Chapter – I
Introduction

Learned Helplessness

Involvement with the process of life is central to human existence. Human beings participate in the process of on-going changes. Social evolution is facilitated by diversity of human activity. The spurt of activity drops down when people are afflicted by helplessness. Helplessness imprisons people in the cell of passivity, they display gloom and demonstrate inactivity. Helplessness syndrome not only creates a condition of immobility for the individual, it brings in its train various forms of collective impoverishment. The LH theory has been applied to a number of life conditions including gender roles, socialization, depression, learning disabilities, impaired autoimmune responses. The present study deals with investigating the relationship of LH with EI, Type-A/B Personality and Sex differences in context of managers working in public and private sector organizations.

The LH theory was proposed initially by Martin E. Seligman (1965). He noted that increase in negative reinforcement, resulted into passive, helpless behavioural responses which were evidenced in all species by increased social withdrawal, reduced interest in exploration, decreased social status, increased depression and passive - aggressive behaviours. His studies revealed that there was a lack of contingency (uncertainty) in early life between a stimulus, the subsequent behavioural response, and an anticipated outcome there was increased vulnerability to LH later in life. He hypothesized that it was not the trauma of the stimuli that produced helpless behaviour, but rather the perceived lack of control.

LH is a technical term which means a condition of a human being or an animal in which it has learned to behave helplessly, even when the opportunity is restored for it to help itself by avoiding an unpleasant or harmful circumstance to which it has been subjected. The concept of learned helplessness was developed in the
1960s by Martin Seligman. Seligman (1975) found that dogs subjected to shock treatment displayed helplessness after they learned that they could not change the outcome. He found that animals receiving electric shocks, which they had no ability to prevent or avoid, were unable to act in subsequent situations where avoidance or escape was possible. Extending the ramifications of these findings to humans, Seligman and his colleagues found that human motivation to initiate responses is also undermined by a lack of control over one's surroundings.

LH theory is of the view that clinical depression and related mental illness result from a perceived absence of control over the outcome of a situation (Seligman, 1975). Further research has shown that Learned Helplessness disrupts normal development and learning and leads to emotional disturbances, especially depression.

Other experiments were performed with different animals with similar results. In all cases, the strongest predictor of a depressive response was lack of control over the aversive stimulus. One such later experiment, presented by Watson and Ramey (1969), consisted of two groups of human babies. One group was placed into a crib with a sensory pillow, designed so that the movement of the baby’s head could control the rotation of a mobile. The other group had no control over the movement of the mobile and could only enjoy looking at it. Later, both groups of babies were tested in cribs that allowed the babies to control the mobile. Although all the babies now had the power to control the mobile, only the group that had already learned about the sensory pillow attempted to use it.

A similar experiment was done with people who performed mental tasks in the presence of distracting noise. People who could use a switch to turn off the noise had improved performance, even though they rarely bothered to do so. Simply being aware of this option was enough to substantially counteract its distracting effect.
Myers (2002) defines LH as the hopelessness and resignation learned when a human or an animal perceives no control over repeated bad events. Comer (2004) defines LH as “the perception based on past experiences, that one has no control over one’s reinforcement”. Smith (2001) defines LH as a phenomenon in which individuals, gradually, or usually as a result of repeated failure or control by others, become less willing to accept tasks.

LH is a phenomenon containing three components: contingency, cognition and behaviour. Contingency address the uncontrollability of the situation. Cognition refers to the attributions that people make regarding their situations or surroundings of which they are a part. Behaviour allows individuals to decide whether they will give up or proceed with the obstacle set before them (Peterson, Maier and Seligman, 1993).

Seligman’s first experiment with humans involved an experience of uncontrollability through a loud noise that the experimental group could not switch off. In the second phase of the experiment, all the participants were exposed to controllable aversive stimulus, but the experimental group that were exposed to uncontrollability in phase one, failed to respond in the correct way, they have learned to become helpless (Forsterling, 2001). The LH hypothesis is based on cognitive learning theory where subjects learn that the outcome of a particular situation is not related to intended responses. According to original helplessness theory, helplessness manifests in three interrelated areas of functioning: cognitive, affective and motivational. The cognitive deficits are manifest in terms of associational deficiencies; organisms fail to learn association between new stimulus and response. The acquisition of skills is made impossible, the consequences include frustration and low self esteem. Second, organisms display depressed affects. A depressive posture sets in following the experience of uncontrollability, consequences include depressed mood. There is retarded initiation of responses. The organisms learn that all attempts to solve a problem is an exercise in futility, the consequences include passivity and procrastination.
Abramson, et al. (1978) suggested an attributional framework to address the major theoretical debates arising from the original LH theory. They suggested that individuals engage in casual search for the reason of their helplessness. The trigger to the development of learned helpless behaviours is the expectation that response will be unrelated to the outcome. Abramson, et al. (1978) suggested that it is the attributions made for the experience of uncontrollability that may result in LH. Mere exposure to uncontrollable bad events is not sufficient to produce helplessness deficits, many people are exposed to uncontrollable bad event, but not all of them develop helplessness. The person must come to expect that future outcomes are also uncontrollable in order to exhibit LH.

The attributional style construct emerged from the attributional reformulation of the LH model, which is based on the hypothesis that attributional style influences the nature and extent of helplessness following uncontrollable bad events. According to attribution theory individuals are constantly trying to explain the causes of event through attributions. Attributional style is a construct used to describe an individual’s inclination to attribute events to specific kinds of causes (Letegan and Spangerberg, 1993). Attributional (explanatory) style is a cognitive personality variable reflecting how people explain event that happen to them. Some favour highly general explanations involving the self - “I’m a failure”, they are identified as depressive or pessimistic. Others use circumscribed explanations involving factors outside the self - “It was just one of those things”, they are regarded as successful or optimistic (Abramson, et al. 1978). Attribution theory proposes three attributional dimensions in which causes of events can be: internal or external to the self, global or specific in its effect and stable or unstable across time.

In reformulated version of the theory of LH, internal, global and stable factors for explaining bad events are considered insidious, they contribute the risk factors for the induction of helplessness deficits (Peterson and Seligman, 1984).
Models of LH

Behavioural Model

Behaviourists explain personality in terms of the effects external stimuli have on the behaviour of the effects external stimuli have on the behaviour. This school of thought was developed by B.F. Skinner, who put forth a model which emphasized the mutual interaction of the person or “the organism” with the environment. The behavioural model suggests that the behaviour is determined by the visible rewards or punishments.

Learned Helplessness comes to us from the behavioural theories of Watson, Pavlov, Skinner, and others who argued that negative and positive reinforcement represent tools of behaviour modification. However, when a person is said to exhibit LH it means that both behaviourally and psychologically the individual has developed the attitude that they have lost control over the reinforcers in their environment. When such an attitude and behaviour manifests itself, LH quite often develops into hopelessness, passivity, and an inability to be assertive or take control over one’s self and/or environment.

The behavioural model argues that individual attribution plays a significant role in creating the passive, hopeless, unassertive personality of the individual who exhibits the attitude and behaviour. Attribution impacts the individual in the following three ways:

Attributing lack of control to internal factors leads to lowered self-esteem, while attributing to external factors does not.

Attributing to stable factors should lead to an expectation of uncontrollability in future situation and extended across time.

Attributing lack of control to unstable specific factors should lead to short lived situation specific helpless deficits.
**Cognitive Model**

Those who have taken a cognitive perspective on understanding behaviour focuses on the inferred mental processes involved in learning, stimuli in the environment serve as signals and the prediction of what follows, and this is an essential mental activity. Some cognitive psychologists believe that learning occurs through information processing activity that is exclusively mental, while others focus on the roles of mental representations in the learning process. Theorists who conduct cognitive research took to discover and identify the mental processes that occur when an organism is behaving and learning.

Cognitive processes and activities such as information processing, mental representaitons, predictions and expectations are central to the cognitive interpretation of learning. Cognitive processes include internal processes which translate into modern interpretations of a rather ancient concept. Maier, Seligman, and Soloman, (1969) were the first to demonstrate LH phenomenon in dogs. Their experiment exemplifies a cognitive interpretation of LH which has role in the development of depression. Learned Helplessness is a cognitive state in humans and animals is emphasized, before comparing helplessness in animals with human depression.

**Cognition and Helplessness:** It is important to appreciate that although cognition is at the heart of Seligman's theory, Learned Helplessness affects other psychological processes:
Information about the Contingency

Cognitive representation of the contingency (Learning, expectation, perception, belief)

Behaviour (Perception, belief)

- **motivation** - reduced, no incentive to try new coping responses
- **cognition** - inability to learn new responses to overcome prior learning that trauma is uncontrollable
- **emotion** - the helpless state resembles depression

**Physiological Model**

The Physiological basis of LH: Seligman points out that helpless rats have lowered levels of norepinephrine in the brain. Weiss believes that ‘LH’ is produced by some form of “Stress induced debilitation”. He called this the Motor Activation Deficit hypothesis (Weiss and Glazer, 1975). He highlights one important observation made by Overmier and Seligman in their original reports of LH. “They reported that poor avoidance escape performance in the dogs was evident 24 hours after the session of incapable shock but was totally absent if the dogs were first tested 48 hours after shock”.

Weiss (1975) studied the effects of exposure to uncontrollable situations norepinephrine (NE) metabolism in the brain. Weiss argues that rapid dissipation of the LH effect is not characteristic of learning, but instead indicates a short term physiological imbalance that corrects itself with the
passage of time from exposure to trauma.

In support of this argument the diagram shows that NE level in the brain is:

- Reduced shortly after exposure to inescapable shock.
- But recovers over the next 48 hours.

This suggests that the reason Seligman’s dogs did not exhibit helplessness when tested 48 hours after uncontrollable shock because brain NE had returned to normal by this time. However, the effects of shock on brain chemistry depend upon prior experience.

**Attributional Model**

The reformulated attributional LH theory defines three dimensions of attribution. These dimensions are responsible for different aspects of the expectancy of future uncontrollability and it determines the various symptoms of helplessness (Abramson, et al. 1978). The first dimension differentiates between universal helplessness and personal helplessness and illustrates a continuum of attributional style referred to as internality versus externality or simply locus of control. The self other dichotomy is used to determine where an individual is positioned on this continuum. One individual may believe that non-contingency between response and outcome can be attributed to internal factors and another individual at the opposite end of the continuum may ascribe non-contingency to external factor (Mc Dermott Nelson and Quinless, 1988). For example, an individual who has a personal helplessness style may attribute poor performance on a school examination to lack of intellectual ability and may eventually believe that failure is inevitable. Another individual may attribute similar poor examination performance to external factors such as unfairness of the test content. This person may also feel that failure in the course is unavoidable but this person is said to have a universal helplessness style. Abramson, et al. (1978) suggests that a person who exhibits a personal helplessness style is more likely to have a lower self esteem than a person with a universal helplessness style.
The second dimension consists of an attribution style that occurs along a continuum of global helplessness versus specific helplessness (Mc Dermott Nelson and Quinless, 1988). Global helplessness assumes that LH deficits will transpire across a broad range of situations while specific helplessness assumes that the deficits will only occur in a particular range of situations. Attributing uncontrollability to global factors results in helplessness generalized to many other situations, while attributions to specific factors cause the helplessness deficits to be confined to specific situations.

The third dimension entails the consistent occurrence of LH overtime. This dimension consists of a continuum of stable attributions that are generally persistent factors and unstable attributions which are short lived or sporadic factors. The attribution foresees the recurrence of the expectations, but the expectation will determine whether the helplessness effects will occur in the first place (Mc Dermott Nelson and Quinless, 1988). An individual’s relative placement on these scales will not only determine the helplessness deficits displayed, but will also aid in the prediction of future deficits. According to Abramson, et al. (1978), an individual who develops the expectation that outcomes are uncontrollable, are at risk for developing cognitive, emotional and

![Fig 1.1 : A conceptual model of LH in humans.](image-url)
motivational deficits. Various research studies investigated the relationship between LH and depression, control, self-esteem and stress (Baucom, 1983; Baucom and Danker-Brown, 1979; Danker-Brown, 1983; Mckean, 1994; Meehan and Overton, 1982; Seligman, 1975). Since a relationship between LH and depression has been found by Seligman (1975), Abramson, et al. (1978) theorized that pessimistic attribution style will cause proneness to depression in an individual. The reformulated model of LH has preventative implications. People at high risk for depression, in other words people who have a tendency to attribute uncontrollable negative events to internal, stable and global factors, may be identified before the onset of depression. Abramson, et al. (1978) suggested therapeutic techniques that may prevent LH and resulting depression. Life experiences that teach individuals to expect that they will be able to control the sources of suffering and nurturance in their life should immunize them against the detrimental effects of helplessness. Figure-1.1 depicts a theoretical model which may be used to explain LH in humans (Mc Dermott Nelson and Quinless, 1988).

**Weiner’s Attribution Model**

Weiner’s (1995) attribution theory emphasizes the relationship between the casual attributions an individual makes and their motivation for achievement. A fundamental assumption of attribution theory is the notion that it is an individual’s explanation of their achievement outcomes that will determine their future achievement motivation. People engage in search for the perceived causes of events, especially if those events are unexpected. These causal attributions are explanations for outcomes will then form significant motivational beliefs. It is thus an individual’s causal attributions for success or failure that will be the driving force behind their subsequent achievement.

Learned helpless individuals do have external locus of control whereas less helpless people have internal locus of control. Helpless people have internal locus
Helplessness is positively related to external locus of control (Rotter, 1966).

Stability is the second causal dimension which refers to the duration of a causal attribution. Causal attributions may be considered relatively stable or unstable over time. For example, ability can be viewed as a stable characteristic over time whereas effort can be perceived as unstable or varying over time. If the individual attribute their current success to a stable cause like ability, they will be more likely to anticipate future success then when they attribute it to an unstable cause like effort, each causal attribution is comprised of a combination of the three causal dimensions.

It is the positive and negative causes an individual attributes to an outcome that will begin a motivational sequence. In the model emotions are directly linked to the outcome and displayed as reactions of happiness or frustration and sadness. To determine the reason behind the outcome, the individual will partake in a causal search. Several causal antecedents will have an impact on the causal explanation.
reached, for example specific information like past history and social comparison. Examples of causal decisions in the achievement sphere would be ability, effort or luck. The causal decision in itself might surprise. The cause can then be positioned in the dimensional space of locus, stability and controllability. Globality and intentionality can also be potential causal properties. The psychological effects of causal dimensions can also be demonstrated. For example, the stability of the causal attribution will determine the anticipation of future success and result in hopelessness and hopefulness. The globality of the cause will influence expectations across situations and the locus of the cause will affect self esteem and pride. Controllability will influence social feelings, for example individual failure can encourage self-directed feelings of guilt or shame depending on whether the causes are controllable or not. Depending on the circumstances, possible emotions directed at other people can include anger, pity or gratitude. Expectancy and affect, in turn, are then alleged to guide motivated behaviour. This model illustrates Weiner’s attribution theory matter successfully and highlights the importance of attributions in achievement behaviour.

Bernard Weiner’s attribution theory (1979, 1985) concerns the way that people attribute a cause or explanation to an unpleasant event. Seligman found that these explanations could be rated along three dimensions:

**Personalization:** Internal Vs. External - Pessimists blame themselves for bad events whilst optimists are able to depersonalize. People who blame external events for failure rather than themselves generally like themselves better than people who internalize failure. This personalizing or internalizing style is linked to low self esteem.

**Pervasiveness:** Specific Vs Universal - Helpless people catastrophize; they think that negative events are universal/global and will affect all areas of their lives. Optimists on the other hand believe that negative events have context specific causes which can be amended.
Permanence: Temporary Vs. Permanent - This factor is about time. People who give up easily believe that causes of bad events are permanent, and that the bad events will persist. Also, people who believe that good events have permanent causes are more optimistic than people who believe they have a temporary cause. One resistant to helplessness believes that negative happenings are only temporary. Pessimists might attribute said events to mere mood or luck. Conversely, optimists attribute positive happenings to non-transient causes like traits and abilities, which positively will last longer.

Development of Helplessness

LH is an induced personality trait. The prefix “learned” emphasizes the point that a helpless individual has personal history and this history is necessarily a matrix of experiencing non-contingency (response-outcome independence).

Contingency has emerged as a core construct in parent child interaction (Crandall, 1973; Lamb, 1979; Lefcourt, 1976). It is noted that early contingency, parental expectancy, attitudinal emphasis, rearing strategies, attribution training, play an important role in the development of helplessness.

The development of LH appears to be a product of both predisposing and precipitating factors. The differential exposure to non-contingency seems to trigger off LH. This hypothesis predicts that those with a history of failures (example, the mentally retarded and learning disabled) would experience greater deficits than those with no history of failures. Dweck et al. (1978) contend that because of differential performance feedback in the classroom, girls are more likely than boys to attribute failure to lack of ability and become helpless. They observed the teacher’s evaluative feedback in the classrooms and found that girls attribute failure to stable factors such as ability, they are likely to generalize low expectations for success to new situations. In
contrast, boys attribute failure to unstable factors, they are likely to expect their level of success to improve whenever they enter a new situation.

Dweck, Goetz and Strauss (1980) found that boys predicted significantly higher school examination grades than girls. Boys did not generalize their performance expectations to the new classroom. A number of studies have shown that children who are rejected, especially neglected, by peers are likely to manifest LH in social situations (Ames, and et al. 1977). High status children make internal attributions for positive events whereas low status children make external attributions for positive events and internal attributions for negative events. Hymel (1983) found that popular children made more internal attributions for social success than unpopular children.

School provides an experiential world where much of achievement cognitions are shaped. It has been shown that teachers’ socialization is associated with the development of students mastery oriented vis-à-vis maladaptive orientation. Lenny (1977) research on sex difference demonstrates girls’ lesser confidence in their intellectual abilities. Dweck and Bush (1976) found boys and not girls showing helplessness when peers delivered failure feedback. Girls receive less criticism from teachers and are perceived by teachers to be the processors of the superior intellectual and personal virtues. Teachers of LH children show more negativistic attitudes than do teachers of MO Children. Negativistic socialization prevents them from learning a wider range of skills.

Verbal communications following from parents, teachers, peers, neighbours and other important figures may explicit or implicit persuasive message. Moreover, a repeated exposure to such verbal persuasive messages may induce a sense of helplessness if the contents emphasize uncontrollability in our environment.
Correlates of Helplessness

The construct of helplessness is an integrative one, it interrelates a number of concepts in a predictable pattern. Perception of control is a core concept underlying the phenomenon of helplessness, associated with control related concepts such as desire for control (DC) and control beliefs are likely predictions. Helplessness represents the obverse of competence. Accordingly, relation with competence related constructs such as internal locus of control and self efficacy merits investigation. Burger (1989) defined control as “the perceived ability to significantly alter events”. Burger and Cooper (1979) introduced the motivation of Desire for Control (DC). As a personality trait it reflects the extent to which people are motivated to control life events. Thus, control and helplessness are negatively related. Like helplessness, the motivation for control and reaction to the loss of control have been tied to depression (Abramson, et al. 1978), academic performance (Dweck, et al. 1980) and health (Wallston and Wallston 1981) Maintaining a sense of personal control would aid to cope with stress (Glass, et al. 1972), anxiety (Mandler, et al. 1972, 1966) and old age problems (Langer, et al. 1976) including many other life events. Furthermore, DC could account for significant proportions of variance in a wide variety of areas including LH (Burger and Arkin, 1980). In addition to non-contingency, the expectancy of control would act negatively including helplessness. On the other side successful exertion of control would act negatively including helplessness. On the other side, successful exertion of control would have a positive effect leading to subsequent existence of efficacy, motivation and reduced helplessness.

Control is found to have positive association with job satisfaction (Hackman, et al. 1978) and related to outcomes reflecting happiness (Karasek, 1979). Control is also associated with positive self evaluation (Hackman, et al. 1978). Tetrick and La Rocco (1987) found that understanding, prediction and control are directly related to perceived stress, but only control had a significant direct link with satisfaction.
Seligman (1975) views helplessness in terms of response-outcome independence. The external locus of control may be defined as pervasive belief that personal efforts have no impact upon the outcome. The internal locus of control is pertaining to the belief that outcomes are dependent upon the actions or one’s responses determine the outcome (Rotter, et al. 1966, 1962). The helplessness model seems to be congruent with the external locus of control. The findings of Lefcourt (1976) indicated that individuals having internal control are less quick to draw generalization about their inabilities when compared with externals. Gurin, Gurin, Lao and Beattie (1969) suggested that individuals characterized themselves as internals are likely to be demoralized, holding the belief that they are responsible for the failure.

Strickland (1978,1979) and Lefcourt (1979) focused on the locus of control as a predictor of health related behaviour and stress management respectively. Health hazards, like coronary heart disease (CHD) and other psychomatic disorders, along with stress and depression, are believed to be concomitants of helplessness. Perception of control has predictive value in important aspects of motivational, cognitive and emotional functioning that influence action. Early experiences of non-contingency between action and outcomes not only retard present perception of control but future controllable learning situations are also hampered (Ramey and Finkelstein, 1978). Watson (1977) has identified some factors, such as delays between actions and outcomes, imperfect linkage between actions and outcomes.

Bhana (1985) tried to assess Indian children’s perception of control and found that for each domain of activity (cognitive, social and physical) there is a developmental difference in the children’s perception of sources of control (internal, external and unknown), internal source being more important than external and unknown sources.

Piaget (1936) had viewed the relation between own behaviour and some effects in environment that leads to development of causal schema in the first 6-12 months of life. Watson (1966) showed that even two-month old babies learn to increase
simple activities like turning their heads if the action leads to movement of mobiles and also to learn to enter into regulated interaction with caregivers (Bruner, 1983). Around 3 years of age pride comes as an indicator of success and shame as indicator of failure (Heckhausen, 1982). Around 5 years of age children learn to identify effort or lack of it as the cause of success or failure (Nicholls, 1978). But a full understanding of the intricate relation between ability and effort is established around 12-13 years or teenage (Kun, 1977). The structure of a fully functioning ‘control belief’ is achieved at this stage (Flamer, 1993). But control is achieved mainly in the area of schooling where the children have a considerable experience. Thus, the child develops a realistic picture of his or her control perception and belief. Another concept luck, which is a counter-concept of control, is also developed at this stage. Young children include luck and effort similarly in ability, but through practical experience luck decreases in importance than effort because effort is more controllable and appropriate to academic situations than luck.

Kinderman and Skinner (1989) studied mother’s perception of children’s competencies in learning developmental tasks and found mother’s behaviour to change according to childrens’ contingent behaviour and helping the child to develop control in every activities. The personal control belief of parents also leads to perception of parental control in children that helps in development of personal control in them (Schneewind, 1993).

Self-efficacy theory has a link with human helplessness. Bandura (1977 a), maintained, “people process, weigh and integrate diverse sources of information concerning their capability, and they regulate their choice behaviour and effort expenditure accordingly”. Further, Bandura (1977a, 1982, 1986) viewed that all behavioural and psychological changes occur through the alliteration of an individual person’s mastery on efficacy.
The self-efficacy expectancy can be attributed to the internal or personal helplessness. The outcome expectancy may be related to external or universal helplessness (Abramson, et al. 1978). The persons having stronger perceived self-efficacy would exercise their efforts more actively in the face of aversive situations. Prolonged failure in the past in different life situations would lead to ineffectiveness which is a counterpart of helplessness syndrome. So, there is a positive correlation between behaviour and outcome are more easily persuaded by the information about their personal efficacy than the persons believing a strong relationship between behaviour and outcome. The self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977a, 1977b) states that personal control endows the individuals with a high sense of perceived efficacy, perceived ability, or personal effectiveness for coping with an aversive or negative life events.

Type-A/B Personality Pattern as a Correlate of LH – Glass and Carver (1980) classified the major components of Type-A Behaviour as competitive, achievement striving, a sense of time urgency and aggressiveness. On the other hand, relative absence of these characteristics and instances among the persons are classified as Type-B Personalities. When persons with Type-A Personality Pattern experience more failure than success they may develop helplessness. When the individuals become aggressive in their achievement strivings and have a sense of independence of the goal (outcome) and the action (response). This perception may lead themselves to a state of helplessness. Rosenman, et al. (1975) and Mathews (1988) found positive significant relationship between Type-A personality and CHD. Thus, it is clear that there is an association between Type-A Personality Pattern and Helplessness.

Significant negative association was shown with respect to dominance, sociability, social presence, sense of well-being, responsibility, socialization, achievement via conformance and intellectual efficacy. Interpersonal adequacy measured by traits such as sociability and social presence had negative association with helplessness.
Studies explain the role of interpersonal relationship in people’s responses in stressful situations.

Sahoo and Sahoo’s (1991) study revealed significant positive relationship of helplessness with identity and behaviour. In Western studies, the positive association between helplessness and depression has been widely documented (Peterson and Seligman, 1984). Helpless persons adopt depressive posture and consequently experience a low self-identity and confused behaviour. In Western situations people encounter personal helplessness. In contrast, Indian people experience universal or shared helplessness which leads to very low level of depression.

**LH in Work Settings**

Work settings present work goals and employees are expected to successfully accomplish work objectives. A fundamental proposition that has remained uninvestigated concerns the role of helplessness in job inefficiency, particularly in the context of Indian socio-cultural system. Kanungo and Mishra (1985) suggested that Indian socialization influences affect work. Personal helplessness as an end product of past socialization is likely to affect work motivation. People high on personal helplessness are indifferent to work demands and work satisfaction. Personal helplessness was found to be positively correlated with non-contingency, motivational and emotional deficit.

People low on personal helplessness and high on universal helplessness are said to have a mastery orientation towards the environment. Their attitude will produce certain work-related outcomes. Personal helplessness is also associated with motivational deficits whereas it is negatively related to satisfaction. Universal helplessness, on the contrary, is likely to have a weak relationship with the dimensions of non-contingency and motivational deficits.
Sahoo (1991) undertook a study to test these predictions and to provide inputs for helplessness remediation programmes. The participants in the study were sampled from educational, financial and medium scale industrial organizations of Eastern India.

With respect to personal helplessness, employees of industrial organizations reported the maximum amount of personal helplessness, while employees of financial organizations reported the minimum amount and employees of educational organizations reported a moderate amount. There were no significant differences across job levels. There was no significant main effect either for organization types or for job levels. Employees in all these three types of organizations reported the same degree of universal helplessness. They also showed the same degree of universal helplessness across job levels.

Employees of industrial organizations also reported greater non-contingency than did employees of financial organizations. There was no significant difference between employees of educational and industrial organization. Employees in industrial organizations experienced greater motivational deficit than did employees in educational and financial organizations. Employees of industrial organizations reported least motivational deficit, whereas employees in educational and financial organizations reported greater motivational deficits. Employees in lower level jobs experienced greater motivational deficit and emotional deficit. Motivational deficit and emotional deficit showed a significant association. Industrial employees showed higher personal helplessness compared to employees of educational and financial organizations. Employees both in educational and financial organizations experienced lower emotional deficit as well as greater motivational deficit than did industrial employees. People in lower jobs showed higher scores than people in higher jobs only with respect to motivation deficits.
It is clearly indicated that the efficiency of employees depends at least in part on their perception of control. When controllability is lowered several negative consequences are likely outcomes. Similar studies were carried out by Sahoo and Tripathy (1990) on employees from administrative and financial organizations. Similar study was carried out by Sahoo and Ray (1995) on military personal (three wings) in India. The predictions have been supported and generalities have been corroborated.

Pestonjee, et al. (1999) studied organizational climate, tolerance of ambiguity and LH on managerial effectiveness and creativity. The results show no significant relationship between organizational climate dimensions and managerial creativity.

**Emotional Intelligence**

In recent years emotions are increasingly being viewed as signals that provide information, direct attention, facilitate attainment of goals and are seen as organizing processes that enable people to think and behave adaptively. Expressing our emotions has an effect in all aspects of our lives. Buck (1985) has defined emotion as the process by which motivational potential is realized or ‘reatout’, when activated by challenging stimuli. To exhibit emotions is very easy but doing it at the right time at the right place, with the right person and to the right degree is difficult. The management of emotions has given rise to the term “Emotional Intelligence”. Goleman (1995) reports that emotional literacy programmes improve children’s academic achievement and social performance.

Gottman (1977) has noted that emotional and social measures of intelligence are better predictors of school success. Thus, emotions and intelligence are closely interrelated. Emotional Intelligence means our capacity to deal with our feelings wisely and the ability to reason for our vital well being. Knowing one’s emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, persistence and social deftness are the key components of Emotional Intelligence. People who have a good balance of IQ and EQ are often more successful in their life. EQ deals with how we learn,
acknowledge and express our feelings, but also how we effectively respond to others when it comes to dealing with their emotions.

The merging of emotion and intelligence as a cognitive ability under the caption of EI was proposed by Peter Salovey and John Mayer (1990). Emotional Intelligence is a set of skills that not only leads to better academic and professional functioning, but also good social interactions and a healthy living which leads to personal satisfaction. Emotional Intelligence is a type of social intelligence, more clearly distinguished from general intelligence as it involves the manipulation of emotions and emotional content. Consequently, EI may have better discriminant validity (Mayer and Salovey, 1993). Mayer and Salovey (1993) define 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. Cooper and Sawaf (1997) define EI 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. The term EI encompasses the following five characteristics and abilities as discussed by Goleman (1995):

**Self-awareness:** Knowing your emotions, recognizing feelings and discriminating between them. Being able to discuss and communicate emotions, empathize, motivate, inspire, encourage others and make intelligent decisions. The ability to manage and take responsibility for one’s own emotions, self-motivation and personal happiness and, recognizing the difference between feelings and actions.

**Mood Management:** Handling feelings and react appropriately. Frustration tolerance and anger management, eliminating group disruptions to express anger without violence and have more positive feelings about self, school and family and better at handling stress.

**Self Motivation:** “Gathering up” feelings and directing yourself towards a goal, despite self doubt, inertia and impulsiveness. Able to focus on task, responsible,
attentive and improved scores on achievement task, friendly, sociable, helpful and skillful in dealing with people and open about their feelings.

**Empathy:** Recognizing feelings in others and tuning into their verbal and nonverbal cues. Better able to take another person’s perspective, improved empathy and sensitive to other’s feelings, better at listening to others.

**Managing Relationships:** Handling interpersonal interaction, conflict resolution and negotiations more popular and outgoing, maintaining relationships, friendly with peers, prosocial and harmonious, cooperative and democratic in dealing with others.

Gardner (1983) talked about multiple intelligences including intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence. He conceptualized intrapersonal intelligence as an ability to understand one’s own emotion and interpersonal intelligence as an ability to know others’ emotions and intentions. School children need interpersonal intelligence to be accepted by their peers. Adults need intrapersonal intelligence to get by in the world of work and in relationships. There’s research that suggests that Emotional Intelligence counts more than the traditional IQ based intelligence when it comes to employment and life satisfaction. Certainly, there are plenty of intellectually bright people around who show very little EI and appear to lose out for that reason.

EI exists even before children develop language. Language makes it easier to express one’s feelings. Parents and teachers can help the child to talk about their emotions by labeling their feelings such as angry, sad, happy, excited, afraid and so on. The earlier a child learns to label his feelings the sooner he/she starts developing his/her EI. In order to create EI in children parents must create pleasant emotional climates at home. Stress and conflict till a certain level helps in developing EI but if it goes beyond that it could have a negative effect.
We can say that fifty percent of our EQ is inherited through our genes and the other fifty percent is obtained from our interaction with the environment. There is a difference between EQ and IQ. IQ can be defined as individual’s competence to perform in his/her academic work, whereas EQ indicates an individual’s ability to get along with other people and handle social situations. Thus, both are of equal importance.

Hereditary and environmental factors both play a very important role in the development of EQ. Emotional Intelligence is influenced by the experiences which an individual encounters. People who can’t identify or understand their own emotions often make bad decisions, no matter how much brain power they have. On the contrary, people who are intelligent about their own and other’s emotions, are often successful in life.

Each day in the workplace, an employee’s EI is put to the test. Emotion is present in the workplace, everyday, everywhere. Unlike IQ, which tends to remain fixed throughout a person’s lifetime, EQ - EI can be improved. In an organization when an employee feels the presence of a threatening situation he may handle it either of the two ways. He may be confident of his ability to handle the situation and may see it as a challenging opportunity to prove himself or experience fear or dread. Thus our appraisal of situation and subsequent emotions are strongly influenced by our own estimate of capabilities. The emotions aroused depend not so much on the events themselves, as on how they are appraised.

EI motivates employees to pursue their unique potential and purpose and activates innermost potential values and aspirations, transforming them from things they think about to what they do. Paul Harvey and Marie T. Dasborough’s (2006) study suggested that Emotional Intelligence is an important predictor of coping ability and workplace behaviour. Strong evidence and research has directly linked Emotional Intelligence to improved performance in the job depending on the type of job. Competence in the area of EI may account for as much as 75% of the skills
and abilities needed for best performance. Leadership performance especially, at all levels of the organization from supervisors, team leaders, managers and executives will improve as EI concepts are learned and applied.

Use positive emotions to energize and motivate the workforce. Understand how emotions link to performance and use this information to build a climate of high trust that results in improved performance. Control the negative impact of emotions, which negatively affect morale and put the organization at risk for lawsuits and grievances. Create a climate that will retain high potential and high performing individuals, drawn on both rational mind and emotional mind, which enables greater creativity and innovation. Build high trust with employees, customers and stockholders. Until now, few organized tools and approaches have been available for organizational development specialists, trainers, human resource professionals and coaches who wish to improve the performance of their clients and participants in EI.

**Learned helplessness and Emotional Intelligence**

Emotions are inherently neither positive nor negative, rather they serve as the single most powerful source of human energy. People who have a good balance of IQ and EQ are often more successful in their life whereas people who are unable to understand their own emotions would get into situations where they may not know how to handle their feelings and thus feel distressed.

Children who are exposed to physical or emotional abuse tend to have more emotional problems. They also have weak language skills in expressing their feelings. Stress and conflict beyond a certain limit could affect the child negatively showing more emotional problems.

Emotional abuse leads to LH in individuals. Abuse is a behaviour through which a person may control or manipulate people, this could be done through fear, coercion, humiliation, dominance, guilt, etc. Emotional abuse may include
anything from verbal abuse to name calling, constant criticism, demanding the other person’s self-esteem or aggressive abuse. Aggressive abuse also involves name-callings, blaming, accusing, ordering or threatening that are usually exhibited by most parents. Indirect abuse may include criticism, advising, offering solutions proving and questioning. This is usually seen in parent child relationship and leads to “Learned Helplessness” in individuals. The effects of emotional abuse are drastic, it takes away a child’s self-confidence, sense of self-worth, trust in one’s own decision and thus leads to Leaned Helplessness.

Ciarrochi, Deane, and Anderson (2002) in a study concluded that EI moderates the relationship between stressful outcomes and hopelessness – a construct similar to Learned Helplessness, such that high levels of EI reduces the likelihood of hopelessness in response to negative outcomes. Martinko (2001) explained that passive form of organizational deviance is said to result from internal and stable attributions for negative outcomes that results in diminished performance. Aggressive deviance can take different forms from vocal outbursts to homicide. Martinko and Zellars (1998) argued that stable, externally controllable and intentional attributions for failures are likely to trigger such reactions in certain people. Individuals low on EI will be more likely to commit acts of deviance than those with high levels of EI, and should therefore be able to more constructively manage negative emotions.

Due to the attribution they make and their emotional responses individuals with low level of Emotional Intelligence will display Learned Helplessness more frequently than those with high levels of Emotional Intelligence. EI moderates the relationship between individual’s initial affective responses and their attributions. Individuals with high levels of EI will experience less stress than those with low levels of EI.

Positive emotional reactions have been linked to numerous desirable outcomes such as increased productivity, job satisfaction and empowerment and decreased stress and turnover. Conversely, negative emotional reactions have been shown to
predict a wide array of undesirable outcomes such as tension, turnover, decreased productivity and even workplace violence.

Emotional Intelligence plays a moderating role in the attribution-emotion-behaviour process. The Emotional Intelligence dimensions of perception, facilitation and understanding emotions are posited to moderate the relationship between outcome dependent affect and attribution formation. Further, the “emotion management” dimension of Emotional Intelligence is argued to moderate the relationship between attributions and subsequent emotional responses. These emotional responses are then argued to influence behavioural, motivational and psychological consequences in the work place.
**Type A/B Personality Pattern**

Behaviorists explain personality in terms of the effects external stimuli have on the behaviour. This school of thought was developed by B.F. Skinner, who put forth a model which emphasized the mutual interaction of the person or “The Organism” with the environment.

Personality can be defined as “a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations and behaviours in various situations”. The word “Personality” originates from the Latin word ‘persona’ which means mask.

Two personality types were developed by the psychological profession in order to define people’s behaviour. During the 1950s, Meyer Friedman and his co-workers defined Type-A and Type-B Behaviour Patterns. They theorized that intense, hard-driving Type-A Personalities had a higher risk of coronary disease. Type-B people on the other hand, tended to be relaxed, less competitive and lower in risk. There is also a Type-AB mixed profile for people who cannot be clearly categorized.

Type-A Personality is defined as temperament characterized by excessive ambitiousness, aggressiveness, competitiveness, drive, impatience need for control, focus on quantity over quality and unrealistic sense of urgency.

Of the Type-A/B Personality types there are the folks that are always in a hurry, impatient to see results and come across as aggressive in the interpersonal relationships. Type A’s are very competitive and show it at work in their levels of tension and agitation. Their personalities are a mix of right and left-brained dominance. They are risk taking, inflexible and private people who become hostile easily when they are criticized.

The Type-A individuals win every ‘game’ in life, speak fast, act fast, see goals and challenges everywhere, manifest impatient gestures and interrupt when faced with
slower events. These person cannot wait in queues, are superficially interested in the aesthetic aspects of life and they have tendency to measure success in terms of material gains and number rather than quality of goals achieved. In the Type-A pattern, emotions like hostility and anger plays an important role. Type-A persons experience strong stress reactions in environment where pressure is high. Type-A pattern also has both negative and positive aspects while placing people at high risk of heart related illness and death, it also gives them the drive to do particularly well in certain kinds of tasks (Boyd, 1984; Taylor, et al. 1984) It has been found that the incidence of coronary heart disease is twice as great among ‘Type-As’ than among ‘Type-Bs’. The Type-A pattern is particularly common among small business owners and entrepreneurs as they are likely to be the chief of rapidly growing and profitable firms. The superior performance of Type-A people appear to be due to their devotion to their work.

When faced by frustration and insecurities some people choose to become depressed while others choose to become Type-As. A Type-A Personality is the result of the choice to deal with these insecurities, rather than ignoring them. The Type-A Personality is a very flat personality, very strict. Fundamentally this personality grows out of having had to earn acceptance rather than being bestowed with it unconditionally. This person as a child was probably given conditional love, had a role model who was raised on conditional love or both. There was a standard to be met and if it was met there was acceptance and reward, if the standard wasn’t met then there was neither reward nor acceptance.

A Type-B can become a Type-A after facing a dramatic life change. But he has to have the tendency to become a Type-A. If a man was very rich and then an economic down turn made him become poor, he may turn into a Type-A in order to overcome the financial insecurity he is suffering from. On the other hand, this man may not become a Type-A and remain depressed or helpless.
Type-A’s seem to always know their way and that’s why they always have lots of things to do. The Type-A is a normal person operating at his maximum possible speed, has exaggerated sense of time urgency, is a very competitive person, handles more tasks at the same time than windows XP can, are subject to tremendous amount of stress. Type-A folks have major issues around three key areas: time, money and dirt.

Time urgency and Impatience, as demonstrated by people who, among other things, get frustrated while waiting in line, interrupt others often, walk or talk at a rapid pace and are always painfully aware of the time and how little of it they have to spare. Free-floating hostility or aggressiveness, which shows up as impatience, rudeness, being easily upset over small things, or ‘having a short fuse’. Additionally, Type-A Behavior includes competitiveness and strong achievement orientation. Certain physical characteristics that result from stress and Type-A behaviour over years.

The physical characteristics of Type-A person are, facial tension (tight lips, clenched jaw, etc.), tongue clicking or teeth grinding, dark circles under eyes, facial sweating (on forehead or upper lip). Negative effects of Type-A Behavior are, hypertension, high blood pressure and heart disease.

Type-A people usually find themselves in stressful, demanding jobs (and sometimes the jobs create the Type-A Behaviour), which leads to metabolic syndrome and other health problems. Those with Type-A Behaviour often alienate others or spend too much time on work and focus too little on relationships, putting them at risk for social isolation and increased stress that comes with it.

While many personality traits, such as extroversion, are innate, most researchers believe that Type-A Personality characteristics are more of a reaction to environmental factors or tendencies toward certain behaviours and are influenced by culture and job structure. For example, many jobs put heavy demands on time,
making it necessary for workers to be very concerned with getting things done quickly if they are to adequately get their jobs done. Some work places put heavy penalties on mistakes, so efficiency and achievement becomes extremely important. Other jobs just create more stress, making people less patient, more stressed and more prone to Type-A Behaviours. Other people do have a natural tendency toward being more intense, but this tendency can be exacerbated by the environmental stress, or mitigated by conscious effort and lifestyle changes. Learning how to manage our stress levels is an essential life skill we must have else we are exposing our health to severe damage. If we managed to eliminate this stress we will have the strengths of a Type-A and stability of a Type-B.

Type-B Personality can be defined as temperament characterized by moderate ambitiousness and drive, accommodating attitude, cooperativeness, focus on quality over quantity and in general, an easy going approach to life. Type B’s live in the moment and don’t mind waiting for just the right time to take action. They are friendly types who believe that the world is both good and bad, but that there are more good people than bad in it. They tend to be their own biggest competitors, thinking “I can do better than this”. Their personalities are right brain dominated. Being intuitive, spontaneous and patient, they are open to criticism and when angry they tend to use humor to make their point.

A pervasive pattern of active and competing opposition to legitimate authority and non compliance with essential structure, associated with a preoccupation with matters of power and control, marked by increasingly deviant and violent counter controlling strategies and tactics, at the expense of others; indicated by five or more of the following :-

Refuses to pay attention and actively competes for the attention of others, associated with oppositional competition with teachers, supervisors and group of leaders, resulting in general failure to receive or follow instructions, advice or counsel, marked by distraction, disruption, complaining and murmuring. Conduct and demeanor shifts from passive aggressive to active aggressive and from
deceptions and manipulations to the direct use of force and violence based on current estimates of opposing power and secrecy. Display visceral aversion to limits of any kind (being told what to do or what not to do) from any source and for any reason, resulting in repeated violation of rules and regulations, marked by a refusal to accept ‘No’ as an answer, and an array of increasingly blatant and serious avoidance behaviours and displays of noncompliance. Desires adoration, demands respect and tests for loyalty, but equates adoration with forced submission, defines respect in terms of fear and violence and interprets accurate feedback as disloyalty; associated with an ever expansive need to suppress oppositional tendencies in others, marked by a strong tendency to “take the behaviour of others personally”, private abuses and public humiliations of subordinates. Communications are provocative, argumentative devaluing, intrusive and more matter of process than an exchange of information to acquire experience, demonstrate or establish power and control, to test limits, prove loyalties, measure strengths and weakness marked by deceptions, distortions and accusations. Receives pleasure and comfort from the pain and discomfort of others, associated directly with exercise of power over others and indirectly with the failure of those with power, marked by increasingly apparent and severe physical, emotional and psychological abuses and exploitations ranging from teasing to torture. Establishes deviant control through rule violations that have predictable and acceptable consequences, provoking anger or fear in others, crisis creation, agitation and efforts to sway and motivate others to join in rebellious and subversive activities. Spends considerable energy and effort to create and maintain available public range and reputation as one to be reckoned with (i.e., a source of power and influence to be taken lightly or exploited). Is quick to assert rights, take offense and present self as a victim, using increasingly violent and inflammatory denials, projections and accusations to elicit support, justify extremes of conduct and to create defensive and avoidant reactions in others. Increasingly social isolation, alienation and hostile reactions from others secondary to negative and exploitative style of interpersonal interaction, expressed disrespect of accepted
authority, repeated associations with disruptions, deprivations deceptions and violence and the cumulative consequences of violating social and legal standards.

**Sex**

Sex can be defined as the sum of the structural, functional and behavioural characteristics of living things that are involved in reproduction by two interacting parents and that distinguish males and females. Thus, Sex refers to the condition or character of being male or female, the physiological functional, and psychological differences that distinguish the female and the male.

**Type of Organizations**

Organizations are as old as the human race. They are groups of people who work together for some purpose. Organizations are not building or other physical structures, rather, organizations are people who work together to achieve a set of goals. An organization’s mission statement may be different from its true goals. Also they question the assumptions that all organizational members believe in the same goals. These points are supposing apparently true, but imagine one organization without goals, it would consist of a mass of people wandering around aimlessly without any logic or direction.

There are public sector and private sector organizations :

Public sector can be explained as the portion of the economy run by various levels of government, it is a part of state that deals with either the production, delivery or allocation of goods and services by and for the government or its citizens, whether national, regional or local/municipal. Examples of public sector activity range from delivering social security, administering urban planning and organizing national defences. Activities in the public sector include public buildings (schools, libraries, court houses, etc.), public housing, nationalized industries, national and
local government services and public corporations. The organization of the public sector can take several forms, including: Direct administration funded through taxation; the delivering organization generally has no specific requirement to meet commercial success criteria and production decisions are determined by government. Publicly owned corporations which differ from direct administration in that they have greater commercial freedoms and are expected to operate according to commercial criteria and production decisions are not generally taken by government.

The role and scope of the public sector and state sector are often the biggest distinction regarding the economic positions of socialists, liberals and libertarian, political philosophy. In general, socialist favor a large state sector consisting of state projects and enterprise, atleast in the commanding heights or fundamental sectors of the economy (although some socialists favor a large cooperative sector instead). Social democrats tend to favor a medium-sized public sector that is limited to the provision of universal programmes and public services. Economic libertarians and minarchists favor a small public sector with state being relegated to protecting property rights, creating and enforcing laws and setting disputes, a “night – watchman state”. Anarchists favor no public sector at all, with these powers enforced by voluntary associations or private organizations which are hired to provide these services.

The private sector is that part of the economy which is both run for private profit and is not controllable by the state. By contrast, enterprise that are part of the state are part of the public sector, private, non-profit organizations are regarded as part of the voluntary sector. A variety of legal structures exist for private structure business organizations, depending on the jurisdiction in which they have their local domicile. Individuals can conduct business without necessarily being part of any organization. The main type of business in the private sector are - sole trader and workers cooperative. ‘Sole traders’ include partnership, either limited or unlimited liability; Private Limited Company or Limited - liability with private
shares; Public Limited Company - shares are open to public. In ‘workers cooperative’, all workers have equal pay and make joint business decisions.

The model of LH deals with different aspects of personality which plays an important role in the development of LH. But these aspects have not been focused in many researches. The paucity of researches in the area of LH with respect to affective and behavioral aspects of personality Type-A/B and Sex in relation to Type of organizations has led researcher to undertake a study entitled “Learned Helplessness: A Study in Relation to Emotional Intelligence, Personality Pattern and Sex”. The findings of the study will have its significance where the major predictors from the domain of cognition, personality and affective can be determined.

**Operational Definition of the Concepts**

**Learned Helplessness** : Subjects scoring higher on the scale considered in the study that is, LH scale and it’s dimensions of PmB, PvB and PsB are considered as showing high LH as compared to the subjects with low scores on these dimensions.

**Emotional Intelligence** : Subjects scoring high on EI scale, used in the study, are considered to have high EI and those who are low on this scale are considered to be low on EI.

**Personality Type-A/B** : Subjects who score high on Type-A Behavioural Pattern Scale, considered in the study, and low or average on Type-B scale are considered to possess the characteristics of Type-A Personality and those who score high on Type-B Behavioural Pattern Scale and low or average on Type-A scale are considered to have the characteristics of Type-B Personality.