Chapter-2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In today’s competitive world, the organizations have to be growth-oriented. This is possible when productivity is ensured with respect to quantity of product to be produced with zero error quality. In order to become growth-oriented, there is need to identify certain factors which tend to increase performance and at the same time hamper the performance. In order to identify such factors, there is a need to focus not only on the technical factors but also the behavioural aspects of the individuals as well. Behavioural factors are very important which contribute to performance as the behaviour of an individual depicts the personality and attitude of an individual towards his workplace. But talking about importance of human behaviour in an organization, it is quite important to maintain a good and healthy behaviour in an organization as it’s the one’s behaviour that depicts the relation of an employee with his co-workers, subordinates, seniors or bosses. Behaviour of an individual shows the dedication of the employee towards his work organization. A good and healthy behaviour can prove fruitful in terms of promotions, job recognition, increments or appraisals. The value systems such as emotional intelligence, organizational culture, job design and the work environment are important causal agents in determining human behaviour. It is the human factor that is contributory to the productivity of an employee. Based on this, an effort has been made to study the available literature on human behaviour in certain aspects. A large number of psychologists, social scientists and academicians have carried out research on various issues related to organization behaviour. Employee performance and job satisfaction are determinants of accomplishment of individual and organizational goals.

Management literature repeatedly emphasizes that managers must constantly strive for growth, if business organizations are to strive in an ever changing environment. An effort has been made to clarify the meaning and application of emotional maturity, self-confidence and leadership skills in relation to performance. An in-depth study of related literature was carried out. The review of literature revealed that numerous researches on these variables have been carried out in the arenas of education and civic administrations but managers serving in business organizations are one of the least focused areas of research in the context of subject which has been chosen for the study. The purpose is to
review the existing studies in this field that have yielded significant findings and have application to the present study.

The studies reviewed are arranged under the following heads:

2.1 Leadership and Performance
2.2 Leadership and Self-confidence
2.3 Leadership and Human Behaviour
2.4 Leadership and Management
2.5 Leadership and Emotional Intelligence
2.6 Emotional Maturity and Self-confidence
2.7 Emotional Maturity and Career Maturity
2.8 Emotional Maturity and Human Behaviour
2.9 Emotional Maturity and Management
2.10 Self-confidence and Performance
2.11 Self-confidence and Human Behaviour
2.12 Performance and Human Behaviour
2.13 Performance and Emotional Intelligence.

2.1 Leadership and Performance
In the context of organizational and its members’ performance, the topic like leadership styles has attracted a considerable interest of both academicians and practitioners. Much of the interest in these areas is based on explicit and implicit claims that organization orientation and leadership styles are associated to performance (Ogbonna and Harris, 2000). However, while the links between orientation/leadership styles and performance have been examined independently, a good number of studies have been investigated to establish an association between these concepts and organizational practices. In the following review, an attempt has been made to analyse the nature of relationships and empirical evidences which suggest that the relationship between leadership styles and performance is mediated by the type of organizational environment that is prevailing. The review of literature in the fields of organizational environment and orientation styles trends to provide that the two areas have been independently associated to organizational and individual performance. The following studies in relation to these two parameters have been discussed below:
Kerr and Jermier (1978) revealed that current theories and models of leadership seek to explain the influence of the hierarchical superior upon the satisfaction and performance of subordinates. While disagreeing with one another in important respects, these theories and models share an implicit assumption that while the style of leadership likely to be effective may vary according to the situation, some leadership styles will be effective regardless of the situation. However, it has been found that certain individual, task, and organizational variables act as “substitutes for leadership”, negating the hierarchical superior's ability to exert either positive or negative influence over subordinate attitudes and effectiveness.

Kottler and Heskett (1992) also examined relationship between performance and organization environment and culture and found to have association between these variables. Deal and Kennedy (1982), Denison (1990), Ouchi (1981), Pascale and Athos (1981), Peters and Waterman (1982), and Schein (1992) opined that in this light, numerous dimensions of organizational environment like culture, leadership styles, visioning behaviour of organizational leadership/high ranking management, and their association with factors related to performance, literature allude to the role of top level corporate leadership in ‘creating’ and ‘maintaining’ particular favourable types of culture. Hennessey (1998) suggested that it was equally important that the ability of high ranking leadership to understand and work within a culture is a prerequisite to leadership effectiveness.

Alexander and Anderson (1993) conducted the study “Gender as a Factor in the Attribution of Leadership Skills” and emphasized the contribution of both individual characteristics and voter characteristics (e.g., party identification) to candidate appraisals. But the literature on attribution and sex role stereotypes suggests that women candidates may be evaluated differently than their male counterparts. This survey of 98 voters was conducted in Syracuse, New York, during the 1990 campaigns, which included three male-female races. The results substantiate the hypothesis that when the individual information is sparse, gender role attitudes are consequential in the initial evaluation of lesser known women candidates. Gender attitudes are important factors in candidate favourability when the candidates are women challengers. Secondly, the voters had a tendency to attribute particular leadership qualities and issue skills based on sex to hypothetical candidates, if no other information was available. In addition, it was found that the more egalitarian the voters' gender role attitudes, the more likely they were to
evaluate favourably actual women candidates. Finally, it was the case that all incumbents, male and female, were rated more positively on both "masculine" and "feminine" traits than were challengers.

**Howell and Avolio (1993)** examined the relationship between organizational leadership and individual performance. It was found that performance was positively associated to participative leadership/orientation. **Bycio et al. (1995)** also revealed that performance and leadership styles were positively correlated to each other.

**Jung and Avolio (1999)** studied the “Effects of Leadership Style and Followers’ Cultural Orientation on Performance in Group and Individual Task Conditions” by manipulating transformational and transactional leadership styles, and compared them in individual and group task conditions to determine whether they had different impacts on individualists and collectivists performing a brainstorming task. The results of the study reflected that collectivists with a transformational leader generated more ideas, but individual performers generated more ideas with a transactional leader. Group performance was, generally, higher than that of sum total of individuals working alone. However, contrary to expectations, collectivists generated more ideas that required fundamental organizational changes when working.

**Connelly et al. (2000)** explored the relationship between leadership skills/ knowledge and leader performance. The criterion-related validity of constructed response measures of complex problem-solving skills, social judgment skills, and leader knowledge was examined with respect to two criteria of leader effectiveness: leader achievement and quality of solutions to ill-defined leadership problems. Core aspects of the leader capabilities model were tested using these measures in a series of hierarchical regression analyses. Results indicated that constructed response measures of key leader capabilities account for variance in leader effectiveness and provide initial validation evidence for a central part of the theoretical model. The problem-solving, social judgment and knowledge measures account for significant variance in leadership criteria beyond that accounted for by cognitive abilities, motivations, and personality. Initial evidence also suggested that complex problem-solving skills, social judgment and leader knowledge partially mediate the relationship of cognitive abilities, motivation and personality to leader effectiveness.

**Ogbonna and Harris (2000)** investigated to determine that the leadership style and organizational culture are linked to organizational performance by collecting empirical
data from U.K. companies. A multi-industry sample of one thousand units was drawn from the FAME database of registered United Kingdom. However, while the links between leadership and performance, and between culture and performance have been examined independently, few studies have been investigated to study the association between the three concepts. It emerged that, while some evidence exists of links between organizational culture and performance and between leadership style and performance, the combined study of all three of these concepts has been lacking. Consequently, based on theories which suggest that leadership style and organizational culture are linked, it was proposed that organizational culture mediates the association between leadership style and performance. The empirical data was analyzed by applying Factor analysis, since it was considered prudent statistically to ascertain whether the adopted measures of organizational culture and leadership style captured differing dimensions of culture and style. Finally, the results of this study indicate that leadership style is not directly linked to performance but is merely indirectly associated. In contrast, competitive and innovative cultural traits are directly linked with performance (as predicted) while, contrary to expectations, community and bureaucratic cultural traits are not directly related.

**Dvir et al. (2002)**, in their study, tried to find the impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performances. A field experiment was conducted for the purpose. Experimental group leaders received transformational leadership training; and control group leaders, eclectic leadership training. The sample included 54 military leaders, their 90 direct followers, and 724 indirect followers. The leaders in the experimental group had a more positive impact on direct followers' development and on indirect followers' performance than did the leaders in the control group.

**Elkins and Keller (2003)** reviewed the conceptual framework and empirical literature on leadership in research and development (R&D) organizations. Findings of the study emphasized that transformational project leaders who communicated an inspirational vision and provided intellectual stimulation, and leaders who developed a high-quality leader–member exchange (LMX) relationship with project members were associated with project success. Boundary-spanning activity and championing by the leader were also found to be important factors for project success. The review also suggested that a number of moderators and contextual variables such as project group membership and
rate of technological change might make leadership in R&D organizations different from those in operating organizations. Propositions for future research were also suggested.

Whittington et al. (2004) conducted a field study of 209 leader–follower dyads from 12 different organizations to test the moderating effects of job enrichment and goal difficulty on the relationship between transformational leadership and three follower outcomes: performance, affective organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour. Moderated regression analyses were conducted to test for direct and moderated relationships. Transformational leadership and job enrichment each had significant main effects on employee outcomes. In addition, it was found that job enrichment substituted for the effects of transformational leadership on affective commitment, whereas goal setting enhanced relationships between transformational leadership and both affective commitment and performance.

Koh et al. (2006) studied the effects of transformational leadership on teacher attitudes and student performance in Singapore. Transformational leadership theory was examined on teachers serving in 89 schools in Singapore, using a split sample technique (N = 846 teachers). The study examined the influence of transformational leader behaviour by school principals as it related to organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, teacher satisfaction with leader, and student academic performance. Attitudinal and behavioural data were collected from both teachers and principals; and academic performance of students was assessed from school records. School level analysis showed that transformational leadership had significant add-on effects to transactional leadership in the prediction of organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and teacher satisfaction. Moreover, transformational leadership was found to have indirect effects on student academic achievement. It was also found that transactional leadership had little add-on effect on transformational leadership in predicting outcomes.

Mumford et al. (2007), based on previous conceptualizations, proposed a model made up of four categories of leadership skill requirements: Cognitive skills, Interpersonal skills, Business skills, and Strategic skills. The model was then tested on a sample of approximately 1000 junior, midlevel, and senior managers, comprising a full career track in the organization. Findings supported the “plex” (segmented) element of the model through the emergence of four leadership skill requirement categories. On the other hand, it was also supported that the “strata” (layered) portion of the model in that different
categories of leadership skill requirements emerge at different organizational levels, and that jobs at higher levels of the organization require higher levels of all leadership skills. In addition, although certain Cognitive skill requirements are important across organizational levels, certain Strategic skill requirements only fully emerge at the highest levels in the organization. Thus, a strataplex proved to be a valuable tool for conceptualizing leadership skill requirements across organizational levels.

Badger et al. (2009), in their study titled “Leadership Education and Training: Leadership Skills Truly Make a Difference” emphasized the importance of leadership skills, and how improving one’s leadership abilities will lead to improved personal and organizational performance. It connects the individual’s skills to organizational leadership and shows how it improves the company’s performance. It provided data about leadership in construction, collected from industry professionals as well as curriculum topics used in leadership seminars, and showed how these topics were developed. The research concluded that the industry professionals should recognize the need for leadership education and training, and make commitment to provide resources for effective leadership training. The study identified that the employees see leadership training as a perk and are willing to invest personal, unpaid time to participate in leadership classes just to improve their efficiency in their current job. Leadership education has been considered to be an essential part of every construction management programme. Material developed during exercises contains valuable data that can be used in future classes and seminars. The leadership curriculum improves students’ interview skills because it discusses the perspective of a potential employer. In graduate leadership classes, the mandatory research assignments provide excellent information and steer interest among the students to continue research in this area. Those efforts will generate a number of proceeding papers. Leadership research efforts and leadership classes and seminars support each other. Letting the students select their own textbook seems to be an excellent approach and brings new knowledge to the instructors and the curriculum body of knowledge. Data to date supports the concept that improved leadership skills improve individual performance.

Boyatzis and Ratti (2009) identified competencies that distinguished effective managers and leaders. Performance measures were collected as nominations from superiors and subordinates. The study revealed that emotional, social and cognitive intelligence competencies predict performance, more specifically, in the emotional intelligence competency cluster, effective executives showed more initiative, while effective middle
level managers showed more planning than their less effective counterparts. Similarly, in
the social intelligence competency cluster, effective executives were more distinguished
in networking, self-confidence, persuasiveness and oral communication. These are all
addressing assertive and influencing processes. Meanwhile, effective middle level
managers distinguished themselves with empathy and group management. Emotional,
social and cognitive intelligence appear to be key competencies in addressing internal
processes, whereas effective executives seem to be focused on the external environment.
The main implication of the study was that competencies needed for managers to be
effective can be identified.

**Fleishman et al. (1991)** specified 13 leader behaviour dimensions evaluated in relation to
65 classifications of leadership behaviour between 1944 and 1986. This approach is based
on describing behaviour in relation to four superordinate operational functions involved
in all human work activities: information acquisition; information processing and
decision; information storage; physical and communicative action. This cognitive
perspective on human functioning tends to downplay the role of emotion.

**Yukl et al. (1990)** defined 13 specific leadership behaviours or managerial practices. This
work was based on factor analysis of the behavioural skills required for effective
performance.

**Tett et al. (2000)** identified 53 management competencies that reflect a combination of
personal attributes and behavioural skills. This study builds on work in 12 earlier studies
of managerial performance between 1951 and 1993.

So, the definition of what managers and leaders need can be expressed in terms of
management tasks; management or leadership skills or behaviours; or in terms of personal
qualities. It is important to think about these different ways of expressing management
and leadership capability when seeking to use any of the frameworks on offer. Beech
(2003) is in favour of unpicking tasks, personal attributes and skills in order to clarify the
objectives, design and measurement of management and leadership development. The
knowledge that managers also need to have has been rather neglected in this field of
work, although organisations see this as one important critical outcome of career
experience (Hirsh, 2003) and, of course, it is largely what Business Schools have taught.
Boyatzis and others took up ideas about managerial work in the study of 'management
competency.'
Boyatzis (1982) attempted to identify competencies, which were seen as attributes of the individual. These are ‘causally related to effective or superior performance in a job.’ So, for Boyatzis, competencies were considered to be stable characteristics of the person. Some other studies have also used a similar approach to identify such competencies, usually by finding high performing managers and using structured interview techniques to elicit the behaviours they show at work which are different from the behaviours of lower-performing managers.

Spencer et al. (1992) gives a useful account of the development of this field, especially the work of McClelland, and how it has translated into practice, especially through the consultancy HAY McBer. The resulting HAY McBer model had six broad clusters of competency – achievement competencies (e.g. initiative), helping/service competencies (e.g. interpersonal understanding), influence competencies (e.g. relationship building), managerial competencies (e.g. developing others), cognitive competencies (e.g. analytical thinking), and a personal effectiveness cluster (e.g. self-confidence). Derivatives of the work of Boyatzis and McClelland are widely used.

2.2 Leadership and Self-confidence
Self-confidence is the fundamental basis from which leadership grows. Trying to teach leadership without first building confidence is like building a house on a foundation of sand. It may have a nice coat of paint, but it is ultimately shaky at best. While the leadership community has focused on passion, communication, and empowerment, they've ignored this most basic element and in the process they have planted these other components of leadership in a bed of quicksand. Self-confidence indicates whether you are self-assured in your judgments, decisions, ideas, and capabilities. Self-confidence influences individual goals, efforts, and frustration tolerance. Without strong self-confidence, leaders are less likely to influence followers or take on difficult tasks. Before most people can exert leadership, they need to develop an appropriate amount of self-confidence. Self-confidence is necessary for leadership because it helps assure group members that things are under control. A leader who is too self-confident, however, may not admit to errors, listen to criticism, or ask for advice. Also, you may appear insecure if you are too self-confident. Self-confidence is also important because it contributes to self-efficacy. Some of the studies on leadership and self-confidence, are reviewed as follows:
Chemers et al. (2000), in their study titled “Dispositional Affect and Leadership Effectiveness: A Comparison of Self-esteem, Optimism and Efficacy” examined the effects of leadership efficacy and optimism on the evaluation and performance of military cadet leaders. Cadets at several universities responded to measures of leadership confidence and optimism. In Part 1, the cadets \((n = 96)\) were rated for leadership potential by their military science professors. Both leadership efficacy and optimism were associated with rated leadership potential. Part 2 followed most of the same cadets \((n = 64)\) to U.S. Army summer leadership training. Leadership efficacy, but not optimism, was strongly related to performance evaluations by objective observers in a leadership simulation and to leadership ratings by peers and superiors. A measure of general self-esteem was not an independent predictor of leadership performance ratings, and neither leadership efficacy nor optimism predicted non-leadership performance measures. The findings observed that self-rated leadership efficacy has concurrent, predictive, and discriminant validity as a contributor to leadership evaluations.

Hart et al. (2003) studied leadership skills among school athletes, and found that change in self-esteem is most likely to occur during times of transition, such as changing schools. Changes in one’s environment are usually the catalyst for changes in one’s self-assessment, resulting in an increase or a decrease in self-esteem. The re-evaluation occurs due to changes in self-perceptions of competence or incompetence based upon the degree of mastery of new developmental tasks, a comparison of oneself to a different group of students, and/or the creation of new social networks. This study concludes that for the school athletes; self-esteem, empowerment, and self-confidence are often bolstered through participation in interscholastic competitive sports. These traits are also traits of leadership. Many contributing factors and people mould the student athlete into a leader but the process must be intentional and must start in school to support athletes in achieving their full leadership potential. Thus, school personnel are advised to maintain athletic programmes for athletes; and coaches are advised to instil intentional leadership skills in athletes. Threats of budget cuts that would endanger interscholastic athletics must be re-examined. The reduction or elimination of athletic programmes may stifle athletic ability and leadership development for today and tomorrow.

Kolb (2006) studied the effect of gender role, attitude toward leadership, and self-confidence on leader emergence to know its implications for leadership development. The research has shown no substantial differences between the behaviours of male and female
leaders, differences exist in perceptions of these behaviours. Leadership continues to be described in stereotypically masculine terms, although some evidence exists that an androgynous leadership style also may be related to perceptions of leadership. This study examined whether self-perceptions of masculine gender role characteristics would predict individuals who were perceived by others as leaders on a team project and if other self-report measures might be used instead to predict leadership. The study indicated that both attitude toward leadership and leadership experience were stronger predictors of leader emergence than masculine gender role.

2.3 Leadership and Human Behaviour

The human behaviour and leadership are highly correlated. In the past decades, it has remained as a major focus of research. Human behaviour dictates the way we lead our people and also determines our success. It was perceived that, without an understanding of human behaviour, we cannot be successful as could be as a leader.

A leader has to interact with his followers along with those people whose support he needs to accomplish various jobs. This needs motivation, which in turn needs understanding of nature of human behaviour. People behave according to certain principles that govern their moods as well as work principles and work practices. There are needs of a man which are physiological like water, food, sleep, and some are psychological like security, affection, self-esteem. These needs are arranged hierarchically by Maslow (Maslow, 1954).

With increasing importance, the order is like physiological (food, shelter, water, sex), safety (freedom from danger), social and affection (closeness to a friend), esteem (feeling of recognition), cognitive (learning and contributing knowledge), aesthetic (curiosity of inner workings of things), self-actualization (the state of well-being), self-transcendence (level that emphasizes intuition, unity consciousness, etc).

Everyone tries to move up in the hierarchy but gets hindered by forces which are not in their control. A leader has to help these people acquire necessary skills that will push them on the hierarchy permanently. The literature available on leadership and human behaviour has been reviewed as hereunder:

**Burns (1978)** introduced the concept of transformational leadership, describing it as not a set of specific behaviours but rather a process by which ‘leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation’. He stated that transformational
leaders are individuals that appeal to higher ideals and moral values such as justice and equality and can be found at various levels of an organization. The study contrasted transformational leaders from transactional leaders which he described as leaders who motivated by appealing to followers' self-interest. Working with Burns' (1978) definition of transformational leadership, Bass (1985(a) asserted that these leaders motivate followers by appealing to strong emotions regardless of the ultimate effects on the followers and do not necessarily attend to positive moral values. Other researchers have described transformational leadership as going beyond individual needs, focusing on a common purpose, addressing intrinsic rewards and higher psychological needs such as self-actualization, and developing commitment with and in the followers (Bass, 1985(b); Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Coleman and LaRoque, 1990; Kirby et al., 1992; Leithwood, 1992; Leithwood and Jantzi, 1990; Leithwood and Steinbach, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1989; Sergiovanni, 1990).

Podsacoff et al. (1996a) studied transformational leader behaviours and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship. The objective of the study was to examine the effects of transformational leadership behaviours, within the context of Kerr and Jermier's (1978) substitutes for leadership. Data were collected from 1539 employees across a wide variety of different industries, organizational settings, and job levels. Hierarchical moderated regression analysis was applied for data analysis. The results have showed that few of the substitutes variables moderated the effects of the transformational leader behaviours on followers’ attitudes, role perceptions, and “in-role” and “citizenship” behaviours in a manner consistent with the predictions of Howell, et al. (1986). However, the results did show that: (a) the transformational leader behaviours and substitutes for leadership each had unique effects on follower criterion variables; (b) the total amount of variance accounted for by the substitutes for leadership and the transformational leader behaviours was substantially greater than that reported in prior leadership research; and (c) several of the transformational behaviours were significantly related to several of the substitutes for leadership variables. Implications of these findings for our understanding of the effects of transformational leader behaviours and substitutes for leadership are then discussed.

Mumford et al. (2000) under the study “Leadership Skills for a Changing World: Solving Complex Social Problems” investigated that leadership has traditionally been seen as a distinctly interpersonal phenomenon demonstrated in the interactions between
leaders and subordinates. The theory of leadership presented in this study proposed that effective leadership behaviour fundamentally depends upon the leader's ability to solve the kinds of complex social problems that arise in organizations. The skills that make this type of complex social problem solving possible were discussed. The differential characteristics and career experiences likely to influence the development of these skills were also considered along with the implications of those observations for leadership theory and for the career development of organizational leaders.

Zacarro et al. (2000) made an attempt to assess the leader problem solving capabilities. This study described the development of initial psychometric evidence for a set of five constructed response measures designed to assess complex problem-solving skills and knowledge expected to influence leadership. Structured (cued) and unstructured (uncued) problem solving scenarios intended to assess skills associated process with creative problem solving are presented first. Solution construction tasks developed to assess attention to constraints and characteristics in the broader problem context are presented next. Finally, social judgment tasks intended to assess understanding of people and social systems and a task sort to assess knowledge of leadership roles are presented. Preliminary evidence for the reliability and construct validity of these constructed responses measures support their efficacy in assessing skills that underlie effective organizational leadership.

Lord and Hail (2005) investigated the identity, deep structure and the development of leadership skills. A theory of leadership development was advanced, suggesting that changes in leadership skills may be viewed from the perspective of a general theory of learning and expertise, with consideration of the associated changes in information processing and underlying knowledge structures that occur as skill develops. More specifically, it is proposed that leadership performance is organized in terms of a progression from novice to intermediate to expert skill levels. At each skill level, the emphasis is on qualitatively different knowledge and information processing capabilities. In addition, because leadership skill development requires pro-action on the part of the leader, the study proposed that identity, meta-cognitive processes, and emotional regulation are critical factors in developing the deeper cognitive structures associated with leadership expertise. Finally, expert leaders may develop unique skills in grounding their identities and leadership activities in coherent, self-relevant, authentic values.

Margaret (2007) conducted school leadership study, developing successful principals, which measured effective leadership preparation and assessed its relationship to what
principals learn about leadership, their leadership practices, and school improvement progress and improved school climate (particularly for academic press and continuous improvement). This research was drawn on survey conducted in 2005 with 125 principals who had graduated from one of four exemplary leadership preparation programmes documented through a Stanford University study founded by the Wallace Foundation, and a national comparison sample of 571 principals. Correlation results showed moderate to strong relationships among variables considered. Through a series of multiple regressions, the study has observed the moderating influence of leadership preparation on schools’ improvement progress and effective school climate (for academic press and continuous improvement) through how frequently principals performed instruction leading work (such as working with teachers on their instruction). School context [poverty (positively) and the extent of challenging problems (negatively)] has a mediating influence on the leadership practice school improvement progress-effective school climate relationships.

Popper and Mayseless (2007), in their study titled “The Building Blocks of Leader Development: A Psychological conceptual framework,” aimed to present a conceptual model that delineates the psychological substructures ("building blocks") and their impact on the major learning processes required for leader development. The study is based on theories in developmental psychology. It is argued that certain variables formed in early childhood are "building blocks" for leader development in later phases of the individual's life. The study concluded that the building blocks: self-confidence, pro-social orientation, proactive optimistic orientation, openness, along with high motivation to lead, is precursors for (socialized) leader development.

2.4 Leadership and Management

Leadership skills are crucial to the success of any business or company. An organisation can only be as successful as its leaders make them. Since they are responsible for taking the organisation to new heights, it is imperative that they are equipped with the abilities, skills and knowledge required for the task. Instead of focusing on how they can contribute towards the development of the organization, they need to learn how to take the company forward as a team.

According to the theorist Henri Fayol, the key functions of managers are to:

- Make forecasts and plans
- Organize work
• Command the people under them by giving instructions
• Co-ordinate the resources (money, people, time) for which they are responsible
• Control activities and people by measuring and correcting them to enable performance to fit the plans.

Each level of management requires appropriate skills and abilities:
• Senior managers — set strategies and objectives — lead and inspire others.
• Middle managers — lead their teams to deliver the specified objectives.
• Junior managers — manage tasks and learn to lead others.

It has been recognized that leadership and management skills are not exclusive of each other. Leadership is particularly important in senior management positions within an organization. It has been believed strongly that all managers should be equipped and prepared to manage as well as to take on leadership roles. In the light of the above information, efforts have been made to study the literature in relation to leadership and management. Some studies reviewed are listed as follows:

Podsakoff et al. (1996) established the meta-analysis of the relationships between Kerr and Jermier's substitutes for leadership and employee job attitudes, role perceptions, and performance. A meta-analysis was conducted to estimate more accurately the bivariate relationships between leadership behaviours, substitutes for leadership, and subordinate attitudes, and role perceptions and performance, and to examine the relative strengths of the relationships between these variables. Estimates of 435 relationships were obtained from 22 studies containing 36 independent samples. The findings observed that the combination of the substitute variables and leader behaviours account for a majority of the variance in employee attitudes and role perceptions and a substantial proportion of the variance in in-role and extra-role performance; on average, the substitutes for leadership uniquely accounted for more of the variance in the criterion variables than did leader behaviours.

Strang (2004) under the study “Examining Effective Technology Project Leadership Traits and Behaviours” examined that effective project team leadership theory can be explored from the perspective of leader traits, skills, roles, and behaviours. Existing leadership traits and behaviours were examined from organization science empirical studies, they are differentiated from management functions, and the gap between extant theory and the project management domain is highlighted through this research. Leadership principles were examined from actual organizational work settings,
specifically dynamic projects, with a view to discover what actually happens as compared with espoused theory. The underlying research question is whether these theories hold up and can be effectively integrated to the project management domain. The significance of leadership behaviour differences at the project and organizational levels is grounded on empirical evidence. The reflection of integrated organizational science and project leadership theory using qualitative and quantitative research methods contributes to the body of knowledge by sharing and learning in professional and academic communities of practice.

Carss (2010) made an attempt to develop a new measurement method to determine the level of transformational leadership skills in an individual. After a detailed literature review, a new measurement method was developed from intensive face-to-face interviews with HR managers, sales managers, and executive leaders across the lower mainland of British Columbia. These interviews, as well as past research, determined the core skills which businesses and researchers found to be most important in developing higher levels of transformational leadership. By understanding the core skills which transformational leaders require, businesses will be able to better adapt to the ever changing innovative marketplace. After reading this study, leaders would be able to improve their transformational leadership skills; therefore, helping them to achieve higher levels of innovation and performance within their organizations. Furthermore, university graduates will be able to see what types of skills executive leaders, HR managers, and sales managers look for in their future leaders.

Changing Ideas about Management and Leadership

The above discussion regarding understanding of 'management' and 'leadership' is not new. There is a long history of research into what management is, what managers do, and what managers need to have in order to do their jobs well. 'Leadership' has been of interest at different times and in different ways.

It may help to start by highlighting some of the key ideas about management and leadership that colour our current views on management and leadership capability. Some of these ideas are based on empirical research, but some are simply making sense of what people perceive to be the changing nature of the managerial or leadership task. Some of the studies in this area are as follows:

Mintzberg (1973) emphasized that management work as actually carried out is not an orderly and pre-planned process, and that managers actually spend their time in a
fragmented and responsive way. The idea of the manager as 'fixer', problem-solver, and fire fighter is quite prevalent in the UK.


**Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2003)** have emphasized the idea of transformational leadership in relation to the public sector, covering the elements of innovation, culture and people.

**Argyris (1998)** has examined the notion of empowerment in relation to leadership and the tension between extracting compliance from the workforce as opposed to raising their internal commitment, especially during change.

**Strebel (1999)** has also highlighted the link between leadership and change and the delicate balance to be struck between top-down and bottom-up approaches to achieving change.

**Hiltrop (1998)** and (Goleman, 1996) pointed out the self-reliance and resilience needed by leaders, linked with the recently fashionable idea of 'emotional intelligence'.

**Winterton et al. (2000)** pointed out that ‘Learning to learn’ is seen as an increasingly important meta-skill for managers to take the idea of learning much further in placing the idea of learning at the heart of leadership: 'Leadership is not taught and leadership is not learned. Leadership is learning.' — a thought previously also applied to management by Burgoyne (1994).

**Mabey and Thomson (2000)** highlighted some management skills in high demand: managing people, leadership, team working and customer focus. Within leadership they picked out motivation and team work followed by strategic vision and delivering results.

We see all these ideas, and more besides, in the current discussion of managerial skills. It is fairly unclear which of all these skills have been shown to link with performance, and which just seem sensible ideas.

**Tamkin et al. (2003)** conducted a telephone survey of Business Schools. It was conducted by the Institute for Employment Studies. The study asked about the people management and leadership skills which individual managers attending Business Schools were highlighting as their own learning needs. The list included: giving negative feedback; dealing with the tension between 'hard' and 'soft' management styles, delegating
well when under pressure; and dealing with conflict and politics. It is interesting to note that Business Schools were unsure as to whether they followed genuine changes in the demands on managers, or whether they themselves 'led' shifts in thinking by finding new angles for training programmes.

Many other studies have looked at specific skills needed by senior managers. They include the ability to see the 'big picture' and deal with relationships (Clutterbuck and Megginson, 1999), and the ability to work across boundaries (Colvin, 1998). The more complex the situation, for example in mergers or business alliances (Garrow et al., 2000), the more a capacity to deal with personal relationships is necessary to enable progress towards achieving the strategic business vision.

Some older empirical work by psychologists has attempted to discover which features differentiate managers who perform well, so as to identify capabilities which link with performance. These studies have looked for features of different kinds and used different methods.

### 2.5 Leadership and Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is very important in leadership roles, as leaders need everyone to do their jobs as effectively as possible; and this requires a high degree of interpersonal effectiveness (Puri, 2011). Studies show that high emotional quotient differentiates average from superior performers, which can be critical for leadership positions. A brief account of studies citing the role of emotional intelligence in leadership behaviour is discussed as follows:

**Cooper and Sawaf (1997)** cited that 7% of leadership success is attributable to intellect; and 93% of success comes from trust, integrity, authenticity, honesty, creativity, presence and resilience.

Leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence positively apply social skills to influence others, create strong relationships with clients and employees, and are effective motivators by controlling their emotions and understanding their weaknesses (Feldman, 1999; Noyes, 2001; Chastukhina, 2002).

**Barling et al. (2000)** analysed the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Their research findings showed that emotional intelligence is associated with three aspects of transformational leadership. The three dimensions of transformational leadership considered are:
(a) Idealized influence, inspirational motivation
(b) Individualized consideration, and
(c) Contingent reward.

In contrast, active and passive management by expectation, and laissez-faire management were not associated with emotional intelligence.

**Cavallo and Brienza (2001)** conducted their study titled “Emotional Competence and Leadership Excellence at Johnson & Johnson: The Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Study” on 358 Managers across the Johnson & Johnson Consumer & Personal Care Group (JJC&PC Group) globally to assess if there are specific leadership competencies that distinguish high performers from average performers. Participants were randomly selected, then coded for performance rating, potential code, gender, functional group and regional area. More than 1400 employees took part in a 183 question multi-rater survey that measured a variety of competencies associated with leadership performance including those commonly referred to as Emotional Intelligence. Results showed that the highest performing managers have significantly more ”emotional competence” than other managers. There was strong inter-rater agreement among Supervisors, Peers, and Subordinates that the competencies of Self-confidence, Achievement Orientation, Initiative, Leadership, Influence and Change Catalyst differentiate superior performers. The high potential managers received higher scores in the emotional competencies by Peers and Supervisors, but not by Subordinates. Some gender difference was found, with Supervisors rating Females higher in Adaptability and Service Orientation, while Peers rated Females higher on Emotional Self-awareness, Conscientiousness, Developing Others, Service Orientation, and Communication. Direct reports scored Males higher in Change Catalyst.

**Palmer et al. (2001)** carried out their research on emotional intelligence and effective leadership; and revealed that emotional intelligence has become increasingly popular as a measure for identifying potentially effective leaders, and as a tool for developing effective leadership skills. Despite this popularity, however, there is little empirical research that substantiates the efficacy of emotional intelligence in these areas. The study explores the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership. Emotional intelligence was assessed by a modified version of the Trait Meta Mood Scale on 43 participants, employed in management roles. Effective leaders were identified as those who displayed a transformational leadership rather than transactional leadership.
style, as measured by the multifactor leadership questionnaire. Emotional intelligence was found correlated with several components of transformational leadership suggesting that it might be an important component of effective leadership. In particular, emotional intelligence may account for how effective leaders monitor and respond to subordinates and make them feel at work.

**Dearborn (2002)** suggested that managers with high emotional intelligence may be more capable of getting more output from less people and recognizing the nuances of dynamic situations while creating positive outcomes.

**Jordan et al. (2002)** developed a model linking perceptions of job insecurity to emotional reactions and negative coping behaviours. The model is based on the idea that emotional intelligence moderates employees’ emotional reactions to job insecurity and their ability to cope with associated stress. In this respect, low emotional intelligence employees are more likely than high emotional intelligence employees to experience negative emotional reactions to job insecurity and to adopt negative coping strategies.

**Wong and Law (2002)** conducted an exploratory study on the effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude. It was resulted that increasing number of scholars have argued that emotional intelligence (EI) is a core variable that affects the performance of leaders. In this study, a psychometrically sound and practically short EI measure that can be used in leadership and management studies was developed and provided exploratory evidence for the effects of the EI of both leaders and followers on job outcomes. The Gross' emotion regulation model was applied and found that the EI of leaders and followers has a positive effect on job performance and attitudes. The study also proposed that the emotional labour of the job moderates the EI–job outcome relationship. The results concluded that the EI of followers affects job performance and job satisfaction, while the EI of leaders affects their satisfaction and extra-role behaviour. For followers, the proposed interaction effects between EI and emotional labour on job performance, organizational commitment, and turnover intention were also supported.

**Elias et al. (2003)** observed effective leadership is a combination of traditional intelligence (intelligence quotient) and emotional intelligence. It was compared in the study that intelligence quotient to the raw material of knowledge and emotional quotient to the ability to turn knowledge into action. Those leaders who possess a strong set of interpersonal skills and can distinguish what approach is best to use for any given
situation are most likely to be successful in their positions (Dyer, 2001). Such skills needed for effective leadership include empathy, heightened awareness, insight, and the ability to give feedback (Bass, 1985)(b).

Mandell and Pherwani (2003) examined the predictive relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style, the gender differences within each construct, and interaction effects between gender and emotional intelligence. The study established that emotional intelligence significantly predicts transformational leadership style. A significant difference was also found between the emotional intelligence scores of male and female managers. Gender, however, did not predict a transformational leadership style over and above emotional intelligence. These results indicate that emotional intelligence can be used to identify leaders who demonstrate positive transformational leadership qualities.

Srivastva and Bharamanaikar (2004) analysed the relationship of emotional intelligence with leadership excellence, success and job satisfaction. The results established that emotional intelligence significantly correlates with transformational leadership and success. An emotionally intelligent person is more successful in all spheres than a person who possesses less emotional intelligence skills.

Webb (2004) studied the extent to which emotional intelligence is related to transformational leadership within mentoring relationships. One hundred and twelve faculty members responsible for mentoring doctoral students were assessed on the various dimensions of emotional intelligence. Transformational leadership ratings for each professor were provided by the doctoral student(s) who were advised by him or her. The study revealed that emotional intelligence can predict several aspects of transformational leadership, including charisma and inspirational motivation.

Alon and Higgins (2005) emphasized that with the current rise of globalization, both emotional and cultural intelligence has become important for cross-cultural leaders to excel. Global leaders can make the best use of emotional intelligence and maximize success when they understand and work within diverse foreign environments. This multiple intelligence framework helps to clarify adaptations to implement in leadership development programmes of multinational firms.

Punia (2005) conducted a study on 250 executives and found that leaders with higher emotional intelligence see changes as opportunities for betterment, and they cherish not stability but ongoing development of individual workers and of the organisation itself.
Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace measures of leadership effectiveness, using an objective measure of performance and a 360 degree assessment tool. The results of the study provide that executives higher on emotional intelligence are more likely to achieve organizational outcomes and be considered as effective leaders by their subordinates and direct manager. Fekula (2007) “Assessing Emotional Intelligence: The EQ Matrix Exercise” found that more than a decade ago, the concept of emotional intelligence became popularized among the business community. The theory suggests that emotion plays a significant role in management and leadership. Recent neuroscience findings support this claim with evidence of linkages between the emotion and reasoning centres of the brain. The Emotional Quotient Matrix poses a systematic means to both assess EQ and identify actions to improve it. It presents three possible exercises to employ the matrix in scenario, group, and self-assessments. Participants use the matrix to score emotional strengths and weaknesses along an EQ scale to determine an EQ score. Controllable traits are targets for improvement, while surrogates are proposed for personality traits that are considered unchangeable. Rego et al. (2007) analysed the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and creativity of their teams. A sample of 138 top and middle managers from 66 organizations operating in the European Union was analyzed. Emotional intelligence was assessed by a self-report scale consisting of six dimensions: understanding one's emotions, self-control against criticism, self-encouragement (use of emotions), emotional self-control (regulation of emotions), empathy and emotional contagion, and understanding other people's emotions. The results revealed that emotionally intelligent leaders behave in ways that stimulate the creativity of their teams. Singh (2007) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness among 340 software professionals serving in India. Emotional intelligence was found to be positively and significantly correlated to organizational leadership for both males and females. The results revealed insignificant differences between male and female software professionals were found in terms of emotional intelligence and overall leadership effectiveness. The relationship management aspect of emotional intelligence was found to be the most important predictor of leadership. The study laid emphasis on employees to develop their relationship skills in order to become effective leaders.
Balsubramanian et al. (2008) conducted a study in Apollo Health City, Hyderabad to investigate the relationship of emotional intelligence with organizational leadership as well as the impact of emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness. The findings highlighted that management functions have undermined the importance of individual development, at the cost of technology and modernization. The study suggested that Apollo Hospital Group, Hyderabad, should specifically concentrate on improving the self-management and social awareness skills of the employees in order to maintain its position as leading healthcare provider in India.

2.6 Emotional Maturity and Self-confidence

"My philosophy is that not only are you responsible for your life, but doing the best at this moment puts you in the best place for the next moment.” — Oprah Winfrey

The above statement stands true when the situations are handled confidently and with the state of emotional maturity at the right time. Since many years, the perceived dispute about the relationship between cognitive aspects and emotions, one can arrive at a conclusion based on theory and practice that cognitive components have upper hand in managing and directing emotions. Further, in turn, emotions do influence several aspects of one’s behaviour. Emotions are great motivating forces throughout the span of human life; affecting aspirations, actions and thoughts of an individual. Apart from emotions, self-confidence is also considered as one of the motivators and regulators of behaviour in a individual’s everyday life (Bandura, 1986). Self-confidence is a positive attitude of oneself towards one’s self-concept. In general terms, “self confidence refers to an individual’s perceived ability to act effectively in a situation to overcome obstacles and to get things go all right” (Basavanna, 1975). A study by Mehta and Kaur (1996) found that self-confident girls (rural, urban and total sample) were found to be more adjusted in total and in all areas like emotional, social, educational, home and health. The literature is reviewed to indicate the dearth of information about impact of emotional maturity on particularly stress and self-confidence among adolescents. 

Pastey and Aminbhavi (2006) analysed the impact of emotional maturity on stress and self-confidence of adolescents. As emotions do play a central role in the life of an individual, one is expected to have higher emotional maturity in order to lead an effective life. It is also true that our behaviour is constantly influenced by the emotional maturity level that we possess. Especially, the adolescents who are observed to be highly
emotional in their dealings need to be studied. In view of this, an attempt was made to find out the impact of emotional maturity of adolescents on their stress and self-confidence. Sample of the study consisted of 105 adolescents studying in XI and XII class at Dharwad city, Karnataka state, India. The scales such as emotional maturity (Singh and Bhargava, 1990), Self-confidence Inventory (Agnihotri, 1987) and Students’ Stress Scale (Deo, 1997) were administered on the selected sample. Along with responses to the above scales, some personal data information was also collected from the sample. The obtained responses were scored and converted to standard (T) scores, further subjected to ‘t’ and ‘F’ tests. The findings revealed that the adolescents with high emotional maturity have significantly high stress (t=10.44; p< 0.001) and self-confidence (t=2.92; p< 0.01) when compared to those with low emotional maturity. Adolescents with more number of siblings have shown significantly higher level of self-confidence (t = 2.96; p< 0.01) than their counterparts. It is also found that educational level of a father has significantly influenced stress of his adolescent children (F= 5.303; p< 0.01). Adolescent boys tend to have significantly higher stress than girls (t=1.72), and girls tend to have significantly high self-confidence (t=1.83).

2.7 Emotional Maturity and Career Maturity
Choosing one's career is not an easy task due to the complex and fluid character of the world of work. It is a developmental process that takes many years during which the ultimate decision is determined by a sequence of inter-dependent decisions about which individual may or may not be conscious of. An individual has to play several roles in his/her life. An emotionally immature and dissatisfied individual can't reach to the expectations of the society and can't carry the burden of his responsibilities. Emotional maturity means the degree to which the person has realized his potential for richness of living and has developed his capacity to enjoy things, to relate himself to others, to love and to laugh; his capacity for whole hearted sorrow when an occasion for grief arises; his capacity for experiencing anger when faced with thwarting that would rile the temper of any reasonably tolerant or sensible person; and his capacity to show fear when there is occasion to be frightened without feeling a need to use a false mask of coverage must be assumed by persons afraid to admit that they are afraid. Some of the studies in relation to emotional maturity and career maturity have been discussed as follows:
Almegta (1996) explored the relationship between self-efficacy, self-evaluation, causal attribution and emotions of 300 female students at the United Arab Emirates University. The congruence between teacher evaluation of students and students' evaluation of their own performance in the past, present, and future is investigated. Students completed the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and the Self-Efficacy and Attribution of Academic Self-Evaluation Questionnaire (SEAASE-Q). Results of the study indicated significant correlations between the variables. Analysis of variance revealed no differences between teacher evaluation of students and students' evaluation of their own academic performance in the past. However, significant differences were found between teacher evaluation of students and students' evaluation of academic performance in the present and the future. Also, significant differences were found between low, moderate, and high self-efficacious students in self-evaluation ability and their evaluation of assignments and predicted final grade for the course. Seventeen strategies of academic self-evaluation were reported in the interview. The consistency of students' feeling about their academic self-evaluation and implications for self-efficacy; self-evaluation, causal attribution and emotion were discussed.

Marry (1997) tried to investigate how students perceived their involvement in disciplinary incidents, and identified what they thought helped them manage their behaviour. Effective teacher practices as perceived by students included (a) sense of humour, (b) being nice, and (c) teacher responsiveness, while effective classroom practices included (a) relevance, (b) active burning, and (c) socialization.

Landau and Wiessler (1998) explored the inter-relationships between emotional maturity and intelligence in gifted children. Emotional maturity is defined as the strength and courage to actualize individual abilities within the frame of social demands. The study hypothesized that emotional maturity would have an effect on creativity, independence of intelligence. As many as 221 children in the age of 9–13 years participated in the study. All were measured for emotional maturity, intelligence and creativity. Results showed an effect of emotional maturity on creativity, as well as an effect of intelligence. Among the highly intelligent group, emotionally matured children were more creative. These results demonstrate that giftedness is conditioned not only by high intelligence but that emotional maturity has its share in it, and their interaction facilitates creative behaviour — the actualization of the whole personality.
Farah and Bharati (2003) carried out a study of parental encouragement, academic anxiety and emotional stability of school going adolescents. They found that the correlation values between parental encouragement and academic anxiety were very low. Academic anxiety was negatively correlated with parental encouragement and positively correlated with emotional stability in girls. The correlation values between parental encouragement and academic anxiety were positive in Hindu boys and negative in Muslim boys. The correlation between academic anxiety and emotional stability was positive and significant in Muslim boys, while it was negative in Hindu boys.

Upadhyay and Upadhyay (2003) conducted a study of emotional stability and academic achievement of boys and girls at secondary level. The results of the study provide that the boys are significantly emotionally stable than girls; and there is no significant difference between boys and girls in academic achievement. Further, there is no significant relationship between emotional stability and academic achievement of the students.

Dubey (2007) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of undergraduate students. The major findings of the study were:

(a) It was found that no relationship existed between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of undergraduate students of Arts and science streams.

(b) The only exception was the mathematics group where there was a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence score and total aggregate marks.

Aminabhavi and Hangal (2007) conducted their study on self-concept, emotional maturity and achievement motivation of the adolescent children of employed mothers and home-makers; and assessed the impact of maternal employment on the self-concept, emotional maturity and achievement motivation of adolescents. The sample consisted of 75 adolescents of employed mothers and 75 adolescents of home-makers, studying in 8th and 9th standards in Hubli-Dharwad cities of North Karnataka. Children’s Self-concept Scale by Ahluwalia, Emotional Maturity Scale by Singh and Bhargava and Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation Scales were used to collect the data. The data were analyzed by using ‘t’ test and ANOVA. The results revealed that the adolescent children of home-makers have significantly higher self-concept. It was also noticed that children of employed mothers have high emotional maturity and female children of employed mothers are highly achievement-oriented. The children of home-makers have significantly higher self-concept in various dimensions of self-concept such as intellectual and school status, anxiety, happiness and satisfaction, as well as in overall self-concept.
compared to children of employed mothers. Children of employed mothers have significantly higher self-concept in the area of physical appearance and attributes in comparison to their counterparts. Children of employed mothers have significantly high emotional maturity compared to their counterparts. Children of home-makers have significantly higher emotional instability, emotional regression and personality disorganization compared to children of employed mothers. The children of employed mothers are more socially maladjusted and lacked independence to a very highly significant level compared to the children of home-makers.

The study conducted by Manoharan and Christie (2007) identified the level of emotional maturity of Post-graduate students in Pondicherry region. They were found to be moderately sound in their personality integration and independence. Their emotional maturity was influenced by sex, class and group. The level of emotional maturity of female students was higher than that of the male students. The study further revealed that students of the second year were more mature than those of the first year. A significant positive relationship was found between the group chosen for study and the level of emotional maturity. Arts group students recorded higher numerical score than the science students, implying that science students had greater emotional maturity.

Sharma (2007) conducted her study on emotional intelligence among adolescents in relation to adjustment and defence mechanism, which proved to be of immense importance to educational thinkers, teachers, psychologists and others. For leading a happy and contented life a balance between emotional intelligence and adjustment, and defence mechanism is refused. Teachers, parents and society may provide such guidance and training for the development of these propensities by which adolescents shall be able to lead a happy and contented life; and may be successful in professional life too. Emotionally, intelligent persons are well adjusted as they can perceive and assimilate emotions of self and others, and tune in them according to the situations. Emotionality has no relation with defence to the mechanism as emotional intelligence teaches one to face reality boldly. Whereas defence mechanism is a means to run away from the real life situation in order to relieve from stress.

Srivastava (2007) studied emotional intelligence in relation to advisements in environmental studies and concluded that there is a significant difference in emotional intelligence of high and low achievement in environment studies. Low achievers in this subject exhibited less emotional intelligence, emotionally intelligent students may be
more emotionally stable and sensitive to this environmental issue than their less emotionally counterparts. This can facilitate their learning about the environment. This finding draws support from the views of Goleman (1996) that 80% of persons’ success in life depends on emotional intelligence. Therefore, the curriculum makers should prepare the content of EVS in such a way that students use their emotional intelligence.

**Jennings and Greenberg (2008)** conducted the study titled “The Pro-social Classroom: Teacher Social and Emotional Competence in Relation to Students and Classroom Outcomes” the results of the study demonstrated that many teachers deal with highly stressful emotional situations in ways that compromise their ability to develop and sustain healthy relationship with their students effectively.

**Kaur and Kaur (2008)** conducted a pilot study on effectiveness of training of emotional intelligence on adolescent students; and found that the value of t = 762 for irritability/urban hosting, and t = 16.36 for emotional exhaustion were significant at p < .01 level which showed that training of EI on the subjects was significant at p < .01 level. It showed that training of EI on the subjects was effective in reducing the irritability and emotional exhaustion in the post-training session. The potential of training was obvious in effective management irritability and emotional exhaustion of the subject science these are hetero traits of EI.

**Vyas (2008)** conducted a comparative study examining the anxiety, emotional maturity, security-insecurity among adolescents of co-educational unisex education Schools. The statistical evaluation of various hypotheses has revealed the presence of: 1. Insignificant difference in anxiety of adolescence boys coming from co-education and unisex education school; 2. Insignificant difference in anxiety of adolescent girls coming from co-education and unisex education school; 3. Insignificant difference in anxiety of adolescence boys and girls coming from co-education and unisex education school; 4. Insignificant difference in emotional maturity of adolescence girls of co-education and unisex education school; and 5. Insignificant difference in security - insecurity of boys and girls coming from co-education and unisex education school. Thus, there is no significant difference in anxiety, emotional maturity and security - insecurity of boys and girls coming from co-education and unisex education school.

**Joshi (2009)** conducted a study on goal direction and effectiveness, emotional maturity, and nuclear family functioning. He revealed that differentiation of self, a cornerstone concept in Bowen theory, has a profound influence over time on the functioning of the
individual and his or her family unit. This 5-year longitudinal study tested this hypothesis with 50 developing nuclear families. The dimensions of differentiation of self that were examined were goal direction and effectiveness and emotional maturity. A qualitative analysis of participants' goals demonstrated that couples with higher functioning developing nuclear families, when compared with couples with lower functioning families, placed more emphasis on family goals, had more balance between family and personal goals, and pursued more goals over the 5 years. The quantitative analysis supported the hypothesis that goal effectiveness and emotional maturity influenced variation in nuclear family functioning. In addition, couple goal effectiveness and emotional maturity were associated with nuclear family functioning more strongly than individual goal effectiveness and emotional maturity were associated with individual functioning.

Husain (2010) conducted his study on parenting styles, emotional maturity and academic achievement among adolescents. This study aimed to examine the effect of parenting styles and emotional maturity, and its relationship with academic achievement. The theoretical orientation was based upon the works of various psychologists like Chamney, Baldwin, Maccoby and Martin. Baldwin emphasized that the personality of an individual is influenced by the early social contacts, while Maccoby & Martin stated that parenting style is studied under two major dimensions, i.e., demandingness and responsiveness. Steinberg emphasized the following three different characteristics of parenting:

(a) High degree of warmth
(b) High degree of psychological autonomy
(c) High degree of behavioural control.

Parenting has been studied in context with adolescence which is a period of difficult adjustment particularly in urbanized and competitive society. This study focused on three major styles of parenting, i.e., authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. The data was collected through questionnaires from 200 students of class ninth of government senior secondary school from district of south Delhi. The major tools of the data were parenting style questionnaires, emotional maturity scale and measures of academic achievement.

The study proceeded with eight objectives and six major null hypotheses. The null hypotheses were into consideration because of the descriptive nature of this research work. Analysis of raw data entailed the use of percentages, chi-square test and the use of
contingency coefficient. The results of the study showed that only fathers parenting style has been found to be associated significantly with emotional maturity of their children.

**Jadhav (2010)** examined the relationship between home environment and emotional maturity of college going students of Belgaum district in Karnataka. The sample included 200 students selected by the random sampling technique, out of which 120 were male and 80 were female students. The home environment scale and emotional maturity scale were used for data collection. The Pearson’s correlation coefficient technique was adopted for data analysis. There is a positive and significant relationship between home environment and emotional maturity among the male and female students, including those of rural background, including private college students with low socio-economic status and students more than 20 years age. It is found that there is no positive and significant relationship between home environment and emotional maturity among the urban students, studying in government colleges, with high socio-economic status under the age of 20 years.

**Lakshmi and Krishnamurthy (2011)** examined the emotional maturity of students from Higher Secondary schools in Coimbatore district. By using the purposive random sampling technique 220 students were selected as respondents from various schools in Coimbatore district. Normative survey method was used. This study was intended to find out the levels of emotional maturity of Higher Secondary students; and if there was any significant difference between the selected pairs of sub-samples. Emotional Maturity scale was used to collect the data. The study revealed that majority of the students under study in Coimbatore district were in emotionally unstable condition. There existed significant differences between all the sub-samples except the age group of Higher Secondary students.

**Sharma (2011)** made a comparative study to investigate the emotional maturity skills of ICDS and non-ICDS children, and explore the factors affecting emotional skills of selected children. The data were collected from two randomly selected blocks of Kangra district of H.P. A total sample of 150 (100 ICDS and 50 non-ICDS) pre-schoolers in the age group of 2-6 years was randomly selected. Standardized scale, namely, Emotional Maturity Scale of Children was administered to assess the emotional skills. The collected data were tabulated, processed and analysed by employing statistical techniques like coefficient of variation, t-test, and regression analysis. The results of the study indicated that the non-ICDS children were found significantly better than that of ICDS in the area
of emotional maturity skills. Age of the children and type of occupation of the parents showed a positive relationship with emotional maturity.

**Subbarayan and Visvanathan (2011)** conducted their study to examine the emotional maturity of college students. The emotional maturity becomes important in the behaviour of individuals. As the students are the pillars of future generations their emotional maturity is vital one. So, the current study intended to measure the emotional maturity of college students. Normative survey method and random sampling technique were used for the purpose of this study. The “Emotional Maturity Scale” standardized by K.M. Roma Pal was used for this study. The study brought out that emotional maturity of college students was extremely unstable.

**Dharamvir et al. (2011)** conducted a study to investigate the anxiety and emotional maturity among adolescent boys and girls studying in co-educational and uni-educational schools (50 boys and 50 girls of co-educational schools, and an equal number of boys and girls of uni-educational schools). The respondents in the age of 13 to 16 years from three schools of Yamunanagar district of Haryana were selected as a sample. Data was collected by administering Anxiety Scale developed by S.E. Kurg, I.H. Scheier and A.B. Cattell, and Emotional Maturity Scale by Yashvir Singh and Mahesh Bhargava. The data obtained was analyzed statistically. The study revealed that there was no significant difference in anxiety and emotional maturity among adolescent girls and boys studying in co-educational and uni-educational schools.

**Kumawat (2012)** examined the emotional maturity in Postgraduate students of vocational education. Emotional disorder is a major problem in Indian PG students. Emotional maturity gives us a perfect personality. The purpose of this study was to find out the difference of emotional maturity in vocational education postgraduate students. The sample of the study included 600 respondents selected through the survey method. Emotional Maturity Scale developed by Prof. Yashvir Singh and Dr. Mahesh Bhargava was used, questionnaires were administered (600 postgraduate students of vocational education), and their responses were received. The results of the study showed no significant difference in emotional maturity between Master of Technology students, Master of Business Administration students and Master of Computer Application students.

**Madhavi and Amutha (2012)** conducted a study on emotional maturity in junior college students of Anantapur district. The sample taken for the study was 160. The respondents
were selected by the stratified random sampling method. The data was analyzed using the statistical tools such as mean, standardized deviation and t-test. The standardized emotional maturity scale was constructed for the purpose of the study, which consisted of 40 items. The objectives of the study were (a) to study the difference in emotional maturity of male and female students, (b) to study the difference in emotional maturity of Government and Private college students, (c) to study the difference in the emotional maturity of urban and rural junior college students. The findings of the study revealed that there was a significant difference in emotional maturity of male and female students. There existed no difference in emotional maturity of Government and Private college students. It was also found that there was a significant difference in emotional maturity of rural and urban junior college students.

Rajakumar and Soundararajan (2012) tried to find out the emotional maturity and achievement in economics of higher secondary students in Tirunelveli district. As many as 1060 higher secondary students were taken as a sample. The tool used to find out the emotional maturity was constructed and standardized by Emotional Maturity Scale constructed and validated by K.M.Roma Pal (1984). The academic achievement in Economics was found out using the tool constructed by the investigator. The mean value of emotional maturity scores (136.53) indicated that the higher secondary students were having extremely unstable emotional maturity. The mean value of achievement in Economics scores (M=75.47) indicated that the higher secondary students were having high Achievement in Economics. There was a significant difference between male and female day scholar and hosteller higher secondary students with respect to their emotional maturity. There was no significant difference between rural and urban, government and aided higher secondary school students with respect to their emotional maturity. There was a significant difference between male and female higher secondary students with respect to their achievement in Economics. There was no significant difference between rural and urban, day scholar and hosteller, government and aided higher secondary school students with respect to their achievement in Economics.

Saini (2012) studied the career maturity of adolescents in relation to their emotional maturity to find out difference between male and female, and urban and rural. The simple random sample consists of 240 students selected from twelve schools of Faridabad district. The results revealed a negative relationship between career maturity and emotional maturity. It was also found that male adolescents were better than female
adolescents and urban adolescents were better than rural adolescents with regard to their career maturity and emotional maturity.

Singh (2012) investigated to find out the difference between rural and urban senior secondary school students in relation to emotional maturity, the difference between male and female senior secondary school students in relation to emotional maturity, the difference between rural male and female senior secondary school students in relation to emotional maturity, and the difference between urban male and female senior secondary school students in relation to emotional maturity. He found that the emotional aspect of maturity is the most important factor in the development of the comprehensive mature personality. This is the global factor of emotional maturity which is the strength to actualize individual abilities within the frame of social demands. The study has been confined to the 400 senior secondary school students studying in class XI and XII only of Gurgaon District, Haryana. Emotional Maturity Scale developed by Singh and Bhargava (1994) was the tool used to gather data from the sample. The study showed that there are no major differences in the emotional maturity of senior secondary school students whether they belong to urban or rural areas irrespective of gender differences.

2.8 Emotional Maturity and Human Behaviour

An emotion is a patterned bodily reaction of protection, destruction, reproduction, deprivation, incorporation, rejection, exploration or orientation, or some combination of these, which is brought about by a stimulus (Feelings and Emotions, 1970).

Some people dissociate or rigidly control their emotions. They may be perfectionist, conscientious and compulsively preoccupied with details. These are characteristics of people in professions which require individual performance rather than teamwork, such as economics, law, medicine and science. Their emotional and relationship habits may only allow long-term partnership to people like themselves.

In every action, we expose our life values and maturity. In every relationship decision, we express our communication skills, our commitment and our integrity. We cannot hide our maturity – or lack of it – for long. Emotional immaturity indicates past abuse or trauma. Our maturity reflects our ability to monitor and manage our emotions, to assess the emotional state of others, and to influence their opinions and behaviour. Our emotional intelligence and maturity seem to be profoundly influenced by our relationship history and our trauma history.
An attempt has been made to review the literature in relation to emotional maturity and human behaviour. Some of the studies are reviewed as under:

**Gates (1924)** studied the nature and educational significance of physical status and of mental, physiological, social and emotional maturity. This report is concerned with an analysis of the interrelation of physical and mental abilities; and also of maturity which includes the study of physical, mental, emotional, social and educational aspects. Two groups, both containing boys and girls, were chosen for the investigation. One group contained 57 pupils and the other 58 pupils. Since the results were worked up independently, one was used as a check on the other. The measures used for evaluating these factors are divided into six groups. The first studies the anatomical traits: ossification of the wrist bones, height, weight, and chest girth. The second takes up the physiological functions: lung capacity, strength of forearm, index of nutrition, rate of heart beat, physical vigour, health and efficiency. The third delves into the emotional maturity and stability. The fourth attempts an estimation of social maturity. The fifth studies the interrelation between mental ability and maturity. The sixth step takes up the scholastic achievement of the pupils by means of the Stanford Achievement Test and Horace Mann Test in language and spellings. The data tends to disprove the work of Baldwin et al. concerning the significance of physical traits, the reasons being: first, although the correlations are positive they are variable; second, there is no high correlation between a physical measure and stamina, physical vigour, maturity, etc.; third, no physical trait is an index of such types of maturity as mental, scholastic, social, emotional or "general maturity." Setting aside these facts the authors classify the children into groups according to their similarities.

**Durea (1937)** examined the emotional maturity of juvenile delinquents. Using norms for non-delinquents as a basis for comparison, juvenile delinquents, age for age, are emotionally retarded as measured both by total scores on the interest-attitude tests and by scores on separate tests. The extent of emotional retardation varies somewhat with life age. An insignificant relationship was found to exist between emotional age and degree of delinquent behaviour. Although the co-variation between emotional age and the delinquency index is of only moderate significance, yet the distinctive fact of emotional retardation among delinquents suggests that maturation of emotional behaviour is probably of as much significance as intelligence and other variables in a more complete understanding of the personality of the juvenile delinquent.
Dwight (1966) studied emotional maturity and marital adjustment. In this study, random sample of married couples from middle class community, about 6000 were selected, and 117 were paired. Viable questionnaires were obtained using Dean Emotional Maturity Scale and Nye Scale of Marital Adjustment. It was determined that husbands emotional maturity correlated 0.28 with his marital adjustment score and his emotional maturity rated by his wife 0.52. The wife’s emotional maturity correlated with her marital adjustment score of 0.35. Her emotional maturity correlated with 0.35, marital adjustment score correlated with 0.39. The hypothesis is regarded as sustained.

Douglas (1977) assessed the trans-cultural validity of a model of maturing or psychologically healthy development by intensive personality studies of college-aged mature and immature men. Teams of professionals in each of 5 cultural areas—Mid-Atlantic US, Sicily, Northern Italy, and Eastern and Western Turkey—identified mature and immature exemplars who were studied using multifaceted and multilevel assessment and experimental procedures. The principal problems involved in studying psychological health transculturally are identified, along with the types of methods likely to be useful in future studies. Results provide evidence that the concept of emotional maturity may be similar across diverse cultural areas.

Wilson (1998) developed the landscape of emotional maturity and self. This study defined the nature of a person as a self, in self-developmental process, a person develops his self. The emotions are a part of the development as a whole. Once we understand the process of the self, we can see how the emotions fit in. Emotions mature as a part of one’s whole personality, that is, as part of one’s whole development as a person.

Nanda and Chawla (2007) examined the impact of age and family type on emotional maturity of urban adolescent girls. The study was conducted on sixty randomly selected college going adolescent girls falling in the age range of 17-22 yrs. It is quite clear that type of family has a definite impact on emotional maturity. Joint family system has a positive impact on emotionality because maximum percentage of girls was found to be stable and no girl was found to be externally unstable in the joint family. It might be due to the reason that in joint family system, there are more members in the family wherein there are more chances of disclosure of pent up emotions, there are more number of adults advising young ones during their stressful period, whereas such intimacy is not found in a nuclear family, where the number of family members is very less and majority of mothers are working. It can be concluded from the results that emotional maturity is affected by
age, as adolescents grow in age there comes more stability in their emotions. Level of 
unstability and extremely unstability decreased with increase in age. Joint family system 
plays a significant role in emotional maturity and stability of adolescent girls. 

**Sofia and Widyarini (2007)** examined the relationship between emotional maturity 
aggressiveness in women with their late marriage. In society, there is a presumption that 
women who marry late become more aggressive. According to the author, this depends 
on the woman’s emotional maturity. This study aims to demonstrate empirically the 
relationship between emotional maturities to aggressiveness in women who married late. 
As many as 40 people in the age of at least 30 years from the sample. Measuring 
instrument used to measure the emotional maturity and aggressiveness in this study is 
Emotional Maturity Scale which is based on the traits that mark emotional maturity, and 
Aggressiveness Scale which is based on forms of aggressive behaviour. The research 
concludes that the research hypothesis is acceptable. This means there is a relationship 
between emotional maturity to aggressiveness in women who married late. 

**Rebisz (2007)** carried out his study to determine the relationship between spiritual health 
and emotional maturity. The study was conducted at a community church that provides 
mental health services using data gathered from adults participating in a process-oriented 
group facilitated by a Mental Health counsellor. The participants were asked to complete 
a pre-test and post-test designed to measure emotional maturity and spiritual health. The 
results indicated that there is a statistically significant correlation between spiritual health 
and emotional maturity. As the participants matured emotionally through their work in 
the therapy group, they also became spiritually healthier. This study has implications for 
the impact of emotional growth on spiritual health in a mental health setting. These 
findings are useful to those pondering the compatibility of spirituality and counselling. 

**Joshi and Tomar (2009)** studied generational differences on optimism/pessimism and 
emotional maturity. This study was conducted to investigate the differences among 
adolescents, adults and old age subjects on optimism/pessimism and emotional maturity. 
This study was administered on 600 subjects equally divided into adolescents, adults, and 
old age subjects. The data was collected using quota random sampling and all subjects 
were matched on socio-economic status, and belonged to urban set-up. 
Optimism/Pessimism attitude was measured using Optimism/Pessimism Scale developed 
by Prashar (1998) to know the optimistic/pessimistic attitude of the subjects. Emotional 
Maturity Scale (EMS) constructed and standardized by Singh and Bhargava (1994) was
administered to know emotional maturity of the subjects. The results of the present study revealed significant generational differences on optimism/pessimism attitude. All the three groups were not found to be significantly different from one another on the level of emotional maturity.

Quadri and Shirsath (2011) conducted a study of mental health and emotional maturity among child labour students and other adolescents. The study aimed to determine the status of mental health and emotional maturity among child labour and other adolescents. The sample consisted of 300 subjects; 150 child labour students, and 150 regular school going students. Total sample was selected in the Indus Child Labour Project from Jalna district in Maharashtra. The subjects selected in the sample were in the age group of 10 to 26 and belonged to urban areas only. Standardized Psychological Tools such as Emotional Maturity Scale and Mental Health Scale were used for data collection. The results of the study indicated that child labour and regular school going students, thus, differed significantly from each other significantly on the emotional maturity. According to the mean values, regular school going children were found to be emotionally more mature than the child labour. The F-ratios indicate that there is a significant difference between both male and female child labour, and school going students on emotional maturity. These results were found to be favourable to female students. The significant difference of mental health, child labour and regular school going students is represented by main effect ‘A’. Summary of two-way ANOVA shows that main effect ‘A’ is highly significant (F = 64.25, df =1 and 296, P< 0.01). The results indicate that child labour and regular school students, thus, differ from each other significantly on mental health. The second factor was related to the gender. It is represented by main effect ‘B’. Main effect ‘B’ is also significant (F= 33.52, df = 1 and 296, P < 0.01). These F-ratios indicate that there is a significant difference between both male and female child labour and school going children on mental health.

Bhangale (2011) examined the emotional maturity among literate and illiterate women in relation to categories of emotional maturity. The Emotional Maturity Scale developed by Singh and Bhargava (1994), was used for the purpose of this study. Literate women were found emotionally mature and illiterate women emotionally unstable. There was a significant difference in emotional maturity of literate and illiterate women.

Mahmoudi (2011) conducted his study on emotional maturity and adjustment level of college students to see the adjustment level of the postgraduate students of Yasouj city.
Emotional maturity was measured by Singh and Bhargava (1994) Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS). While Asthana’s adjustment inventory (1967) was used to measure the adjustment level of the students. For this study, a sample of 160 female students in the age group of 18-22 years studying in postgraduate classes were selected from different colleges of Yasouj city. A high positive correlation was found between emotional maturity and overall adjustment.

**Matheen (2012)** studied parent-child relationship and emotional maturity of city college girls. The study discusses on the dynamics of parent-child relationship and emotional maturity of the young girls. The sample was drawn from city college students in the age group of 19-22 years. Data was collected on the measures – a) Parent-Child Relationship, and b) Emotional Maturity. Certain socio-demographic information such as birth order, number of siblings, religion, parent education, family type and parental status was examined for its contribution on both emotional maturity and parent-child relationship. Both these variables were explored for their inter-relationship.

**Mortazavi, et al. (2012)** made a comparison of attachment styles and emotional maturity between opiate addicts and non-addicts. The study sets to investigate both attachment styles and emotional maturity as two influential factors contributing to the prevention and treatment of addiction. Research has shown that attachment styles contribute to the development of personality traits. Personality is regarded as an effective factor that enhances the inclination towards drug use. Therefore, the study aimed to investigate the relationship between attachment styles and addiction with emotional maturity. The participants of the present study consisted of 120 people who were put into two groups. In one group, there were 60 opiate addicts who were under treatment in Healthy Life Centre for Abandonment in Kerman city during March 2010. In the second group, there were 60 healthy people living in Kerman city during the same period. The instruments used to collect the data included Collins & Read Attachment Scale, and Emotional Maturity Scale. Mann-Whitney U-test and Chi-square test were run to analyze the data. The results showed that there is a significant difference in attachment styles and emotional maturity between opiate addicts and non-addicts. The results revealed that addicts usually have insecure attachment styles while non-addicts have secure styles. Besides, addicts enjoyed a lower level of emotional maturity comparing with non-addicts.

**Rashmi and Gopalakrishna (2012)** studied the level of social and emotional adjustment among only children and children with siblings. It was hypothesized that (i) there will be
significant differences between only children and children with siblings in their level of social and emotional adjustment; (ii) there will be significant gender differences among only children and among children with siblings in their level of social and emotional adjustment and; (iii) there will be significant relationship between social and emotional adjustment among only children and children with siblings. Only children and children with siblings (30 in each category) in the age group of 18 – 20 years, both male and female participants (15 in each category) were selected as the sample using purposive sampling technique. The Bell’s Adjustment Inventory (Indian adaptation) by R.K.Ojha was administered on the sample. The results were analyzed using t-test and correlation. The results revealed that the only children and children with siblings had a good level of social and emotional adjustment. Also, the male and female only children had a good level of social and emotional adjustment; the male and female children with siblings had a good level of social adjustment; and the male children with siblings had an average level of emotional adjustment, whereas the female children with siblings had a good level of emotional adjustment. It was found that (i) there are no significant differences between only children and children with siblings in their level of social and emotional adjustment; (ii) there are no significant gender differences among only children in relation to their level of social and emotional adjustment; (iii) there are no significant gender differences among children with siblings in relation to their level of social adjustment, whereas significant gender difference was found in their level of emotional adjustment among children with siblings; (iv) there is no significant relationship between social and emotional adjustment among only children and among children with siblings.

Shilpa (2012) studied gender difference among adolescents in their emotional maturity. The emotional maturity is an important component of individuals. As the adolescents are the pillars of the future generations their emotional maturity needs to be studied. So, this study intends to measure the Emotional Maturity of an adolescent in terms of gender difference. The scale used for the research was Emotional Maturity Scale developed by Singh and Bhargava (1994), and the sample used was 50 boys & 50 girls from various Colleges of Bangalore. Null Hypothesis was formulated for the present study; and the obtained data was statistically analyzed using “t” test. The “t” score of 0.33 indicated that no significant relationship existed, indicating that there is no gender difference in emotional maturity among adolescents. Majority of the students fall under the category
of emotionally unstable, thus, they are emotionally immature. The study concluded that
adolescents need some sort of training to improve their emotional maturity.

Singh et al. (2012) investigated emotional maturity differentials among university
students. The purpose of the study was to examine the ‘emotional maturity’ among
university students. The investigators selected two hundred (N = 200) male and female
subjects, out of which one hundred [N = 100] sportspersons (N = 50 male and N = 50
female) and one hundred [N = 100] non-sportspersons (N = 50 male and N = 50 female)
who were studying in various affiliated colleges and campus of Panjab University,
Chandigarh. Sportspersons were those who had participated in Inter-college and Inter-
university competitions in various games/sports. Non–sportspersons were those students
who did not participate in any game or sport activity. The age of all subjects was ranged
between 18 to 26 years. To collect the required data for the study, ‘emotional maturity’
questionnaire prepared by Singh and Bhargava (1994) was administered. The t-test was
applied to determine the significance of difference and direction of difference in the mean
scores of each variable between male sportspersons, female sportspersons, male non-
sportspersons and female non-sportspersons. The results revealed significant differences
on the sub-variable social maladjustment between male sportspersons and female
sportspersons. However, no significant differences were found with regard to emotional
instability, emotional regression, personality disintegration, lack of independence,
‘emotional maturity’ (total) between male sportspersons and female sportspersons. The
results with regard to male non-sportspersons and female non-sportspersons revealed
significant differences on emotional instability, emotional regression, social
maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence and emotional maturity
(total).

Vibha (2012) studied the effect of emotional maturity and family environment on the
spiritual intelligence. The study was conducted on a sample of 500 B.Ed. students from
School of Education, Lovely Professional University, Phagwara. Spiritual Intelligence
was taken as the dependent variable, whereas Emotional Maturity and Family
Environment were taken as independent variables. Each independent variable was varied
at two levels, Emotional Maturity as−Low and High, whereas Family Environment as−
Non-congenial and Congenial. The results of ANOVA showed that Low and High
Emotional Maturity groups exhibited significant differences on Spiritual Intelligence and
in favour of Low Emotional Maturity group. In the case of Family Environment groups—
Non-congenial and Congenial, the differences were found significant on Spiritual Intelligence and in favour of Congenial Family Environment group. The double interaction effect of the variables of Emotional Maturity and Family Environment was not significant on Spiritual Intelligence.

2.9 Emotional Maturity and Management

People in most basic nature, are ruled by their emotions but emotions also define people’s perceptions about each other. This is specially intensified in the workplace where our worth and value depends on how we are viewed by others. In the workplace emotions can be an asset or a liability depending on how we display, use or control it. We cannot control our ‘emotions’ but we can choose to control how we display them. Extremely emotional displays are not only frowned upon but may be extremely detrimental to our professional life. In the most extreme scenario, having control over our emotional states can mean the difference between becoming successful and being fired. For leaders, especially, the success of an organization depends a lot on the leader’s ability to deal with his/her own emotions as well as those of the others around. Some studies in relation to controlling emotions at workplace have been reviewed as follows:

Avkiran (2000), in her study titled “Interpersonal Skills and Emotional Maturity Influence Entrepreneurial Style of Bank Managers” highlighted the importance of human resource managers and trainers assessing the interpersonal skills and emotional maturity of new recruits and enhancing the interpersonal skills of the existing managerial workforce. The entrepreneurial style of the branch manager is projected to play an increasingly important role in the deregulated finance sector. Currently, the branch manager, who can best be described as a corporate entrepreneur, could well evolve into an independent entrepreneur under a franchise banking system. Path analysis was used to investigate the interrelationships among the three competency factors for a bank branch manager. Emotional maturity and interpersonal skills are modelled as impacting on entrepreneurial style. All the hypothesised effects were supported by decomposition of the zero-order correlations.

Rajkumar (2012) investigated the emotional maturity in relation to gender differences in government employees. The emotional maturity has become an important behavioural aspect in determining the success of the people at their workplace. A random sample consisted of 100 government employees was drawn from the Municipal Council, Jaffna. Standardized scale, namely, Emotional Maturity Scale was administered to assess the emotional skills like emotional
stability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence. The collected data were tabulated, processed and analyzed by employing statistical techniques of standard deviation and t-test. The results of the study indicated that the female employees were found significantly better than the male employees in the area of emotional maturity skills; and there was a significant gender difference in emotional maturity. It was also noticed that employees in the government sector, which were respondents to the study, were found to be emotionally unstable.

2.10 Self-confidence and Performance
Self-confidence is considered one of the most influential motivators and regulators of behaviour in people's everyday lives (Bandura, 1986). A growing body of evidence suggests that one's perception of ability or self-confidence is the central mediating construct of achievement strivings (Bandura, 1977; Ericsson et al., 1993; Harter, 1978; Kuhl, 1992; Nicholls, 1984). Ericsson and his colleagues have taken the position that the major influence in the acquisition of expert performance is the confidence and motivation to persist in deliberate practice for a minimum of 10 years. Some studies have been reviewed of self-confidence in relation to performance which are as follows:

**Hansford and Hattie (1982)** studied the relationship between self and achievement/performance measures. This meta-analysis had examined the relationship between the various self-measures and measures, of performance and achievement. The statistical results of 128 studies were transformed to a common measure, namely, correlation coefficients. These studies represent a total sample of 202,823 persons and produce a database of 1,136 correlations between self-ratings and performance measures. A range in the relationship of -0.77 to 0.96 was reported with an “average” correlation of 0.21. It was found that this average relationship was modified by a number of variables. The more significant modifiers of the average relationship were the grade-level of subjects, socio-economic status, ethnicity, ability of subjects, self-term used in the study, name of self-test used, type and name of performance/achievement measures, and the reliability of both the self-ratings and performance/achievement measures.

**Prussia et al. (1998),** examined the effects of self-leadership skills and self-efficacy perceptions on performance. Structural equations modelling determined whether the influence of self-leadership on performance is mediated by self-efficacy perceptions. Results for the sample of 151 respondents indicated self-leadership strategies had a significant effect on self-efficacy evaluations, and self-efficacy emerged as a mediating
factor directly affecting performance. Further, self-efficacy perceptions were found to fully mediate the self-leadership/performance relationship.

Woodman and Hardy (2003) made a meta-analysis examining the relative impact of cognitive anxiety and self-confidence upon sport performance. This meta-analysis (k= 48) investigated two relationships in competitive sport: (1) state cognitive anxiety with performance, and (2) state self-confidence with performance. The cognitive anxiety mean effect size was $r = -0.10$ (P<0.05). The self-confidence mean effect size was $r =0.24$ (P<0.001). A paired-sample t-test revealed that the magnitude of the self-confidence mean effect size was significantly greater than that of the cognitive anxiety mean effect size. The moderator variables for the cognitive anxiety-performance relationship were sex and standard of competition. The mean effect size for men ($r = -0.22$) was significantly greater than the mean effect size for women ($r = -0.03$). The mean effect size for high-standard competition ($r= -0.27$) was significantly greater than that for comparatively low-standard competition ($r= -0.06$). The significant moderator variables for the self-confidence–performance relationship were sex, standard of competition and measurement. The mean effect size for men ($r = 0.29$) was significantly greater than that for women ($r = 0.04$) and the mean effect size for high-standard competition ($r = 0.33$) was significantly greater than that for low standard competition ($r = 0.16$). The mean effect size derived from studies employing the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 ($r =0.19$) was significantly smaller than the mean effect size derived from studies using other measures of self-confidence ($r = 0.38$). Measurement issues are discussed and future research directions are offered in the light of the results.

Mammasis and Doganis (2004) carried out their research study titled, “The Effects of a Mental Training Program on Juniors Pre-Competitive Anxiety, Self-Confidence, and Tennis Performance” to find the impact of a season-long Mental Training Program (MTP) on two elite junior tennis players. The two reported cases were part of a study in which MTP players ($n = 5$) in addition to their tennis practice were exposed to 5 different psychological skills: goal setting, positive thinking and self-talk, concentration and routines, arousal regulation techniques, and imagery. Another group of elite junior tennis players ($n = 4$) followed the same amount and quality of tennis practice but received no mental training practice. Program effectiveness was evaluated through (a) the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2, (b) the athletes' appraisal on 8 aspects of tennis performance, and (c) tennis-specific statistical data of two selected cases. The results
indicated an increase in the direction dimension of the somatic anxiety, cognitive anxiety and self-confidence for the intervention group at the post-test. Moreover, the intensity of self-confidence, as well as the overall tennis performance, were greater for all the participants of the intervention group after the MTP. Results on two selected cases are reported which clearly demonstrate the effectiveness of the MTP in eliminating specific performance problems.

Kais and Raudsepp (2005) analyzed the intensity and direction of competitive state anxiety, self-confidence and performance. The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between the intensity and direction of competitive state anxiety, self-confidence and performance in basketball and volleyball players prior to different matches. Male basketball (n=12) and volleyball players (n=12) completed a modified version of the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 prior to 11 different matches, and a total of 132 questionnaires in all. The inventory included an intensity sub-scale as well as direction sub-scale for somatic and cognitive anxiety. The findings revealed a moderate level of state anxiety and very high self-confidence of the players before the matches. The cognitive and somatic anxiety, and self-confidence were stable prior to the different matches. Correlation analysis showed that the intensity and direction of somatic and cognitive anxiety, and self-confidence of the players were not related to their athletic performance. However, the intensity of cognitive anxiety was positively and moderately related to their athletic performance.

Meyer (2006) conducted a study on the fact that Asian management research needs more self-confidence. The challenges faced by Asian businesses merit scholarly investigation, both to help local business and to enrich the global scholarly discourse. Such research should be able to make major contributions, for instance, by explaining context-specific variables and effects, and by drawing on traditional Asian thought in developing new theories. Yet, recent work, in part due to a lack of self-confidence to analyze the implications of indigenous contexts, seems to have made little progress on this agenda. So, first it was discussed how Asian management research could potentially contribute to global management knowledge. On this basis, the study outlined institutional constraints that may suppress indigenous and innovative research, and thus, inhibit the potential impact of local work. It was concluded that Asian scholars ought to be more careful in applying theories developed in other contexts, and they can be more self-confident in
exploring locally relevant research issues, and in developing theories that explain Asian phenomena.

**Alias and Hafir (2009)** examined the relationship between academic self-confidence (ASC) and cognitive performance among engineering students. The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between type of confidence inducing stimulus, academic self-confidence and cognitive performance among engineering students. The study samples consisted of two groups of engineering students from a Malaysian polytechnic. The type of confidence inducing stimulus (positive or negative) was the independent variable, cognitive performance was the dependent variable and ASC was the hypothesised mediating variable. An ACS questionnaire and a cognitive test, both were applied, to gather data on ASC and cognitive performance respectively. The results indicate that the positive group has statistically significant higher ASC level (3.08) compared to the negative group (2.67); and the positive group also demonstrates a statistically significant higher cognitive performance compared to the negative group; 71% and 54% respectively. It is concluded that boosting the ASC of engineering students can enhance their cognitive performance.

**Stolz (2011)** studied the importance of self-confidence and performance to determine whether individuals in a room of 30 were able to perform motor tasks under positive and negative situations. Also, the experiment was to determine what effect the comments had on the subjects’ performance outcome. There were two experimental groups and one control group. The researcher first used one experimental group and gave them a lot of encouragement and positive words. In the other experimental group, he gave them a lot of negative and non-encouraging words. The students were randomly assigned to these groups. The 30 subjects were students living in Vaselakos Hall on campus at Missouri Western State College in St. Joseph, Missouri. The items used were a garbage can, eight nerf balls, masking tape, a tally sheet, and fake questionnaires. The questionnaires were given to be fool the students into thinking that they were going to be good, bad or average at the ahead task. Then while students received either positive or negative comments they shot five baskets each, as he tallied their score to the number made out of five. The results showed that the students who received the negative encouragement and the poor grade on the questionnaire did more poorly than the students that received positive encouragement and good grades on the questionnaire. Although eight of the 30 students considered themselves athletic, there was no difference in shots
made between the athlete and non-athlete. Therefore, it was found that the main interaction for the Group was significant, \( f(2,24) = 7.258, p = 0.003 \). These results have shown that there is a significant effect of self-confidence and self-efficacy in performance.

### 2.11 Self-confidence and Human Behaviour

Self-confidence is not a motivational perspective by itself. It is a judgment about capabilities for accomplishment of some goal, and therefore, must be considered within a broader conceptualization of motivation that provides the goal context. Kanfer (1991) provides an example of one cognitively based framework of motivation for such a discussion. She suggests that motivation is composed of two components: goal choice and self-regulation. Self-regulation, in turn, consists of three related sets of activities: self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reactions. Self-monitoring provides information about current performance, which is then evaluated by comparing that performance with one's goal. The comparison between performance and goal results in two distinct types of self-reactions: self-satisfaction or -dissatisfaction and self-confidence expectations help to understand the role of confidence in human behaviour. Satisfaction or dissatisfaction is an effective response to past actions; self-confidence expectations are judgments about one's future capabilities to attain one's goal. This framework allows a discussion of self-confidence as it relates to a number of motivational processes, including setting goals and causal attributions. Since self-confidence is a dependent variable on number of other variables, in order to understand this aspect, studies have been reviewed as follows:

**McCarty (1986)** studied the effects of feedback on the self-confidence of men and women, and examined why women do not perform at the same level as men in organizational settings. She notes that, while progress is being made, women still remain concentrated in less paying, less prestige jobs as compared to their male colleagues. The feedback had on the self-confidence of both women and men, noting that women were more likely to express lower levels of self-confidence in achievement situations when feedback was not provided. It was further highlighted that when feedback is supplied women express levels of self-confidence equal to that of men. She also discusses some methodological problems with the research and offers several hypotheses framed by the results of this study.
Lester et al. (1989), in their study titled “Self-confidence, Interest, Beliefs, and Metacognition: Key Influences on Problem-solving Behaviour” studied non-cognitive traits among problem solving research. A good mathematician would be quick to point out that students’ success or failure in solving a problem often is as much a matter of self-confidence, motivation, perseverance, and many other non-cognitive traits, as the mathematical knowledge they possess. Nevertheless, it is safe to say that the overwhelming majority of problem-solving researchers have been content to restrict their investigations to cognitive aspects of performance. Such a restricted posture may be natural for psychologists and artificial intelligence scientists who are concerned primarily with expert systems or machine intelligence, but it simply will not suffice for the study of problem solving in school contexts.

Chusmir et al. (1992) examined gender differences in self-confidence among working managers in two situations (work and social/family) as well as relationships between self-confidence, personal adjustment, and gender identity. Respondents were 437 women and men managers (208 men and 229 women) in southeast Florida. Although the sample was predominantly non-Hispanic white, an effort was made to include as many as possible Hispanic and black managers of both genders. Meaningful subgroup analysis was not possible, however, due to the small number of minority managers. Results showed that contrary to commonly held beliefs, the women and men managers were not significantly different in self-confidence in either situation, but both were higher in self-confidence at work than the same gender was in the social/family environment. Strong gender identity either masculine or feminine—was associated with self-confidence at work for both genders, as was high personal adjustment.

Powell and Myers (1994) provided a replication of the Falls Efficacy Scale (FES) and a head-to-head comparison with the Activities-specific Balance Confidence (ABC) Scale designed to include a wider continuum of activity difficulty and more detailed item descriptors. Statements included for the newly developed ASC Scale, 16-items of the Scale were generated by 15 clinicians and 12 elderly outpatients. Psychometric testing involved 60 community seniors (aged 65-95) self-classified as either high or low in mobility confidence according to their perceived need for a walking aid and personal assistance to ambulate outdoors. It resulted that both the FES and ABC scales were found to be internally consistent, and demonstrated good test-retest reliability, convergent and criterion validity. Scalogram analyses indicated a stronger cumulative scale in the case of
the ABC and skewness in the distribution of FES scores. While both scales were able to discriminate between the two mobility groups, the ABC scale was a more efficient discriminator and yielded a wider range of responses. This study provided additional psychometric support for the FES. However, the greater item responsiveness of the ABC scale makes it more suitable to detect loss of balancing confidence in more highly functioning seniors. Greater situation-specificity of items may also assist clinicians in targeting appropriate interventions.

Babou and Tirole (1999) examined the interactions between an individual self-esteem and his social environment, whether in the workplace, or in personal relationships. A person, generally, has only imperfect knowledge of his own ability (or long-term pay) in pursuing a task, and will undertake it only if he has succinct self-confidence. People who interact with him (parent, spouse, friend, teacher, manager, colleague, etc.) often have complementary information about his ability, but also a vested interest in his completing the task. This generates an incentive for such principals to distort their signals so as to manipulate the agent’s self-confidence. The situations where an informed principal chooses an incentive structure, such as offering payments or rewards, delegating a task, or simply giving encouragement were studied it was shown that rewards may be weak reinforcers in the short-term and that, as stressed by psychologists, they may have hidden costs in that they become negative reinforcers once withdrawn. By offering a low-powered incentive scheme, the principal signals that she trusts the agent. Conversely, rewards (extrinsic motivation) have a limited impact on the agent’s current performance, and reduce his intrinsic motivation to undertake similar tasks in the future. Similarly, empowering the agent is likely to increase his motivation and effort, while offers of help or assistance may create dependence. More generally, the study also identifies under which conditions the hidden costs of rewards are a myth or a reality. It is also considered that people often criticize the fact or downplay the achievements of their spouse, child, colleague, co-author, subordinate or teammate. Such situations of ego-bashing were formalized, and argued that they may reflect battles for dominance. By lowering the other’s ego, an individual may gain (or regain) real authority within the relationship. Finally, the study turns to the case where it is the agent who has superior information, and may attempt to signal it through a variety of self-presentation strategies. In particular, people with low self-esteem often deprecate their own accomplishments in order to obtain leniency (a lowering of expectancies) or a “helping hand” on various obligations. Such
strategies are costly; and they are met with disapproval. The study analyzed the signalling game, and characterizes the levels of self-esteem that give rise to self-deprecation.

The study conducted by Bearden et al. (2001) led to the development and validation of measures to assess multiple dimensions of consumer self-confidence. Scale-development procedures resulted in a six-factor correlated model made up of the following dimensions: information acquisition, consideration-set formation, personal outcomes, social outcomes, persuasion knowledge, and marketplace interfaces. The study demonstrated the psychometric properties of the measures, their discriminant validity with respect to related constructs, their construct validity, and their ability to moderate relationships among other important consumer behaviour variables.

Filippin and Paccagnella (2011) examined the family background, self-confidence and economic outcomes and analyzed the role played by self-confidence, modelled as beliefs about one’s ability, in shaping task choices. A model was proposed in which fully rational agents exploit all the available information to update their beliefs using Bayes’ rule, eventually learning their true type. It was shown that when the learning process does not converge quickly to the true ability level, even small differences in initial confidence can result in diverging patterns of human capital accumulation between otherwise identical individuals. As long as initial differences in the level of self-confidence were correlated with the socio-economic background (as a large body of empirical evidence suggests), self-confidence turns out to be a channel through which education and earnings inequalities are transmitted across generations. The theory suggested that cognitive tests should take place as early as possible, in order to avoid that systematic differences in self-confidence among equally talented people lead to the emergence of gaps in the accumulation of human capital.

Clark (2012) tried to find the impact of high fidelity nursing simulation on student self-confidence and clinical competence. The development of safe nursing practice is a priority for nurse educators. High fidelity simulation (HFS) is used to enhance the clinical experience of students by simulating real-life clinical situations. By providing HFS, nursing educators hope to increase student competence and confidence in the clinical setting. The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between HFS and student self-confidence and clinical competence. This study is a replication of Blum et al. (2010). Tanner's Clinical Judgment Model (2006) was the theoretical basis for this research study. Clinical judgment and confidence have been be measured using selected
items from the Lasater Clinical Judgment Rubric (LCJR) (2007). Self-confidence has been measured using students’ responses from the four areas of calm/confident manner, well-planned interventions/flexibility, evaluation/self-analysis and commitment to improvement. The study took place in an associate degree nursing (ADN) school in the Midwest United States. The sample was of 25 students in the second medical-surgical course of the programme. Students were enrolled in a traditional or simulation enhanced laboratory programme. Findings provided information for nurse educators on student outcomes from HFS compared with a traditional laboratory learning experience.

2.12 Performance and Human Behaviour
Research has examined the influence of a wide range of factors on human behaviour and performance. These may be linked to theoretical and technological developments (for example, the influence of behaviourism and conditioning, or brain imaging techniques in examining the structure and function of mental processes). These factors can also be split into those which are internal and external. Internal factors are more stable and linked to a person’s biological (or even genetic) make-up or core personality. External factors are those which act upon the person: for example, upbringing, social context and culture, and influence of peers. To explore the current brief, some literature has been reviewed to study the impact of various behavioural aspects on individual’s performance. Some of the studies are discussed as under.

Brayfield and Crockett (1955) examined the employee attitudes in relation to employee performance. An attempt was made to study the empirical literature, bearing upon the relationships between employee attitudes and employee performance. In this review, on the one hand, methodological questions were discussed and on the other, sampling criteria for measure and problem regarding analysis and design were also considered. Theoretical considerations were incorporated regarding the employees outside environment especially employee unions and organization structures. The results inferred from the literature reviewed are: 1. Job satisfaction does not imply strong motivation for outstanding performance; and 2. “productivity may be only peripherally related to many of the goals toward which the industrial worker is striving." Mowday et al. (1974) studied unit performance, situational factors, and employee attitudes in spatially separated work units. This study has investigated the relationships of work unit performance with employee attitudes and situational characteristics. As many as 411 female clerical
workers comprised the sample from 37 branches of a bank. The branches were work units characterized by spatial separation and the performance of similar functions. Two independent dimensions of performance were empirically identified and their relationship with attitudes and situational characteristics studied within a multivariate framework by means of multiple discriminant analysis. The results indicated that employee attitudes were significantly related to a measure of branch performance reflecting job duties performed within the branch. Employees in branches who were rated high in performance, had a higher level of attitudes toward both the branch in which they worked and the larger organization of which the branch was a part, while individuals serving in low- and medium-performing branches had a lower level of attitudes. Situational characteristics of the branch were found highly associated to the managers’ performance of loan functions, a large portion of which may take place outside the branch.

Porter et al. (1974) studied organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. It examined the changes across time in measures of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, as each related to subsequent turnover among 60 recently employed psychiatric technician trainees. A longitudinal study across a 101/2-month period was conducted, with attitude measures (Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and Job Descriptive Index) collected at four points in time. Results of a discriminant analysis indicate that significant relationships existed between certain attitudes held by employees and turnover. Relationships between attitudes and turnover were found in the last 2 time periods only, suggesting that such relationships are strongest at points in time closest to when an individual leaves the organization. Organizational commitment discriminated better between stayers and leavers than did the various components of job satisfaction.

Steers and Porter (1974) examined the role of task-goal attributes in employee performance. Many studies have demonstrated the relatively successful performance implications of formalized goal-setting programmes in organizations. However, these findings typically do not identify the specific factors behind such techniques that are largely responsible for their success. Toward this end, research relating to six factor analytically derived attributes of employees' task goals is reviewed to ascertain which attributes are more consistently related to performance. The six task-goal attributes are goal specificity, participation in goal-setting, feedback, peer competition, goal difficulty, and goal acceptance. Although goal specificity and goal acceptance were found to be
most consistently related to performance, several intervening variables emerged that tended to affect significantly the impact of certain attributes on performance. Findings are discussed within a motivational framework. It is argued, based on the data, that performance under goal-setting conditions is a function of at least three important variables: the nature of the task goals, additional situational-environmental factors, and individual differences.

Steers (1977) examined the antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment. This study proposes and tests a preliminary model concerning the antecedents and outcomes of employee commitment to organizations using a cross-validational framework. The study was carried out among 382 hospital employees, and 119 scientists and engineers. It was found that for both the samples personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences influenced commitment. Moreover, commitment was found to be strongly related to intent and desire to remain for both samples and moderately related to attendance and turnover for one sample. Performance was, generally, unrelated to commitment. Results were compared with earlier findings and implications for future research.

Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) conducted a research on the relations between attitude and behaviour in the light of correspondence between attitudinal and behavioural entities. Such entities were defined by their target, action, context, and time elements. A review of available empirical research supports the contention that strong attitude–behaviour relations were obtained only under high correspondence between at least the target and action elements of the attitudinal and behavioural entities. This conclusion is compared with the rather pessimistic assessment of the utility of the attitude concept found in contemporary social psychological literature.

Griffin et al. (1981) carried out their study titled, “Perceived Task Characteristics and Employee Performance: A Literature Review” which included 13 studies dealing with empirical relationships between perceived task scope and employee performance for a review. Results from those studies were contradictory and inconclusive. In most of the studies, the measures applied for computing employee performance were inadequate than required. Although a causal relationship was assumed, reciprocal or reverse causality might exist. There was a clear need for further theoretical explication and improved laboratory and field research aimed at enhancing both construct validity and substantive considerations.
Blumberg and Pringle (1982) examined drawbacks as missing opportunities in the theory of work performance at organization work operation. Existing theory failed to provide strong and consistent prediction of individual job performance. This study argued that the failure stems from a neglect of an important dimension of performance—the opportunity to perform—and the interaction of opportunity with known correlates of performance. A three dimensional interactive model of work performance was proposed. The model suggested that work performance mainly depends upon three dimensions and also identified the underlying variables for measuring the dimensions. The three dimensions identified were:

(a) Capacity to perform
(b) Willingness to perform
(c) Opportunity to perform.

The first dimension, capacity to perform depends upon number of underlying variables, namely, ability, age, health, knowledge, skills, intelligence, endurance, stamina, energy and motor skills.

The second dimension, willingness to perform, is dependent upon number of variables such as motivation, job satisfaction, job status, anxiety, legitimacy of participation, attitude, perceived task characteristics, job involvement, ego-involvement, self-image, personality, norms, values, perceived role, expectations and feeling of equity. The third dimension of work performance i.e., opportunity to perform is, again, dependent upon tolls, equipment, materials and supplies, working conditions, actions of co-workers, leader behaviour; organization policies, rules and procedures, information, time and pay.

Petty et al. (1984) conducted a meta-analysis of the relationships between individual job satisfaction and individual performance. The correlational literature concerning the relationships between individual job satisfaction and individual performance was analyzed, using the meta-analysis techniques of Hunter et al. (1982). Higher and more consistent correlations between overall job satisfaction and performance were indicated than those previously reported. Relationship was shown in Job Descriptive Index (JDI) measures, between job satisfaction and performance, which were not as high or as consistent as those found between overall job satisfaction and performance.

McEvoy and Cascio (1989) studied cumulative evidence of the relationship between employee age and job performance. On the basis of a review of 22 years of articles published in 46 behavioural science journals, the study revealed a total of 96 independent
studies that reported age-performance correlations. Total sample size was 38,983 and represented a broad cross-section of jobs and age groups. Meta-analysis procedures revealed that age and job performance generally were unrelated. Furthermore, there was little evidence that the type of performance measure (ratings vs. productivity measures) or type of job (professional vs. Non-professional) moderated the relation between age and performance significantly. However, in the case of very young employees the relation between age and job performance was consistent and modestly positive.

Hunter et al. (1990) examined the individual differences in output variability as a function of job complexity. The hypothesis was tested that the standard deviation of employee output as a percentage of mean output (Standard Deviation of Employee Performance, SDp) increases as a function of the complexity level of the job. The data examined were adjusted for the inflationary effects of measurement error and the deflationary effects of range restriction on observed SDp figures, refinements absent from previous studies. Results indicate that SDp increases as the information-processing demands (complexity) of the job increase; the observed progression was approximately 19%, 32%, and 48%, from low to medium to high complexity non-sales jobs respectively. SDp values for selling jobs are considerably larger. These findings had important implications for the output increases that can be produced through improved selection. They might contribute to the development of a theory of work performance. In addition, there might be implications in labour economics.

Schwab (1991) explored the relationship between contextual variables in employee performance-turnover. A study of 259 tenure-track social science faculty members at a research university found high performers more likely to leave among tenured members but low performers more likely to leave among untenured members. Contextual issues in the university and the external market were considered in explaining these results.

Bommer et al. (1995) conducted their research study under the title, “On the Interchangeability of Objective and Subjective Measures of Employee Performance: A Meta-Analysis.” A meta-analysis of studies containing both objective and subjective ratings of employee performance resulted in a corrected mean correlation of 0.389. This value, although significantly greater than zero, indicates that objective and subjective performance measures should not be used interchangeably. After discussing issues related to resolving the previous anomalies of primary and meta-analytic results, a secondary analysis suggested that objective and subjective measures of the same construct at the
same level may be used interchangeably. The secondary analysis, however, was based on a very limited sample. Future research should address the appropriate dimensionality of employee performance.

Guzzo and Dickson (1996) identified teams and groups from various professions to study their performance and effectiveness. This review examined recent research on groups and teams, giving special emphasis to research investigating factors that influence the effectiveness of teams at work in organizations. Several performance-relevant factors were considered, including group composition, cohesiveness, and motivation, although certain topics (e.g. composition) have been more actively researched than others in recent years and so are addressed in greater depth. Also, actively researched are certain types of teams, including flight crews, computer-supported groups, and various forms of autonomous work groups. Evidence on basic processes in and the performance effectiveness of such groups is reviewed. Also reviewed findings from studies of organizational redesign involving the implementation of teams. Findings from these studies provided some of the strongest support for the value of teams to organizational effectiveness.

Hartline and Jones (1996) examined employee performance cues in a hotel service environment and its influence on perceived service quality, value, and word-of-mouth intentions, whereas the performance cues of tangible goods have been studied extensively, very little research has examined performance cues within service environments. Performance cues play an important role within the service encounter, because they serve as signs of quality and value to consumers. One particularly important cue is the performance of customer-contact employees as they create and deliver service quality. The results indicated that front desk, housekeeping, and parking employee performance have significant effects on perceived quality, whereas front desk and room service employee performance have significant effects on perceived value. The only performance cue having a direct effect on word-of-mouth intentions was the performance of housekeeping employees. Both quality and value increase word-of-mouth intentions; however, the effect of value is large relative to the effect of quality. The findings were discussed with respect to two conditions that may affect the relative importance of each performance cue: (1) the frequency of employee-customer interaction, and (2) the tangibility of each performance cue.
Borman and Motowidlo (1997) in their study titled, “Task Performance and Contextual Performance: The Meaning for Personnel Selection Research” distinguished between task and contextual activities, and a taxonomy of contextual performance containing elements of organizational citizenship behaviour and pro-social organizational behaviour. Evidence is presented demonstrating that supervisors weight roughly equally subordinate task and contextual performance when making overall judgments of their performance. This, along with data showing that personality successfully predicts contextual performance, provides an alternative explanation for recent meta-analytic findings that personality correlates moderately with overall performance. Personality may be predicting the contextual component of overall performance. Results from studies using the Hogan Personality Inventory confirm that correlations between personality and contextual criteria are higher than correlations between personality and overall performance. It is argued that finding such links between predictors and individual criterion elements significantly advances the science of personnel selection.

Shukla (1997), in his study, seeks to show that Effective Performance Management has become the core of Human Resources; and is revitalizing, re-energizing and rejuvenating HR. The challenges faced by the present day organization are broadly discussed under the effectiveness of its performance management systems, which ultimately acts as a catalyst for employee engagements and their effective performance. This paper explores through its findings a new performance management system for improving overall organizational performance in general, through inventing new dimension for effective individual performances in specific. A framework is developed for the implementation of effective performance management in any organization. The research was explicitly directed towards various parameters for energising human resources and serves interesting food for thought for the future managers dealing with performance management.

Guest (1997) carried out his research study to review the human resource management and performance. There is a growing body of evidence supporting an association between what are termed high performance or high commitment human resource management (HRM) practices and various measures of organizational performance. However, it was not clarified what were the causes of association existing in study itself. This study argues that to provide a convincing explanation of this association we need to improve our theoretical and analytic frameworks in three key areas. These are the nature of HRM, and especially the rationale for the specific lists of HR practices; the nature of organizational
performance; and the linkage between HRM and performance. A model was presented to explore these linkages. The existing literature on HRM and performance was reviewed in the light of this analysis to identify key gaps in knowledge and help to focus further the research priorities.

Welbourne et al. (1998) conducted the study titled, “The Role Based Performance Scale: Validity Analysis of a Theory-based Measure.” This study introduced a theory-based measure of employee performance, the Role-based Performance Scale (RBPS), that is supported with results from a validation study using ten data sets from six companies. In contrast to traditional, job-related measures of employee performance, this proposed alternative measure of performance is based on role theory and identity theory. Because the results supported the validity of the scale, the instrument can be used for future research that requires a generalizable measure of performance. The scale demonstrates diagnostic properties that make it useful for practitioners as well as researchers.

Thomas and Russell (2000) conducted their study on psychological well-being and job satisfaction. The happy-productive worker hypothesis, has most often been examined in organizational research by correlating job satisfaction to performance. Recent research has expanded this to include measures of psychological well-being. However, to date, no field research has provided a comparative test of the relative contribution of job satisfaction and psychological well-being as predictors of employee performance. The research has reported two field studies that, taken together, provide an opportunity to simultaneously examine the relative contribution of psychological well-being and job satisfaction to job performance. In Study 1, psychological well-being, but not job satisfaction, was predictive of job performance for 47 human services workers. These findings were replicated in Study 2 for 37 juvenile probation officers. These findings were discussed in terms of research on the happy-productive worker hypothesis.

Wright and Bonett (2002) studied the moderating effects of employee tenure on the relation between organizational commitment and job performance. This meta-analysis investigated the correlation between attitudinal commitment and job performance for 3,630 employees obtained from 27 independent studies across various levels of employee tenure. Controlling for employee age and other nuisance variables, the present study found that tenure had a very strong non-linear moderating effect on the commitment-performance correlation, with correlations tending to decrease exponentially with increasing tenure. These findings do not appear to be the result of differences across
studies in terms of the type of performance measure (supervisory vs. self), type of tenure (job vs. organizational), or commitment measure [Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Porter, et al.,)1974] vs. Other].

Jacobs and Washington (2003) reviewed the literature on employee development and organizational performance to suggest the ways for future research. The research supports the commonly held belief that employee development programmes make positive contributions to organizational performance. However, there continues to be limited information beyond this basic relationship. From an HRD perspective, research on employee development seems an area of high importance. Employee development means more than helping employees become continuous learners, regardless of the requirements of the organization. To be beneficial for both individual employees and organizations, research on employee development should seek greater understanding about the wide range of conditions within which employee development programmes exist in organizations. Undertaking the three proposed research directions would do much for improving organizational performance in the long run.

Jaramillo et al. (2005) made a meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance of salespersons. This study presented includes studies conducted over the past 25 years across 14 countries and a mix of selling and non-selling situations. Findings observed that the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance was positive and stronger for sales employees than for non-sales employees. Stronger correlations between organizational commitment and job performance were found for collectivist compared to individualistic cultures.

Castilla (2005) conducted his study on social networks and employee performance. Much research in sociology and labour economics studies proxies for productivity; consequently, little is known about the relationship between personal contacts and worker performance. This study addressed, for the first time, the role of referral contacts on workers’ performance. Using employees’ hiring and performance data in a call centre, the study examined the performance implications over time of hiring new workers via employee referrals. When assessing whether referrals are more productive than non-referrals, the present study also considers the relationship between employee productivity and turnover. The findings of the research were that referrals were initially more productive than non-referrals, but longitudinal analyses emphasize post-hire social processes among socially connected employees. The study demonstrated that the effect of
referral ties continues beyond the hiring process, having long-term effects on employee attachment to the firm and on performance.

**Salanova and Agut (2005)** established association between organizational resources and work engagement to employee performance and customer loyalty in the mediation of service climate. This study examined the mediating role of service climate in the prediction of employee performance and customer loyalty. Contact employees \((N = 342)\) from 114 service units (58 hotel front desks and 56 restaurants) provided information about organizational resources, engagement, and service climate. Furthermore, customers \((N = 1,140)\) from these units provided information on employee performance and customer loyalty. Structural equation modelling analyses were consistent with a full mediation model in which organizational resources and work engagement predict service climate, which in turn predicts employee performance and then customer loyalty. Further analyses revealed a potential reciprocal effect between service climate and customer loyalty.

**Luthans et al. (2008)** examined the mediating role of psychological capital in the supportive organizational climate-employee performance relationship. Although the value of a supportive organizational climate has been recognized over the years, there is a need for better understanding of its relationship with employee outcomes. This study investigated whether the recently emerging core construct of positive psychological capital (consisting of hope, resilience, optimism, and efficacy) plays a role in mediating the effects of a supportive organizational climate with employee outcomes. Utilizing three diverse samples, results show that employees' psychological capital is positively related to their performance, satisfaction, and commitment and a supportive climate is related to employees' satisfaction and commitment. The study's major hypothesis that employees' psychological capital mediates the relationship between supportive climate and their performance was also supported.

**Hannan et al. (2008)** investigated the effects of relative performance feedback and incentive compensation method on performance. The study examined whether the presence and the content of relative performance feedback have different effects on performance when participants are compensated via a tournament or an individual incentive scheme. The experimental results show a disordinal interaction between incentive scheme and feedback. Specifically, providing relative performance feedback *improves* the mean performance of participants compensated under an individual
incentive scheme regardless of the precision or specific content of the feedback. In contrast, providing relative performance feedback deteriorates the mean performance of participants compensated under a tournament incentive scheme, but only if the feedback is sufficiently precise. Supplementary analysis has suggested that this deterioration in performance is due to ineffective task strategies rather than reduced effort. It was also found that in the absence of relative performance feedback, participants compensated under a tournament incentive scheme perform better, and their performance improves to a greater extent over time, compared to participants compensated under an individual incentive scheme. These results have implications for the design of accounting, control, and reporting systems in firms.

Stanton (2009) presented a conceptual framework for examining employee reactions to performance monitoring. The framework incorporates attitudinal and motivational effects of performance monitoring on monitored employees and discusses effects of performance monitoring on performance feedback and performance appraisal. The framework was used to organize a review of research literature relevant to employee reactions to electronic and non-electronic performance monitoring. The study includes specific propositions for additional research and general directions for future research in performance monitoring.

Mohamoud and Sheikh (2009) examined the role of work motivation on employee performance. Deductive approach was followed to carry out this quantitative research among students of Mugdisho university who are assumed to be future employees. The research was intended to get their responses on what they feel is (are) the best factors that could motivate them as future employees among a list of ten motivational factors. In the light of these factors, the study sets to identify the most ranked factors among the ten motivational factors. The empirical findings showed that ‘job satisfaction’ was the most ranked factor for both sub groups that made up the sample research. However, on the basis of the previous study and also the findings of this study showed that different results could be obtained from different groups of already working employees. This study, therefore, can be seen as an introduction to a more detailed one to be carried by future researchers in the field of employees’ motivation.

Bol (2011) examined the determinants and performance effects of centrality bias and leniency bias. The results showed that managers respond to their own incentives and preferences when subjectively evaluating performance. Specifically, information-
gathering costs and strong employee-manager relationships positively affect centrality bias and leniency bias. The findings also indicated that performance evaluation biases affect not only current performance ratings, but also future employee incentives. Inconsistent with predictions based on the agency perspective, the results show that managers' performance evaluation biases are not necessarily detrimental to compensation contracting. Although centrality bias negatively affects performance improvement, the evidence does not reveal a significant negative relation between leniency bias and performance. Rather, leniency bias is positively associated with future performance, which is consistent with the behavioural argument that bias can improve perceived fairness and, in turn, employee motivation.

Hussain et al. (2012) investigated the impact of job satisfaction on employee performance in autonomous medical institutions of Pakistan. In Pakistan, the doctor’s profession is considered gorgeous and dignified because it is directly related to the lives of human beings. In Pakistani society, there is a general inclination that in government hospitals, the patients are not properly treated by the doctors. The purpose of this study was to find out factors that influence level of job satisfaction among the work-force of autonomous medical institutions of Pakistan and its effects on performance. The sample of the study comprised of 200 doctors, nurses, administrative and accounts staff working in autonomous medical institutions in Punjab. Through questionnaires, data was collected and SPSS was used for data analysis. It was concluded from the study that facets such as pay, promotion, job safety and security, working conditions, job autonomy, relationship with co-workers, relationship with supervisor, and nature of work affect the job satisfaction and performance.

Tafkov (2013) conducted a comparative analysis of private and public relative performance (employees) information under different compensation contracts. This study investigates the conditions under which providing relative performance information to employees has a positive effect on performance when compensation is not tied to peer performance. The study was specifically investigated, via an experiment to find the effect of relative performance information (present or absent) on performance under two compensation contracts (flat-wage or individual performance-based). Given the presence of relative performance information, the present study examined the effect of the type of relative performance information (private or public) on performance. Using theory from psychology, it was predicted and found that relative performance information positively
affects performance under the two compensation contracts and that this positive effect is greater under an individual performance-based contract than under a flat-wage contract. It was also predicted and found that although both public and private relative performance information have a positive effect on performance, the effect is greater when relative performance information is public.

### 2.13 Performance and Emotional Intelligence

Among other things / purposes, organizations are places where individuals are “organized” to work. To the extent that the work requires interactions among individuals, emotions such as excitement, anger and fear are indispensable in facilitating co-operation. Employees who are “intelligent” about their emotions will, therefore, be more efficient and effective in their interactions with the work environment and with their co-workers. This emotional intelligence-performance link has been proposed in a few previous studies, and is reviewed as follows:

**Spencer and Spencer (1993)** An analysis of job competencies in 286 behaviours worldwide indicated that 18 of the 21 competencies in their generic model for distinguishing better performers were based on emotional intelligence.

**Pesuric and Byham (1996)** established that after supervisors in a manufacturing plant received training in emotional competencies, such as how to listen better and help employees resolve problems on their own, lost-time accidents were reduced from an average of 15 per year to 3 per year, and the plant exceeded productivity goals by $250,000.

**McClelland (1998)**, for the purpose of this study, collected data from more than 30 different behaviours from banking, mining, geology, sales and health care industries. The study documented that a number of emotional intelligence competence qualities, such as achievement drive, developing others, adaptability, influence and self-confidence distinguished top performers from average ones.

**Sosik and Megerian (1999)** carried out their research study under the title, “Understanding Leader Emotional Intelligence and Performance: The Role of Self-Other Agreement on Transformational Leadership Perceptions;” The purpose of this study was to examine whether self-awareness of managers (defined as agreement between self and other leadership ratings) would moderate relationships between

(a) Aspects of Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership Behaviour
(b) Transformational Leadership Behaviour and Managerial Performance.

Multisource data was collected from 63 managers (who responded about their emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behaviour), 192 subordinates (who rated their manager’s transformational leadership behaviour and performance outcomes), and 63 superiors of focal managers (who rated managerial performance). Results revealed that correlations between emotional intelligence aspects, leader behaviour, and performance varied as a function of self-awareness of managers.

Seibert et al. (2001) claimed that emotional intelligence may contribute to work performance (as reflected in salary, salary increase, and company rank) by enabling people to nurture positive relationships at work, work effectively in teams, and build social capital. Work performance often depends on the support, advice, and other resources provided by others. Emotional intelligence enhances work performance by enabling people to regulate their emotions so as to cope effectively with stress, perform well under pressure, and adjust to organizational change.

Singh (2001) cited a study on 100 bank employees by Manila University, and showed that intelligence quotient scores were virtually unrelated with job performance, whereas emotional quotient score accounted for 27 per cent of job performance.

Bhalla and Nauriyal (2004) reported in their study that emotional intelligence is a factor that is potentially useful in understanding and predicting individual performance at work. They further reported that emotional intelligence is extremely important in Indians as they have high affiliation need; and emotional intelligence can lead to significant gain in productivity.

Lyons and Schneider (2005) examined the relationship of ability-based emotional intelligence facets with performance under stress. The authors expected high levels of emotional intelligence would promote challenge appraisals and better performance, whereas low emotional intelligence levels would foster threat appraisals and worse performance. The authors found that certain dimensions of emotional intelligence were related more to challenge and enhanced performance, and that some emotional intelligence dimensions were related to performance after controlling for cognitive ability, demonstrating incremental validity.

Cumming (2005) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace performance with a sample of workers from New Zealand. In addition, she studied the relationship among demographic factors, emotional intelligence and
workplace performance. The results of her study suggested that a significant relationship exists between emotional intelligence and workplace performance. In the case of emotional intelligence and demographic factors, no significant relationships were found between gender and emotional intelligence, age and emotional intelligence, occupational groups and emotional intelligence, neither between education and emotional intelligence. **Cote and Miners (2006)** examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence, and job performance. Subjects were 175 managerial, administrative, and professional full-time employees of a large public university. Results found that cognitive intelligence moderated the association between emotional intelligence and job performance. Emotional intelligence became a stronger predictor of job performance and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour directed at the Organization (OCBO) (e.g., defend the organization when other employees criticize it) as cognitive intelligence decreased. Results suggested that using cognitive intelligence tests alone to predict job performance entails risk, because employees with low cognitive intelligence can perform effectively if they have high emotional intelligence. **Tram et al. (2006)** examined the relationships among food service employees’ emotional intelligence, their managers’ emotional intelligence, employees’ job satisfaction, and employees’ job performance. The results showed that employees’ emotional intelligence was positively associated with job performance and satisfaction. In addition, managers’ emotional intelligence had a stronger positive correlation with job satisfaction for employees with low emotional intelligence than for those with high emotional intelligence. The findings suggest that managers’ emotional intelligence makes an important difference to employees who possess low emotional intelligence. **Bar-On et al. (2006)** carried out an extensive study on performance which involved the effectiveness of 1,171 United States Air Force recruiters. These recruiters were divided into high-performing groups (those who met or exceeded 100% of their recruiting goals) and low-performing groups (those who met less than 80% of their recruiting goals). An emotional quotient was administered to the recruiters, and the emotional quotient instrument predicted 28% of the variance in the performance between the two groups. The emotional quotient correctly classified 81% of the recruiters in the high-performing and low-performing groups. Furthermore, recruiters with high levels of emotional intelligence had a greater ability to place recruits in positions that closely matched their knowledge and skills.
Shankar and Sayeed (2006) conducted a research on 139 managers working in various organizations in western India. The purpose of the study was to establish a relation between emotionally intelligent managers and managers’ professional development. The managerial scores on various dimensions of emotional intelligence were correlated with professional development indicators of managers, conceptualized in terms of number of promotions attained and the rated job success. The assumption that the emotionally intelligent managers would tend to attain greater professional development than those who are less emotionally intelligent was tentatively supported in the findings.

Quoidbach and Hansenne (2009) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence, performance, and cohesiveness in 23 nursing teams in Belgium. Nursing team performance was measured at four different levels: job satisfaction, chief nursing executives’ rating, turnover rate, and health care quality. The results did not support the generalization that all components of emotional intelligence relate to all measures of performance; however, the data clearly supported a relationship between emotional regulations as an important aspect of team performance (i.e., health care quality). Emotional regulation was also positively correlated with group cohesiveness. These results suggest that emotional regulation may provide an interesting new way of enhancing nursing teams’ cohesion and patient / client outcomes. The study suggested that including training on emotional regulation skills during team-building seminars might be more effective than focusing only on exercises to create long-term cohesiveness.

Khokhar and Kush (2009), in their study, explained the performance of executives on different levels of emotional intelligence and provided a link between emotional intelligence and effective work performance. As many as 20 male executives (out of 200) within the age group 40 to 55 yrs. from BHEL (Haridwar) and THDC (Rishikesh) of Uttarakhand state (India) were selected. T-tests for independent groups were used to measure the mean difference between groups. The findings of the study revealed that executives having higher emotional intelligence showed better quality of work performance as compared to their counterparts.

Kulkarni et al. (2009) had undertaken a study to understand the performance level of managers and supervisors at an automobile retailer in the city of Belgaum. The study focuses on understanding the emotional intelligence of the managers and supervisors and its link to their performance level on the job. The findings of the study indicate that
emotional intelligence has an impact on the performance level of the managers and supervisors.

Ramo et al. (2009) assessed the relationship between emotional intelligence, personality, and job performance, as determined by superior and peer nominations. The participants were 223 employees of three medium-sized Spanish organizations that were involved in a competency management project based on emotional and social competencies. The results revealed that both emotional and social competencies and personality traits are valuable predictors of job performance. In addition, competencies seem to be more powerful predictors of performance than global personality traits.

Mishra and Mahopatra (2010) observed that there has been an increase in interest in ‘emotional intelligence’ within the Indian organization system in recent years. This increase has been attributed to the popularization of the construct of emotional intelligence in the research area. The promotion of emotional development in corporate organizations assumes that the ability to regulate emotions is a positive trait, which is associated with positive workplace performance. There is, however, currently, little evidence to support the existence of such a relationship. The aim of the current study was to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace performance among corporate executives. The research was carried out in various organizations in Delhi NCR (National Capital Region). A questionnaire was used to explore whether there was a relationship between emotional intelligence scores and scores from performance assessment checklist for a sample of 90 males and females from different streams of population. The relationship was explored using an analysis of correlation. The effect of demographic variables, viz gender, academic qualification, and work experience on EI (Emotional Intelligence) score was also explored. The analysis found statistically significant positive correlations between scores on the emotional intelligence scale and scores on the performance scale. These results provide evidence of the concurrent validity of the emotional intelligence scale and also support the notion that emotional intelligence is associated with more or less workplace performances. The causal nature of this relationship cannot be inferred from the current study and further research is recommended to explore alternative explanations for this relationship. Out of the different demographic variables, only work experience was found to correlate positively with EI score. Experienced executives scored significantly higher on EI scale compared to less experienced executives. The results of the study are discussed within the context of the
limitations of the current study and findings from previous research. The implications of
the findings for organizations, policy-makers, HR professionals, trainers, and future
research are reflected upon.

Ogundokun and Adeyemo (2010) examined the moderating influence of emotional
intelligence, age and academic motivation on academic achievement of secondary school
students. The study adopted a survey research design. The participants in the study were
1563 (male=826; female=737) secondary school students from Oyo state, Nigeria. Their
age ranged between 12 and 17 years with mean age of 15.96 years. Two valid and reliable
instruments were used to assess emotional intelligence and academic motivation, while
achievement tests on English language and mathematics were used as a measure of
academic achievement. Descriptive statistics, Pearson product moment correlation and
hierarchical regression were used to analyse the data. The results revealed that emotional
intelligence, age and academic motivation were patent predictors mildly associated to
academic achievement. The study has implications for curriculum developers to integrate
emotional intelligence into school curriculum for secondary school. The teachers,
counsellors and educational psychologists should encourage development of a strong
achievement motivation in the students through the provision of appropriate counselling
intervention programmes and enabling environment. By doing so, the academic
performance of the students could be improved barring all other teaching learning
obstacles.

2.14 Conclusion
The literature as reviewed above provides that a number of studies covering different
aspects and issues of emotional maturity do exist. Some of the studies have tried to
ascertain the relationship of emotional maturity with career maturity. The respondents
included in such studies are school going children, adolescents, college going students,
etc. home environment has also been the subject of some research studies to find out its
impact on emotional maturity among the college students. Further, the effects of
parenting styles and academic achievements have also been assessed through the
emotional maturity level of the adolescents.
Similarly, in relation to self-confidence which is considered one of the most influential
motivators and regulators of behaviour, various studies have been conducted in the area
of sports, engineering, etc. with men and women of different age groups and family
backgrounds. The findings of these studies have been quite useful for our day-to-day life. The studies on leadership were also reviewed in relation to emotional intelligence, performance, self-confidence, human behaviour and management. The whole exercise made through the review of literature has provided ample opportunity not only to understand the existing knowledge in the problem area, but also to find the gap that exist in the research area. The literature reviewed revealed the gap that there is a need to study the above parameters on the most challenging and growing sectors, that contribute to our national economy, such as banking and insurance sector. In order to secure their competitive advantage over their competitor’s, they need to possess good number of traits, to maintain their performance. The present study aims to identify certain psychological traits which would help these industries to maintain their performance in such a challenging environment.
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