
Mehta (1969) expressed the view that the word *performance* is a wider term, which includes both the academic and co-curriculum performance of an individual. Achievement is the learning outcome of a student. A level of academic achievement in the academic field of a student is included in the performance of an individual.

According to Encyclopedic Dictionary of Education by Biswas and Aggarwal (1971), the term *academic* means pertaining to school subjects or to the field of liberal arts, or to the sphere of ideas and abstraction.

Good (1973) in Dictionary of Education refers to academic achievement as the knowledge attained or skills developed in the school subjects, usually designated by test scores or marks assigned by the teachers.

According to Kohli (1975), academic achievement is the level of proficiency attained in academic work or as formally acquired knowledge in the school subjects which is often represented by percentage of marks obtained by students in examination.

According to Christian (1980), the word *achievement* indicates the learning outcomes of students. As a result of learning different subjects, the behaviour pattern of students changes. Learning affects three major areas of behaviour of students: (i) cognitive (intellectual development, recall and recognition), (ii) affective (self-concept and personal growth), and (iii) psychomotor (developing of muscular skills). He says that all these three areas of behaviour are not affected in equal measure at a time means, a student may be at a higher level in one area & lower in another.

The concise Dictionary of Education by Hawes and Hawes (1982) stated that academic achievement means successful accomplishment or performance in particular subjects, areas or courses usually by reasons of skill, hardwork and interest and typically summarized in various types of grades, marks, scores or descriptive commentary.

According to concise Dictionary of Education by Hawes and Hawes (1982), the word *academic* refers to the institutional system of formal education within a school, college or university; theoretical and not of practical importance; a scholarly person who works in higher education.
According to Taneja's Dictionary of Education (1989), academic achievement refers to performance in school or college in a standardized series of educational test.

In New Webster's Dictionary and Thesaurus (1992), it is stated that achievement means to bring to a successful end of a performance.

"Achievement encompasses student ability and performance; it is multi-dimensional; it is intricately related to human growth and cognitive, emotional, social and physical development; it reflects the whole child; it is not related to single instance but occurs across time and levels, through a student's life in school and on into post secondary years and working life" (Steinberger, 1993). Thus achievement refers to knowledge and skills gained from experience, an achieved level of expertise or performance in a specific domain.

According to Advanced Twentieth Century Dictionary (1995), the term academic is related to education or to an academy or other educational institution.

According to Random Home Webseter's college Thesaurus (1997), academic achievement means those qualities or attributes or characteristics or traits of an individual which contribute to or have a direct bearing or effect or influence on the accomplishment or proficiency of performance pertaining to any activity scholastic in nature or any scholarly activity.

Ladson (1999) states that at its best, academic achievement represents intellectual growth and ability to participate in the production of knowledge. At its worst, academic achievement represents inculcation and mindless introduction of the young into the cannons and orthodoxy of the old.

According to Megargee (2000), achievement tests show how well students have mastered the subject-matter in a course of instruction.

According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2000), achievement is a thing that somebody has done successfully especially using his/her own effort and skill.

From the definitions given above, it may be concluded that academic achievement is the core of a wider term educational growth and perhaps none would deny the
importance of academic achievement in child's life. Achievement in the school may be taken as any desirable learning that is observed in the students. Since the word desirable implies a value judgement, it is obvious that a particular piece of learning may be referred to as achievement or otherwise depending on whether it is considered desirable or not. Achievement is used in this board sense. It is customary for schools and colleges to be concerned to a greater extent with the development of knowledge, understanding and acquisition of skills.

In short, academic achievement is a measure of understanding or skills in a specified subject, or group of subjects. The academic achievement may be for a particular subject or a total score of several subjects combined. Hence, academic achievement is concerned with the quantity and quality of learning attained in a subject of study or group of subjects after a period of instruction.

1.4.1 ASSESSMENT OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Academic achievement is an important aspect in the life of a child. The success or failure of a student is measured in terms of academic achievement. High achievement in school builds self-esteem, self-confidence and strengthens self-efficiency and belief that leads to better adjustment with the groups. Good academic record to a certain extent predicts future of the child. Today at the time of admission, for entrance in job, for scholarship, for future studies, good academic record is the only yardstick. Whatever one's interest, attitude may be, one cannot under estimate the importance of academic record. It also help the teacher to know whether teaching methods are effective or not and helps them in bringing improvement accordingly. Thus assessment of academic achievement helps both the students and teachers to know where they stand.

The assessment of academic achievement has long been a routine part of all educational processes. It has two purposes: (i) specifying and verifying problems; and (ii) making decisions about students. It aims to assist professionals in making decision about referral, screening, classification, instructional planning and student progress.
1.4.2 METHODS OF ASSESSING ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Typically, the most common method of testing academic achievement is through teacher-designed tests. This informal metrics identifies specific objectives that have previously been taught and evaluates the degree to which students have mastered these objectives.

Beyond these routine everyday classroom based assessment procedures, schools have commonly relied on larger scale evaluation of students’ achievement. Evaluation procedures can be focused on specific individuals or entire groups of students. When focused on individuals, the assessment methods are designed to make decisions about an individual student’s achievement, typically determining the actual acquisition, retention and progress of skill development against expected levels of achievement. When focused on groups, the decision are more related to the outcomes of programme evaluation, examining the degree to which schools or school districts as a whole are meeting wide-scale objectives.

Methods of assessing academic achievement can be categorized into four types.

- Standardized Norm – Referenced Test.
- Criterion- Referenced Test.
- Performance – Based Assessment
- Curriculum – Based Assessment

**Standardized Norm – Referenced Test** are designed to determine a student’s standing relative to similar age/grade peers. The results of the measure are usually reported in some form of standard scores and can be helpful in establishing a student’s achievement against a sample drawn from a target population.

**Criterion-Referenced Test** are designed to determine the acquisition of specific skills against a pre-established standard. Teacher made tests are some of the best examples of these types of measures. Scores on these measures are usually reported in the percentage of skills mastered.
Performance-Based Assessment measures are designed to provide indications of a student’s learned skills as demonstrated through material that is produced. Under conditions that stimulate events occurring in the environment where the skills needs to be produced. Included among these measures would be laboratory demonstrations, artistic performance, writing samples, job evaluation systems and other types of skills that demonstrate learning through the integration and application of the knowledge.

Curriculum-Based Assessment represents attempts to assess a student’s performance using expected curriculum objectives as the data for evaluation. There are multiple models of curriculum based assessment, but all models are focused on evaluating student progress in an ongoing manner directly from a curriculum.

1.4.3 FACTORS AFFECTING ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Academic achievement is considered to be the unique responsibility of educational institutions. Knowledge of level of correlation between different factors and academic achievement is, therefore, necessary for a teacher in ascertaining what contributes to high and low achievement of students. It, consequently, helps in promoting achievement of the students, which is also of great concern to the parents, institution and the society. Truly speaking, the future of any institution depends upon the academic achievement of its students.

Academic achievement is a multidimensional and multifaceted phenomenon. There are innumerable achievements viz. intelligence, personality, motivation, school environment heredity, home environment, learning experiences of school and class in particular. The factors like interests, aptitudes, family background and socio-economic status of the parents also influence the academic achievement.

In a comprehensive study, Sinha (1970) asked high & low achievers to check factors that they considered important in order of achievement significance. These were; hard work, intelligence, memory good health, availability of books, methods of study, financial difficulties, interest in social and practical work.

Dave (1975) reviewed 17 studies on factors affecting achievement, varying from intelligence to physical health through socio-economic status of the family, sex, caste, distance of school from home and leisure time activities.
According to McCombs and Marzano (1990), achievement outcomes have been regarded as a function of two characteristics, skill and will. These must be considered separately because possessing the will alone may not ensure success if the skill is lacking.

There are several factors that are responsible for high & low achievements of the students & these factors can be grouped into two broad classes: subjective factors and objective factors.

**SUBJECTIVE/PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS:**

These are related to individual himself while influencing one’s achievement e.g. intelligence, learning ability, motivation, self-efficacy, learning style, study-habits, creativity, level of aspiration, self-concept, locus of control etc.

**OBJECTIVE/ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS:**

These factors conforming to the environment of the individual include socio-economic status, educational system, family environment, evaluation system, value system, teacher’s efficiency, school situation and environment etc.

Factors affecting achievement listed on the basis of different research findings have been presented in the figure. 1.1. The factors have been classified into the following categories of their sources:

- **Affective factors:** Values, interests, self-efficacy perseverance, stress, level of aspiration, self-concept etc.
- **Cognitive factors:** Intelligence, creativity ability, reasoning ability etc.
- **School related factors:** Type of school, school climate, teacher’s personality, home work, alienation, teacher’s expectations and attitudes, training strategies, teacher’s experience, medium of instruction, teacher’s behaviour and competency, classroom environment.
- **Time factors:** Time spent, time required, time allowed.
- **Home related factors:** Socio-economic status, family size, birth order, gender bias, parental involvement, parental expectation, and working status of parents.
- **Miscellaneous factors:** Culture, locality, age, gender, culture, caste, locality, friends.
### ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS

#### Affective Factors
- Cognitive Style
- Motivation
- Anxiety
- Study habits
- Level of aspiration
- Stress
- Value
- Perservance
- Self-efficacy
- Emotional maturity
- Achievement motivation
- Attitudes
- Adjustment
- Interest
- Need
- Curiosity

#### Cognitive Factors
- Ability
- Intelligence
- Creativity
- Problem solving
- Reasoning ability
- Learning rate
- Expectations and attitudes
- Training strategies
- Teacher’s experience
- Medium of instruction
- Behavior and competency
- Class room environment

#### School Related Factors
- Type of School
- School Climate
- Teacher’s personality
- Home work

#### Time Factors
- Time Spent
- Time required
- Time allowed

#### Home related Factors
- Family size
- Birth order
- SES of family
- Gender Bias
- Parental Involvement
- Parental Deprivation

#### Miscellaneous Factors
- Age
- Gender
- Culture
- Caste
- Locality
- Friends
- Working/Non Working Parents
- Parental aptitude & expectations

**FIG. 1.5 : FACTORS AFFECTING ACHIEVEMENT**
1.5 REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

Review is well integrated record of the previous studies relevant to the issues involved in the investigation. It is a crucial step which minimizes the risk of dead ends, rejected topics, wanted efforts, trial and error activity oriented towards approaches already discarded by previous investigators and even more important erroneous findings based on faulty research design. The review of the literature promotes greater understanding of the problem and its crucial aspects and ensures the avoidance of unnecessary duplication. It also provides comparative data on the basis of which to evaluate and interpret the significance of one’s findings.

For taking any research study, it is important that the previous work done in the area be thoroughly examined. This provides help to the researcher in identifying those areas which deserve attention. It also helps the researcher in eliminating the futile exercise of duplicating the already existing work. The review also gives guideline to the researcher to adopt a suitable methodology for conducting the research project. Review is not just a summary of everything, which the researcher has read, or chronological list of most pertinent abstracts that the reader must dissect and discover how they are related to the present problem.

Good et al. (1954) has highlighted the purpose of reviewing the literature as: (i) To show whether the evidence already available solves the problem with adequacy, without further investigation, thus to avoid the risk of duplication; (ii) To provide ideas, theories, explanations or hypotheses valuable in formulating the problem; (iii) To suggest methods of research appropriate to the problem; (iv) to locate comparative data useful in the interpretation of results, and (v) to contribute to the general scholarship of the investigator.

Good (1966) in a set of beautiful words has highlighted the significance of review of related research which is given below:

“The key to vast store house of published literature may open the doors to sources of significant problems and explanatory hypothesis and provide helpful orientation for definition of problems, background for selection of procedure and
comparative data for interpretation of results. In order to be creative and original, one must read extensively and critically as a stimulus to thinking.”

In the words of Mouly (1964) “A thorough review of related literature is an integral part of the conduct of research, helping the researcher in the clarification of his problem and avoidance of duplication, the formulation of insightful hypotheses, the planning of an adequate research design and the rigorous and insightful interpretation of his findings.”

Indeed the review of research is an essential aspect of research, the investigator needs up to date information about what is already known, what others have attempted to find out in a particular area, which methods are promising and what problems remain to be solved and answers of these are provided by the review of related literature.

In view of the above indicated importance of a thorough review of related research, in conducting a good piece of research, an attempt was made by the present investigator to analyze the studies conducted in India and abroad.

1.5.1 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND SELF-CONCEPT

Elias et al. (1991) evaluated Improving Social Awareness - social problems solving in New Jersey School - taking assessment and school records. The result of his study stated that children, more sensitive to others feelings have better understanding of the consequences of their behaviour, increased ability to ‘size-up’ interpersonal situations and plan appropriate actions, higher self-esteem and more pro-social behaviours.

Curtis (1999) assessed the attainment of guidance outcomes related to the development of emotional intelligence skills and improved self-concept. This study began with an orientation for students in the targeted classes. Three treatment groups were established. Following collaboration with their teachers, appropriate guidance lessons were planned. Curriculum designs which reflected an extension of class-room topics were built. Three Self Rating assessment tools were as pre and post test measures. Comparisons were made to determine if guidance outcomes revealed any significant gain following curriculum intervention. Statistical analysis were conducted using paired t
scores and ANOVA. Variables studied represented Missouri guidance competencies, multidimensional Self Concept scores, and emotional intelligence traits. The competency statement and the EQ trait Managing Emotions showed gain within each group. Among the groups, the only variable showing significant gain was on Self Concept Score.

Coover and Murphy (2000) they conducted a study that examined relationship between self–identity and academic persistence and achievement in counter stereotypical domain. The study revealed that the higher the self–concept and self-schema, the more positive self–description and emotions and therefore better the achievement.

Gautam (2000) in her study on a sample of 200 students of 11th Class (both boys and girls) found a high positive relation between emotional intelligence, self-concept and academic achievement.

Diaz (2001) found that emotions contribute to self-development in the following significant ways: increased self-awareness, improved professional performance, inner motivation, improved relationships etc.

Munjal (2003) conducted a study on 400 students of 10th class of Govt. schools of U.T. Chandigarh. The results of her study revealed that there is significant relationship between emotional intelligence and self-concept as well as emotional intelligence and achievement motivation.

Pecjak (2003) assessed the psychometric properties of the EQ-i and examined the connection between EI and social acceptance of pupils in their class, different aspects of self-concept, and peer perceptions of their classmates on different fields of behavior. For the sample of 282 students, the test was found to have appropriate reliability and factorial validity, EI was related to self-concept.

Burbach (2004) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and full-range leadership as moderated by cognitive style and self-concept and found no significant relationship between cognitive style or direction of self-concept and emotional intelligence while predicting full-range leadership style from leaders’ perceptions. A significant interaction was found between direction of self-concept and emotional
intelligence while predicting transformational leadership, contingent reward leadership and outcomes of leadership from raters’ perceptions.

Manhas (2005) in her study on a sample of 400 students of 11th class (both boys and girls) found a high positive correlation between intelligence, creativity, academic achievement, mental health, self-concept and stress with emotional intelligence. She further reported that girls’ level of emotional intelligence is slightly more than the boys. No significant difference was observed between adolescents of rural and urban areas and scheduled and non-scheduled caste.

1.5.2 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Elias et al. (1997) found that teaching emotional and social skills is very important at school. It can affect motivation and achievement level positively not only during the year they are taught, but during the years that follow as well. Teaching these skills has a long term effect on Achievement.

Mount (2000) conducted a study and demonstrated that emotional intelligence competencies are useful for business planning. An analysis of the data found ten competencies and six unique skills related to successful international business activities. Three of the competencies were classified as cognitive (IQ), seven as emotional (EQ), and six unique characteristics as skill competencies. The hidden value of EQ is that it provides a foundation for performance, which itself evolves from achievement and socialized power motives.

Parker (2000) in his study relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Achievement Motivation found that, high Emotional Intelligence scores on a test were related to high need for achievement scores on the other test and thus predicted the success of students in academics.

Brown (2005) in his quantitative descriptive co-relational research study, using the Emotional Competence Inventory and Motivation Sources Inventory, chi-square and t-test statistical analyses, and structural equation modeling, examined a relationship existing between a leader's emotional intelligence and the motivation of employees /
followers. The survey sample consisted of 49 leaders and 122 employees/followers in a metropolitan New York transportation organization. The survey results suggested no correlation between leaders' use of emotional intelligence and the motivational behavior of employees/followers.

Lee (2005) in his exploratory cross-sectional survey study built on Chan and Drasgow's research by considering individual differences comprising both cognitive and affective components and their relationship to the motivation to lead. Specifically, this exploratory study investigated the relationships between three independent variables (spirituality, psychological empowerment, and emotional intelligence) and the dependent variable (the motivation to lead) among leaders in a public school system. Findings revealed significant positive correlations between (a) the motivation to lead and emotional intelligence and (b) the motivation to lead and spirituality. Additionally, emotional intelligence and psychological empowerment were found to predict the motivation to lead.

Umadevi (2009) undertook study which aimed at finding the relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Achievement Motivation and Academic Achievement of Primary School student-teachers. Emotional Intelligence Scale and Achievement Motivation Test were administered on 200 D.Ed. students and the data obtained was subjected to descriptive, correlation and differential analysis. The results revealed that there was positive relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Achievement Motivation and Academic Achievement. Male and Female, Arts and Science student teachers did not differ in Emotional Intelligence and Achievement Motivation.

1.5.3 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Ediger (1997) discovered that emotions and feelings help students give their best potential in the classroom. The students who are aversive and think negatively cannot concentrate for a long time and have more difficulty in reaching their potential than others.

Pool (1997) reported that emotional well-being is a predictor of success in academic achievement and job success.
Finnegan (1998) discovered that emotional intelligence could lead to achievement from formal education years of child and adolescent to the adult’s competency in being effectively in the work place and society.

Monk (1998) in his review of 13 studies, identified 48 variables associated with academic achievement of undergraduate, African-American males. These variables were placed into three categories: personal variables, demographic variables and institutional variables. Personal variables were sub-divided into non-cognitive and cognitive variables. It was concluded that Academic achievement of undergraduate African-American males is associated with a combination of personal variables (educational aspirations, values, emotional intelligence, self confidence, academic self-concept, self-esteem), demographic variables and institutional variables. The majority of these variables are personal, non cognitive variables.

Jenkins (2000) through his study concluded that academic performance is related to factors of self-concept, emotional intelligence and motivation.

Yost and Tucker (2000) in a study of 73 students of finance and business reported that emotionally intelligent individuals have higher problem solving abilities, better performance and better grade.

Druskat and Wolfe (2001) used Goleman’s undefined research to promote their own undefined research and reported that individual emotional intelligence has a group analog and it is critical to group’s effectiveness. Teams can develop greater emotional intelligence and in doing so, boost their overall performance.

Izard et al. (2001) evaluated an index of emotional knowledge as a long-term predictor of positive and negative social attitude and academic competence in 72 children of ages 5-9 years. The findings suggested that the ability to detect and label emotions facilitates positive social attitude and excellence in academic performance and deficit in this ability contributes to behavioral and learning problems.

Jaegar (2001) sampled 150 public administration students who completed an emotional intelligence component as a part of core management class. The results from
this study revealed a strong relationship between emotional intelligence and academic performance.

Miglani (2001) found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement.

Tapia and Marsh (2001) found an overall significant effect of gender-GPA on emotional intelligence.

Derksen et al. (2002) assessed the divergent validity of the General Adult Mental Ability scale (GAMA), a non-verbal measure of general intelligence, and the EQ-i was assessed. Participants (N = 873) were drawn from a Dutch population and ranged in age from 19-84 years. Correlations between the scales of the EQ-i and the GAMA were low, both across and within gender. Correlations varied with age, decreasing up to middle age, and then increasing in older age, and the Interpersonal component scale consistently correlated negatively with IQ. Results supported the psychometric independence of the EQ-i and the GAMA.

Lam and Kirby (2002) in a study of 304 undergraduates found that overall emotional intelligence was related to performance in that higher emotional intelligence was associated with better scores on measure of cognitive performance.

Parker (2002) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic retention in a longitudinal study involving 870 1st year students at Trent University. Two groups of students were identified: a) those who became 2nd year students at Trent, and b) those who did not. The two groups were matched on age and gender, and did not differ in high school grade-point-average or course load in 1st year. Academic success (staying in university) was strongly associated with emotional intelligence. Emotional Intelligence scores were able to correctly identify the majority of students who would return for their second year. Furthermore, EI scores were even better at identifying those students that would abandon post-secondary education altogether, in comparison to transferring to another institution.
Parker et al. (2002) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement in high school students (n = 667). Participants completed EQ-I and their academic success was strongly associated with overall EI level. EI was found to predict about 16% of the variability in high school GPA. A stronger level of prediction was produced when EQ-i variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly successful versus less successful students).

Shanwal (2003) conducted a study on 200 children of fourth standard of Municipal Corporation of Delhi. It was found that rural children were having higher emotional intelligence than urban children and academic achievement showed positive correlation with one component of emotional intelligence.

Drago (2004) in correlational study examined the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and academic achievement in non-traditional college students. In this study, emotional intelligence, achievement motivation, anxiety and cognitive ability were predictor variables. The criterion variable was academic achievement as measured by student GPA. Results demonstrated that emotional intelligence is significantly related to student GPA scores, student cognitive ability scores, and student age. Additionally, student anxiety was related to certain emotional intelligence abilities. No significant relationship, however, was found between emotional intelligence and achievement motivation. Overall, the results suggest that academic achievement is related to students’ ability to recognize, use, and manage their emotions.

Mohanasundaram et al. (2004) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of 269 teacher trainees. The Emotional Intelligence of the teacher trainees was analyzed with respect to sex of the teacher trainees, management and type of institution. The study revealed that men and women teacher trainees did not differ in their Emotional Intelligence. There was significant positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence and over all academic achievement of teacher trainees but the correlation was low. This was because in Indian situation, the teacher trainees are not aware of knowledge about emotional intelligence and are not properly trained towards emotional management.
Parker et al. (2004) in his study administered EQ-i Short Version test to 372 first year university students in the first month of classes in order to investigate the relationship between EI and academic success. At the end of the academic year, when students who had done quite well (80% GPA or higher) were compared to students who had struggled (59% GPA or lower), academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Vig (2004) conducted a study on a sample of 200 college students and found significant correlation between emotional intelligence and academic achievement.

Menzie (2005) examined the relationship between measures of children's emotional intelligence and screening measures of psychological problems and also examined relationship if any between academic and social competence and emotional intelligence. Students in 2 different school districts completed the Emotional Intelligence Inventory Youth version and the Achenbach Youth Self-Report. Grade point averages were taken from students' final report cards for comparison with the results of the assessment. Analysis of correlations between the two measures indicated that strong negative correlations exist between subscales of the Egi:YV and the clinical scales of the Youth self-report as well as positive correlations between the academic and social competence scales of the YSR and subscales of the Eqi:YV. Lastly, data indicated that the adaptability and stress management scales of the Eqi:YV may have significant value in predicting academic performance.

Stubbs (2005) Results of his study showed that team leader’s emotional intelligence is significantly related to the presence of emotionally competent group norms on the teams they lead and that emotionally competent group norms are related to team performance.

Szuberla (2005) conducted research showing relationship between emotional intelligence and traditional school success metrics among young adults. A statistical description of the extent to which such relationships exist was derived from bivariate and multivariate regression analyses of two particular metrics. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Emotional Intelligence Test: Youth Version. Terra Nova standardized
test percentiles were used as measures of school success. The study sample comprised 61 intermediate elementary students from a single school in suburban Alaska. Significant relationships were found between (a) understanding emotions and reading, language, and mathematics composites from the Terra Nova standardized test, (b) managing emotions and reading composite score, and (c) total scores of both emotional intelligence and school success. No significant relationships were found between perceiving emotions and any of the Terra Nova composites. Results of this study suggest that, on some levels, such a connection exists. At the elementary school level, early interventions can be designed to incorporate the emotional aspects of how children perceive, appraise, and, ultimately, analyze their own academic success.

Singh (2006) conducted a study on 465 male and female college students and found significant difference in the academic achievement of students due to high and low level of emotional intelligence.

Rice (2007) explored the relationship of the emotional intelligence to academic achievement. Ten of 11 personal skills, participation in service learning, holding leadership positions, and leader/planner learning styles were found to be significantly correlated with grade point averages.

Holt (2007) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement in undergraduate students in a community college in Southern California. Participants were surveyed for their demographic characteristics, Scholastic Assessment Test scores, Grade Point Averages. The results of statistical analyses indicate that GPAs are positively correlated with the Emotional Management task score. This study confirmed a relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement, as measured by GPA.

Wraight (2007) in his study elucidated the empirical and practical nature of emotional intelligence, cognitive style, and personality in relationship to college students' academic achievement and life satisfaction. Significant differences across gender, race, grade level, academic major, and students' emotional intelligence, cognitive style, and personality variants were examined. A sample of 243 undergraduate students volunteered to complete multiple self-report instruments for the data collection process.
Kvapil (2007) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and the academic performance of at-risk students. The 300 student-participants in this study were both regular students and students who have been labeled as at-risk, according to national standards and Texas state standards, and who are in danger of failing courses and dropping out from the traditional high school environment. This study also included 26 Math, English, and Science teachers. There is a correlation between emotional intelligence and the performance of at-risk students. In addition, the findings support a connection between the academic performance of non-at-risk students and emotional intelligence.

Kohaut (2009) examined the relationship between students' emotional intelligence and their academic achievement and conducted an exploratory analysis of the data to examine differences in emotional intelligence between racial/ethnic groups. Analysis of the correlations between students' emotional intelligence and their academic achievement revealed positive correlations between the total emotional quotient on the BarOn EQ-i:YV.

Kracher (2009) conducted a study to critically analyze both academic and nonacademic factors that may influence retention of health science students and the potential for future effective admission strategies beyond cognitive admission standards. A randomly selected sample of 109 undergraduate health science students in the College of Health and Human Services at Indiana University - Purdue University Fort Wayne (IPFW) participated in this study. Findings indicated students with high GPAs scored significantly higher in the following emotional intelligence scores: interpersonal, stress management, and impulse control skills.

Nelson (2009) conducted a study on 142 eleventh grade students in a small urban school district, examining relationships between student scores on the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test and found that Emotional intelligence plays a significant role in predicting academic achievement for all students but more specifically for at-risk students. The results of this study can be used to promote social change within public schools that have been focusing primarily on cognitive skills without fully...
considering the role and potential of emotional development in promoting academic success.

Wendrof-Heldt (2009) The results of his study indicated that there is a strong positive correlation between emotional intelligence and research-based school leadership practices and that the development of emotional intelligence is influenced by identifiable and replicable factors. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that districts that make an intentional effort to create awareness of emotional intelligence, as well as to hire, develop, and retain emotionally intelligent school leaders may be more likely to reach their organizational goals related to increasing the academic achievement of all students.

From the above studies, it is clear that there exists a positive significant correlation between two variables i.e. emotional intelligence and academic achievement. However, there are many research studies which fail to show any significant relationship between these variables and there are some others which show even a negative correlation between the two.

Tapia (1998) in “A study of relationship of emotional intelligence inventory.” found that there exists lack of relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement.

Newsome and Catano (2000) examined whether the EQ-i would account for variance in academic achievement scores after controlling for individual scores on a measure of cognitive ability (the Wonderlic Personnel Test). Given the evidence for a significant correlation between scores on the EQ-i and measures of personality, individual scores on a personality measure (16PF) were also controlled. No support was found for claims of emotional intelligence's ability to predict academic achievement. On the other hand, both cognitive ability and personality (extraversion and self-control) were significantly associated with academic achievement.

Woitaszewski (2001) undertook a study the purpose of which was to determine if the emotional intelligence of the gifted adolescents contributes significantly to their social and academic success, and specifically if emotional intelligence was of importance above and beyond traditional psychometric intelligence (IQ). The results from this study
showed that emotional intelligence did not contribute significantly to social and academic success for these gifted adolescents.

Gerber (2004) investigated the relationship between academic success (determined by achievement scores, grades, extracurricular activities, absences, tardies, and discipline referrals) and emotional intelligence in a sample of 51 eighth grade students. Pupils with average or above-average EQ scores did not consistently outperform other students on the measures of success. There were strong correlations between parent, teacher, and self-ratings of EI.

La Civita (2004) studied the relationship between the Independence, Stress Tolerance, and Problem Solving subscales of the EQ-i and the grade point averages of at-risk community college students. The three subscales could not significantly predict the academic achievement of these students.

Barisonek (2005) examined the relationship between Emotional Intelligence, academic achievement and academic production in third and sixth graders. Findings indicated no overall relationship between emotional intelligence and academic production (grades).

Doring (2006) examined the effect of two aspects of emotional intelligence on gifted students' academic success: emotion receiving ability and emotion regulation. Using a sample of gifted and talented students, Results were that, of the variables measured (i.e., gender, IQ, teacher rating scales, and aspects of EI), the gender of the student is the best predictor of success in a G&T program as females performed significantly better than males within the G&T program. In addition, a gender effect of emotion receiving ability on math achievement was demonstrated. Specifically, a significant negative correlation between females' emotion receiving ability and math achievement was indicated. Traditional measures of giftedness such as IQ and teacher rating scales did not significantly predict G&T student academic success in the mainstream setting or within the G&T program. It is quite possible that these variables (IQ and teacher rating scales) were not good predictors due to the lack of variability of these measures within the G&T student sample.
Fruh (2006) determined a relationship existing between emotional intelligence, as measured by the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), academic achievement, as determined by cumulative grade point average (CGPA), and clinical performance as rated by athletic training educators. The subjects were 77 students currently enrolled as juniors or seniors (third or fourth year) in an undergraduate CAAHEP-approved athletic trainer education program. Correlation coefficients were calculated to assess the degree of relationship among the variables of Bar-On EQ-i scores, clinical performance rating, and CGPA. A linear regression was used to predict clinical performance rating from the predictor variables of CGPA and EQ-i scores. The results of this study found no significant relationship between Bar-On EQ-i scores and clinical performance rating. Cumulative grade point average was found to have a moderate relationship to clinical performance rating.

Bradshaw (2008) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence factors and academic achievement in academically successful African American female college students. A purposive sample of 60 successful undergraduate female African American college students at local colleges and universities participated in this research study. Study revealed: (1) no statistically significant correlation between African American female college students' emotional intelligence level and their academic performance (GPA); (2) a weak correlation between Stress Management [a component of emotional intelligence] and the academic performance (GPA) of African American female college students and (3) no statistically significant difference between African American female college students' emotional intelligence level and their academic level.

Lui (2009) explored the role of emotional intelligence in predicting parenting self-efficacy, academic self-efficacy, academic achievement, and school attendance among a sample of adolescent mothers. Relationship with academic self-efficacy, emotional intelligence was not found to correlate with student achievement or school attendance, with the exception of Social Studies achievement.
1.5.4 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TYPE OF COLLEGE

**Type of College**: Three categories of B.Ed. colleges are existing in Punjab-Government, Aided and Self financed colleges. These colleges have different infrastructure, different environment and institutional climate depending upon their location, faculty and management. Admissions are strictly based on merit with applicants preferring government colleges followed by aided and self-financed institutions.

Vig (2004) conducted a study on a sample of 200 college students and found that private college students showed greater emotional intelligence as compared to government college students.

Manhas (2005) in her study on a sample of 400 students of 11th class (both boys and girls) found a significant difference in the emotional intelligence of adolescents of private schools and government schools with private school students scoring higher.

Rani (2008) reported that teacher trainees of recognized private colleges were more emotionally intelligent as compared to their counterparts in the government colleges.

So in the present study the Type of colleges i.e. Government, Aided, Self financed, are expected to exhibit some relationship with Emotional Intelligence.

1.5.5 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND GENDER

**Gender** is the social definition of biological differences between Males and Females into masculine and feminine categories (Delamont 1980). Gender is a social construct, a cultural process of putting girls/boys, women/men into distinct and separate roles and behaviour, which have significant social ramifications.

Gender is part of the socialization process of children beginning in the family itself. A child undergoes ‘gender learning’ to identify herself/himself as Female or Male and take up ‘gender appropriate’ roles and identities. School as an agency of socialization plays a major role in the growing up process of children. ‘Gender code’ starts operating
from the early years of education in segregating girls and boys in a school system. Seating and grouping patterns, process of classroom management, nature of peer interaction, etc. reflect how gender divide, originating in family, passes over and persists in schools (Bassi, 2003). Society socializes the two genders differently as has been found in studies by Duckelt and Raffalli (1989) and Sandhu and Mehrotra (1999). Shanwal (2003) found that overall girls had higher emotional intelligence than boys. Gerber (2004) reported that females scored significantly better than males. Vig (2004) found that female students had higher emotional intelligence. Amirtha and Kadhiravan (2006) found that Gender, age and qualification influenced the Emotional Intelligence of school teachers. A number of personal, social and personality factors seem to affect Emotional Intelligence to a great extent. So the present study is a modest attempt to find out Emotional Intelligence among male and female student-teachers.

1.5.6 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ACADEMIC STREAM

Academic Stream refers to two categories- science and humanities group. Students who are academically higher achievers prefer Science subjects rather than Humanities subjects for their college studies. Science students get more opportunities in the learning activities. They are honest in drawing conclusions. They adopt scientific and systematic procedure. They are open-minded in receiving ideas and facts. They have faith in cause and effect relationship and pursue activities with patience and consistency. These qualities definitely affect their emotional intelligence as well. Vig (2004) conducted a study which showed that science students had greater emotional intelligence than arts students. Manhas (2005) in her study found a significant difference between emotional intelligence of science and arts students with the science students scoring higher. Hence the need to assess Emotional Intelligence in student-teachers belonging to two different academic streams.
1.5.7 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH TRENDS

From the review of literature it is visualized that:

- Emotional intelligence is related to academic and professional success. Emotionally intelligent individuals have increased self-awareness, higher problem solving abilities, better performance and better grade.

- Teaching emotional and social skills can affect self concept, motivation and achievement level positively not only during the years they are taught, but during the years that follow as well.

- A high level of anxiety, worry, and emotional instability, and low levels of empathy and self control contribute to behavioral and learning problems, lack of concentration and poor academic achievement.

- Emotional intelligence develops with increase in age and experiences as a person progresses from childhood to adulthood. So, providing social and emotional intelligence experiences in school and home can help adolescents to improve their behaviour and adjustment in later life.

- Most of the studies have been conducted by foreign researchers in relation with variables like leadership, team performance, motivational behavior of employees, business planning, professional success and success at workplace.

- Very few studies have been conducted on emotional intelligence and its influence on self-concept, achievement motivation and academic achievement. Only few researchers have discussed emotional intelligence with Type of college, gender and academic stream.

- Some researchers could not find any relationship between improvement in emotional intelligence and student’s academic success. Moreover, studies conducted so far in relation to emotional intelligence and achievement motivation do not show consistency in the findings. Hence the need for the exploration in the field of emotional intelligence under Indian conditions.
1.6 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF THE TERMS USED

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Mayer and Salovey (1993) defined Emotional Intelligence as the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action. Emotional Intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotions; the ability to access and / or generate feelings when they facilitate thoughts; the ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and intellectual growth.

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) defined Emotional Intelligence as the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence.

Thus, Emotional Intelligence (EI) is the ability to know one’s emotions, recognise feelings as they occur, manage moods, empathize with others and manage relationships.

SELF-CONCEPT

According to Deo (1998), Self-concept is best conceived as a system of attitudes towards oneself. Just as a person, as a result of experiences, form attitudes which he organizes into self-consistent system and defends against threats and attacks, so the person also forms attitudes towards himself. Self-concept consists of all the perceptions, feelings attitudes and values of oneself concerning oneself.

Self-concept is a complex, continuously active system of subjective beliefs concerning personal existence. It serves to guide behaviour and to enable the individual to assume certain roles in life. When a child reaches school age his/her self-concept is still in the process of being learned. Even though the parents have the crucial role in making the child's early experiences positive, a teacher's importance in this process is unquestionable. Teacher's own philosophy of life, values and attitudes towards oneself and the world are very much present in teacher - pupil encounters. A teacher's own self-concept has a vital impact on a student's level of self-concept. Therefore fostering pupils' personal growth requires self-involvement and self-knowledge on the part of the teacher.
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

McClelland (1953) described Achievement Motivation as disposition to strive for success in competition with others with some standard of excellence, set by the individual. Motive to achieve requires an act of some norms of excellence, long term involvement and unique accomplishment.

According to Newcomb (1964), Achievement Motivation is the acquired tendency and one of the most important social needs.

Achievement Motivation is commonly assumed to be a good thing that goes in influencing individual's behaviour and performance at work. Student-teacher motivation is a vital factor for classroom effectiveness and school improvement. It naturally has to do with teachers' attitude to work and his desire to participate in the pedagogical processes within the school environment. It is related with activities to excel in his field and to enhance his performance. A teacher who is intrinsically motivated may be observed to undertake a task for its own sake, for the satisfaction it provides or for the feeling of accomplishment and self-actualization. On the other hand, an extrinsically motivated teacher may perform the activity / duty in order to obtain some reward such as salary. Extrinsic motivation plays an important part in people's life. It is pre-eminent in influencing a person's behaviour. Therefore, the aim should be to build on and enhance the intrinsic motivation for teachers to teach effectively and at the same time, to supply some extrinsic motivation (O’neil, 1995). This will make teachers happy, satisfied, dedicated and committed in such a way that they bring out their best in their places of work so that both students, parents and the society will greatly benefit from their services.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Academic Achievement is a measure of knowledge and understanding of skills in a specified subject or group of subjects. It is the result of learning experiences that students have in educational places. The total marks obtained by students in the annual examination are treated as academic index score.
1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The world is becoming more and more competitive. With the advent of technology and recent globalization, the complexities of life have increased manifold. Quality of performance has become the key factor for personal progress. Parents desire that their children climb the ladder of performance to as high a level as possible. This desire for a high level of achievement puts a lot of pressure on students, teachers, schools, and, in general, the educational system itself. These environmental pressures require an apt combination of intellectual and emotional wealth to set new standards in teacher education. The teaching profession requires high level of emotional competencies such as rapport, harmony and comfort while dealing with student groups. Large scale reviews of research have consistently shown that emotional and social competence of teachers have an impact on the behaviour of pupils (Weare, 2002). In a classroom situation, children tend to draw a lot from their teachers directly and indirectly. The feelings of the teachers, the way they behave, the way they handle situations, and the way they control their lives is all seen as well as absorbed by students. Therefore the teacher has to be an empathetic person who understands the feelings of students and has competency necessary for good teaching (Olson and Wyett, 2000).

Today, as a result of consumerist and commercial society, the security and warmth of family is lacking. Emotional imbalances i.e. anxiety, tension, frustration and disagreements are becoming the most important hurdle in achievements of pupils. With the influence of western culture, media exposure, easy access through internet and mobile, the children are getting into violence, drug abuse, crime and other related problems. The problem gets more acute in adolescents as adolescence is a period of heightened emotionality and emotional adjustment. Teacher training institutions need to orient the trainees with the stress and emotional demands in the classroom so that they are able to appropriately respond as well as cope with these situations and provide positive learning environment (LoVette, 1997). Emotional Intelligence (EI) of teacher’s increases the Achievement Motivation, optimism, joy, and purpose of learning by students while decreasing anxiety, depression and isolation in them.
Research findings have proved that teachers with high Emotional Intelligence are better equipped to keep their students engaged in learning activities. They are able to spend more time with the students monitoring their work. On the other hand, teachers with low Emotional Intelligence lack in perseverance and give negative feedback to students (Gibson and Dembo, 1984). Studies conducted by Woolfolk and Hoy, (1990) on pre-service teacher trainees have indicated that teachers with higher Emotional Intelligence are more humanistic in their approach. Their skills of questioning as well as presenting a lesson are better as compared to those teacher trainees who lack Emotional Intelligence. According to the findings of Emmer and Hickman (1991), emotionally intelligent teachers are more effective in classroom management techniques and are thus fully equipped to deal with difficult situations. Teaching carried out by emotionally matured teachers is more stable than that of emotionally immature or unstable teachers (Bansibihari and Surwade, 2006). Teachers who are emotionally mature are generally self-aware, can make personal decisions and manage their feelings well. They can handle stress, empathize with others, can communicate well and can build trust in others. Emotionally matured teachers have the capacity to recognize their strengths and weakness and can take responsibility for their actions. They can be assertive without being insulting and know when to lead and when to follow. They are effective as leaders and resolve conflicts following win-win model. Thus, emotionally matured teachers can think, feel as well as act better and facilitate learning by the child. According to Goleman (1995), programme on emotional literacy improves the academic achievement and school performance of children. Emotional Intelligence is an important factor that influences the student’s confidence, Self-control, Self-Concept, Achievement Motivation, Academic Achievement and later on professional success. I.Q. is inherent but E.Q can be developed and nurtured. A teacher with high I.Q. may not necessarily be high on E.Q. Employers of today prefer a person with high E.Q rather only high I.Q. So, before joining a school, if a teacher comes well equipped with fine emotional skills, while undergoing pre-service training, he/she will not only become a more effective teacher, but, will also be able to handle the daily strife and struggle of life with more ease. The present study adds to the theoretical understanding of the concept of E.Q. as it states the relationship of Emotional Intelligence with Self-concept, Achievement motivation and Academic achievement of Student-teachers.
1.8 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Problem has been stated as follows:-

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN RELATION TO SELF-CONCEPT, ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENT-TEACHERS OF PUNJAB

1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The present study has been delimited to following areas:-


1.10 OBJECTIVES

The present investigation has been designed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To study the Emotional Intelligence of Student-Teachers from B.Ed. Colleges viz.-a-viz. Government, Aided and Self financed.

2. To study the Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female B.Ed. Students.

3. To study the Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. Students of Science and Humanities group.

4. To study the Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. Students in relation to Gender, Self-Concept, Achievement Motivation and Academic Achievement.

5. To study the Emotional Intelligence of B.Ed. Students from Science and Humanities group in relation to Self-Concept, Achievement Motivation and Academic Achievement.
1.11 HYPOTHESES

On the basis of review of literature, following hypotheses have been formulated to achieve the objectives of the investigation:

H₁ There exists no significant difference in Emotional Intelligence of student-teachers of Government, Aided and Self financed Colleges.

H₂ There exists no significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female student-teachers.

H₃ There exists no significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence of student-teachers with high Self-Concept and low Self-Concept.

H₄ No significant difference in Emotional Intelligence is found to be qualified by Gender difference in Government, Aided and Self financed College student-teachers.

H₅ No significant difference in Emotional Intelligence is found to be qualified by levels of Self-Concept of student-teachers from Government, Aided and Self financed Colleges.

H₆ There exists no significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female student-teachers with high Self-Concept and low Self-Concept.

H₇ No significant difference exists in the scores of Emotional Intelligence qualified by Type of College, Gender and Levels Self-Concept.

H₈ There exists no significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence of student-teachers with high Achievement Motivation and low Achievement Motivation.

H₉ No significant difference in Emotional Intelligence is found to be qualified by levels of Achievement Motivation of student-teachers from Government, Aided and Self financed Colleges.

H₁₀ There exists no significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female student-teachers with high Achievement Motivation and low Achievement Motivation.
No significant difference exists in the scores of Emotional Intelligence qualified by Type of College, Gender and Levels of Achievement Motivation.

There exists no significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence of student-teachers with high Academic Achievement and low Academic Achievement.

No significant difference in Emotional Intelligence is found to be qualified by levels of Academic Achievement of student-teachers from Government, Aided and Self financed Colleges.

There exists no significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female student-teachers with high Academic Achievement and low Academic Achievement.

No significant difference exists in the scores of Emotional Intelligence qualified by Type of College, Gender and Levels of Academic Achievement.

There is no significant difference in Emotional Intelligence of student-teachers of Science and Humanities group.

No significant difference in Emotional Intelligence is found to be qualified by Science group and Humanities group in Government, Aided and Self financed College student-teachers.

There exists no significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence of Science and Humanities group student-teachers with high Self-Concept and low Self-Concept.

No significant difference exists in the scores of Emotional Intelligence qualified by Type of College, Academic Stream and Levels of Self-Concept.

There exists no significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence of Science group and Humanities group student-teachers with high Achievement Motivation and low Achievement Motivation.

No significant difference exists in the scores of Emotional Intelligence qualified by Type of College, Academic Stream and Levels of Achievement Motivation.
$H_{22}$ There exists no significant difference in the Emotional Intelligence of Science group and Humanities group student-teachers with high Academic Achievement and low Academic Achievement.

$H_{23}$ No significant difference exists in the scores of Emotional Intelligence qualified by Type of College, Academic Stream and Levels of Academic Achievement.