CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of literature in research provides one with the means of getting to the frontiers in a particular field. Borge (1964)

For any worthwhile study in a field of knowledge a research needs adequate familiarity with related studies only then an effective research for specialized knowledge is possible. The research for reference material is time consuming but very fruitful phase of research program. Survey of related literature serves to show what is already available, solves the problem adequately without further investigation and also avoids the risk of duplication. It provides comparative data useful for the interpretation of results and contributes to the general scholarship of the investigator.

The importance of the review of the related literature is expressed in the words by Billy Turney and George Robb as follows “Identification of a problem, development of a research design and the determination of the size and scope of the problems all depend to a great extent on the case and intensity with which a researcher has examined the literature related to the intended research”
Keeping in view the above consideration made a comprehensive survey of the related study of past years was studied. The present review of literature will consider the conceptual phenomena as well as the variables under study to assess empirical clarifications. Any research needs support, verification and clarification by having thorough critical evaluation of the literature available to the researcher, as much as possible within the literature available to the research investigation.

The present chapter will focus on review of literature related to self concept, achievement motivation, and emotional intelligence.

2.1 Self-concept -

Self-concept may be defined as conscious, cognitive perception of evaluation by individuals of themselves. It is their thoughts and opinions of themselves.

Shobhna Joshi and Rekha Srivastava (2009) investigated the self-esteem and academic achievement of urban and rural adolescents, and to examine the gender differences in self-esteem and academic achievement. The sample of this study consisted of 400 adolescents (200 urban and 200 rural) from Varanasi District. The boys and girls (aged 12 to 14) were equally distributed among the urban and rural sample. Self-esteem was measured by Self-esteem questionnaire and academic
achievement was measured by academic school records. The findings indicated that there were no significant differences with regard to self-esteem of rural and urban adolescents. There were significant differences with regard to academic achievement of rural and urban adolescents. Urban adolescents scored higher in academic achievement as compared to rural adolescents. Boys would score significantly higher on self-esteem as compared to girls. Significant gender differences were found in academic achievement. Girls were significantly higher on academic achievement as compared to boys.

Gender can also affect the level of self-esteem and academic achievement. Girls experience low self-esteem as compared to boys (Carlson, Uppal & Prosser 2000; DuBois et al., 2002).

O’Brien (1991) examined sex difference in self-esteem and reported that men scored significantly higher in global self-esteem than women. A majority of other

**Kelikangas-Jarvimen, 1990, Sekaran, 1983** have observed that male students’ scored higher on the self-esteem than female students.

**Kling, Hyde, Showers and Bus well (1999) and Rabbins et al. (2002)** have also reported that adolescents’ boys have higher self-esteem than adolescent’s girls.
Deidra J. Young (1998) investigated the relationships between student aspirations, student self-concept, and student achievement. These relationships were estimated using structural equation modelling. The hypothesis that rural and urban students may behave differently and have different influences was also investigated using a technique called multi-sample Analysis in the LISREL software package. Results demonstrated that, while urban students had significantly higher aspirations and achievement, their self-concept was similar to rural students. Further, there were no significant differences between rural and urban students in the paths for student aspirations, student self-concept, and student achievement. The importance of student self-concept as a mitigating effect on student aspirations and achievement was also demonstrated in this research.

Ritter, C. and Marcussen, K. (2008) have examined the effects of received services and perceived stigma on quality of life. They extend previous research by using longitudinal data to assess changes in self-concept (mastery, self-worth, and self-deprecation) and social support (satisfaction with familial and social relationships) among individuals with serious mental illnesses. Consistent with previous research (Rosenfield 1997), They found that counselling and crisis services are positively related to quality of life and self-concept, and that stigma is
negatively related to well-being and psychosocial resources. They also found that psychiatric hospitalization decreases quality of life, which is partially explained by the negative impact this service has on social relationships.

Falci, C. D., 2008 used in his research the growth curve modelling to study within person change in depressed mood, parent support and the self-concept during adolescence. He investigated whether changes in parental support and the self-concept in adolescence can account for the increasing rates of depressed mood and/or gender variation in adolescent depressed during adolescence. Results indicated that depressed mood increases for both boys and girls. Although the rate of increase for adolescent boys is significantly steeper than adolescent girls, girls consistently reported higher rates of depressed mood than boys between early and middle adolescence. Decreasing levels of parental support appear to indirectly influence higher levels of depressed mood via the self-concept. Changes in self-esteem and self-efficacy explain a significant and substantial amount of the increase in depressed mood during adolescence. Adolescent girls consistently reported lower levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy in adolescence; however, gender variation in the self-concept failed to explain gender variation in depressed mood.
Metcalf, Shannan D. (2004) reported that girls who belong to low socio-economic-status, their self-concept is continuously influenced by relationship with their peer group. They also reported that development of healthy self-concept in adolescence is partially depended on relationship with both parents and peers.

Charles, Deserie M. (2004) examined in their study that socio-economic-related-status are significant factor in adolescences’ self-concept.

Singh S.K. and Ahmad Naseem (2004) revealed in their study that parents’ child relation affects significantly to the social self-concept where as other dimensions like physical, temperamental, educational as well as moral are not affected by the relationship between child and his parents.

Huckleberry, Trista Michelle (2002) examined the multidimensional self-concept of African-American college students to determine weather black racial identity, defined by vigrescence theory, provides a valid means for predicting both global self worth and domain specific aspect of self-concept. The finding reinforced the need for multidimensional conceptualizations of both racial identity and self-concept.
A research by Cheng (2002) focusing on the configuration of self-concept in young people supported the notion of multiple self-concepts, consisting of six domain-specific self-concepts (social, intellectual, Appearance, Moral, Family and Physical) and the general self-esteem. It was found that Moral self-concept increased with age but Intellectual self-concept changed with age in a quadratic fashion. No significant age effects were found on other self-concepts and general self-esteem, but girls tended to be higher than boys in moral and family self-concept. No significant age effects was found on Intellectual and social self-concept.

Cross cultural study, by Stetsenko (2002) found close corresponding between children’s achievement and competence related beliefs (Competence self-concept) with the exception that young girls appear to specifically discount their talent.

Inoue [2001], Conducted study on title “Self Concept in Japanese students: Its relation to teacher rating.” The result shows that the significant positive correlation between teacher’s rating regarding student’s academic level & social skills & student responses matching these traits, The internal consisting of the SEI [Self Esteem Inventory, Coppersmith, 1967] is adequate but some what to felower than that of the SDQ [Self Description Questionnaire, Marsh, Parker & Smith- 1983]
Cognitive discrepancy models posit self-concepts to be a function of differences between actual accomplishments and ideal standards; unrealistic ideals lead to poor self-concepts even when accomplishments are otherwise good. In a study by Marsh (1999), a sample of high school students indicated their Actual, Ideal, Future, and Potential body-image by selecting from 12 silhouettes and completed 7 self-concept factors on 2 occasions. Structural equation models demonstrated that actual effects on self-concept factors were positive and ideal effects were negative thus supporting the discrepancy models’ predictions.

Wexler’s (1996) study indicated that the Father-daughter relationship is pivotal in the formation of girl’s self-esteem and attachment style. The results suggest that a girl’s progress through the various developmental stages is influenced by her ongoing contact with her father. The findings implied that fathers might be more ambivalent around areas of autonomy and achievement for their daughters and more comfortable in the areas of promoting self-esteem and attachment.

Gearhart (1994) studied self-concept in adult women with a multi-dimensional approach and focused on relationships between age, social role, and self-concept. The results showed that age was the primary predictor for dimensions of self-concept. Specifically, self-concepts for physical appearance, physical ability, and opposite sex relationships were
negatively co-related with age, while self-concepts for spirituality, honesty and emotional stability were positively co-related. Self-concepts for cognitive ability and same sex-relationships were also related to age, but in an non-linear fashion. These findings interpreted that self-concept is not a fixed, stable construct over time, but rather shifts with development throughout the life cycle.

**Wang (1993)** concluded that students, specially males with emotional disturbance had a negative self-concept in the component area of physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family-self, social self, identity, self-satisfaction, behaviour self, and total positive self and they functioned far below their no disabled peers in academic performance.

A study on class 9th Australian students by **Harper & Marshall (1991)** found that girls’ self esteem declined dramatically at puberty. At this age, girls became more concerned about societal and personal relations, sex, marriage, and physical development. Boys, however, were more concerned about finance, education and career issues.

**Baumrind (1982)** viewed that firm control is particularly responsible for encouraging such aspect of adolescent social competence as social responsibility, self-control, independence and self-esteem.
Alexander and George (1981) reported that physical characteristics of the adolescence age (e.g. awkwardness, increase appetite and skin problems) can have a serious effect on the self concept of the already sensitive adolescent.

Kipnis (1961) stressed the importance of friends in self-concepts. He tested student living in a dormitory and found that those who perceived their best friends to be relatively unlike themselves tended to change their self-evaluations during the six-weeks of the study so that the differences between themselves and their friends were smaller.

Two analyses were conducted to examine gender differences in global self-esteem in the study of Kling KC, Hyde JS, Showers CJ, Buswell BN,(1999). In analysis I, a computerized literature search yielded 216 effect sizes, representing the testing of 97,121 respondents. The overall effect size was 0.21, a small difference favoring males. A significant quadratic effect of age indicated that the largest effect emerged in late adolescence (d = 0.33). In Analysis II, gender differences were examined using 3 large, nationally representative data sets from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). All of the NCES effect sizes, which collectively summarize the responses of approximately 48,000 young Americans, indicated higher male self-esteem (ds ranged from 0.04 to 0.24). Taken together, the 2 analyses provide evidence that
males score higher on standard measures of global self-esteem than females, but the difference is small. Potential reasons for the small yet consistent effect size are discussed.

In study of Herbert W. Marsh (1989) analysis of the 12,266 responses to the three Self Description Questionnaires, which measure multiple dimensions of self-concept in preadolescence, early-to-middle adolescence, and late adolescence and early adulthood, examined (a) age and sex effects during preadolescence to early adulthood and (b) alternative operationalizations of Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton’s (1976) proposal that self-concept becomes more differentiated with age. Responses to all three SDQ instruments were reliable and resulted in well-defined factor structures. Self-concept declined from early preadolescence to middle adolescence, then increased through early adulthood. Sex differences in specific areas of self-concept were generally consistent with sex stereotypes and relatively stable from preadolescence to early adulthood. There was little support for the increased differentiation of dimensions of self-concept beyond early preadolescence.

Wylie (1979), in her comprehensive review of research conducted prior to 1977, concluded that there was no evidence for sex differences in overall self-concept at any age level. She noted, however, that sex
differences in specific components of self-concept may be lost when a total score is formed. Wylie found, for example, that girls tended to have higher self-reported affiliation than boys, which was consistent with Maccoby and Jacklin’s (1974) study of social self-concept.

Meece et al. (1982) documented that girls, at least by middle adolescence, consistently have lower math self-concepts than boys. Researchers (e.g., Dusek & Flaherty, 1981; Marsh et al., 1984) have further suggested that there are counterbalancing sex differences in many specific components—some favoring boys, and some favoring girls—that are consistent with traditional sex stereotypes. Marsh (in press-c), using the large, nationally representative High School and Beyond data sample, showed that boys have higher math self-concepts, whereas girls have higher verbal self-concepts. These differences in self-concept persisted despite the finding that stereotypic sex differences in mathematics and verbal achievements and in related coursework selection were minimal.

Dusek and Flaherty (1981), in their longitudinal study of adolescent self-concept, reported sex differences in specific self-concepts that were consistent with sex stereotypes; boys had higher self-concepts in masculinity and achievement/leadership than girls, but lower self-concepts in congeniality/sociability. Harter (1982) found that preadolescent boys had higher physical self-concepts than girls but found
no sex differences in social, cognitive, or general scales. For preadolescents,

Boersma and Chapman (1979) found significant differences favoring girls in school satisfaction, reading/spelling, penmanship/neatness, and total score; there were no significant differences for general ability, confidence, and arithmetic. Piers (1984) concluded that there is growing evidence of sex differences in specific areas of self-concept. Whereas she found no significant sex differences for total selfconcept, there were significant sex differences for many items and item clusters that seemed consistent with sex stereotypes.

Meece et al. (1979) suggested that girls have lower math self-concepts than do boys by junior high and high school years, but they found few reports of sex differences in math selfconcept during primary school years.

Stevenson and Newman (1986) found in his study that, by 10th grade, boys had more positive math self-concepts and poorer reading self-concepts than girls, but that sex differences were not statistically significant in Grades 1-5.

Marsh, Byrne, and Shavelson (1988) reported that, across responses to three different instruments, boys had higher math and
general self-concepts, but girls had high verbal and academic self-concepts.

For preadolescent responses to the SDQI (Marsh et al., 1984; Marsh, Relich, & Smith, 1983), girls had higher selfconcepts in Reading and General School, and lower selfconcepts in Physical Abilities, Math, and Appearance. For responses by high school students to the SDQII, girls tended to have higher scores for the Verbal, Honesty/Trustworthiness, Same-Sex Relationships, and, perhaps, General-School scales, whereas boys tended to have higher scores on the Physical Ability, Appearance, Math, and, perhaps, General and Emotional scales (Marsh, 1987; Marsh, Parker, & Barnes, 1985; Marsh, Smith, et al., 1988).

In a large random sample of adolescents, Connell et al. (1975) found significant sex differences in responses to Rosenberg’s (1965) Self-Esteem Scales favoring boys for all adolescent ages, though the size of such differences was largest during the middle-adolescent years (O’Malley and Bachman (1979) reviewed or reanalyzed results from several large, nationally representative studies using variations of the Rosenberg scale. In these studies, boys consistently had slightly higher (i.e., .1 standard deviation) esteem that reached statistical significance because of the very large sample sizes.
Sarswat (1982) conducted a study on self-concept and found that:

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

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

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

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

Ramiach (1990) reported that:

i. There was significant relationship between parental involvement and self-concept of the students. The more the parental involvement, the better the self-concept of the students.

ii. Female students had more parental involvement in the physical support dimension than male. Students.
Griffith (2002) examined a model of self-concept development to determine whether the self-concept of Belizean adolescents varied by gender, socio-economics status, ethic identity and grade level. Results suggest that youth from Belize and the U.S. were similar in total self-concept. They, however, differed on all the sub-domains of the self-concept based on gender, socio-economics status, ethnicity, ethic identity and grade level. None of these was significant for the total self-image.

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

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

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

2.2 Achievement Motivation -

Achievement motivation is relatively a new concept in the world of motivation (Mangal 2000). It is now widely used and heard in the area of education. Sunita Sharma (1998) pointed out that achievement motivation refers to the tendency to strive for success or the attainment of desired end.

Atkinson and Feather (1966) “Achievement motivation is conceived as a talent disposition which is manifested in overt striving only when the individual perceives performance as instrumental to a
sense of personal accomplishment.” He quoted that Individuals high in achievement motivation are at their best when they can maintain a high level of involvement in ensuring the excellence of activities under their coordination or control. However they do relatively less well when required to manage excessive tasks or to function in highly stressful environments.

**Bhagyavathy (1983)** found highly self-actualized students to be more internal and flexible as measured by a standardized self-actualization inventory, the I-E scale, the flexibility rigidity scale, goals and aspirations. Students differed according to academic streams, level of education, peer-group culture and economic status, but instead of using a \( X^2 \) analysis for testing each factor, a multiple-regression analysis would have yielded more accurate findings.

In study of Harmeet (1984), parental behaviour as shown in terms of mother’s love, affection, father’s permissiveness and love were related to n-ach. Rejection was negatively related to n-ach. Family size and social class were related curvilinearly and negatively with n-ach (Ojha, 1973). Birth-order and n-ach were not related even when the relationships were analysed in relation to SES, family size, and class differences (Mishra, 1974).
Child-rearing and personality factors were found to be antecedent variables as revealed in a factorial study that involved experimental manipulations of success-failure dimensions (Sinha, B.P., 1976).

Achievement motivation and intelligence were related. N-ach emerged as a complex achievement measure in both males and females but with loadings of entirely different sets of factors (Jerath, 1979).

McClelland’s affection-arousal model of motivation was tested in male university students (CA 18-25). N-ach was significant in all achievement-related words, statements and GSR (Khanna, 1982) measures.

N-achievement and perceived parental behaviour relationships were found in the case of tribal and non-tribal secondary school students (Lalitha, 1982). Prolonged deprivation had negative effects on the achievement and level of aspiration (Singh, R.D., 1983).

Ahluwalia (1985) found no relationship between sex, age, birth order, economic status, size of family, father’s occupation and climate on the one hand and n-ach on the other.

determined the level of concept acquisition when intelligence was controlled (Jain, S., 1983).

Achievement Motivation Scale (AMS) and the General Self Efficacy Scale (GSES) and the professional values of the questionnaire, 375 of Xi’an Jiaotong University (2010), conducted a survey of college students, on this basis, of the self-efficacy, achievement motivation and the relationship between professional values, to guide students to establish the right career values, meet the employment situation, meet the needs of the community. Comparison of the different gender, professional, urban and rural students in self-efficacy, achievement motivation and occupational values of the difference were studied. Result revealed that men and women college students in self-efficacy, achievement motivation and occupational values were significantly different. male self-efficacy was significantly lower than girls, boys are more likely to succeed in the achievement motivation, while girls tend to avoid failure are more achievement motivation, professional values in boys than girls and the fame factor is more emphasis on the importance of the development, while girls more than boys stressed the importance of protection factors. Science and Engineering students and liberal arts students in self-efficacy, achievement motivation and professional values are also significant differences. Science and engineering students self-
efficacy to be significantly lower than the arts students, science and engineering students tend to succeed, and liberal arts students tend to avoid failure, science and engineering students in the choice of career development more emphasis than the arts students, prestige factor of the importance of science and engineering students than liberal arts students more emphasis on security factors.

Duane H. Bajema, W. Wade Miller and David L. Williams (2002) have done study to determine the aspirations of rural youth and to identify perceived support for and barriers to achieving their goals. The population included all seniors enrolled in public and private high schools in a five county area of northwest Iowa. The students were asked to indicate their educational and occupational aspirations. Likert-type scales were used to measure perceptions regarding support for and barriers to achieving their goals. Tenets of achievement motivation theory were observed in the rural students. Town and farm students alike had diverse educational and occupational aspirations. A high level of congruence was observed between the students’ occupational aspirations and their educational goals, revealing that many students were following career paths. Students perceived that the environment provided by their schools was supportive of their aspirations. Barriers to achieving their goals were perceived as minimal.
Anand and Dave (1979) reviewed the literature on correlates of achievement over 1972-78. The trend report was organized according to general correlates. SES, personality, curriculum organization, and over- and underachievement. Intelligence, n-ach, parental encouragement, emotional climate and educational facilities in the home were related to academic achievement. Most of the studies on SES and academic achievement are replications or repetitions, establishing the same functional relationship between SES and achievement as earlier reported in the Survey of Research in Educational Psychology (Buch, 1972). Personality studies identified certain values, motives, and non-cognitive traits influencing achievement. While n-achievement was found to be a prerequisite to high academic achievement, manifest anxiety and extraversion were found to be negatively related to achievement. Anand and Dave (1979) observed some clear trends in research in this area. Research on correlates of academic achievement is fairly extensive, developmental and trait-oriented, but replicate western studies, constitute post-facto analyses and are curriculum-oriented. Horizontal research also characterizes Indian research studies in this area. More in-depth studies was a felt need.

Beata Zitniakova-Gurgova (2007) performed on the sample of 213 university students, out of whom 102 were women and 111 men. The
The research method was achievement motivation inventory (AMI), which diagnoses the achievement motive, anxiety hindering achievement and anxiety supporting achievement. The research findings have confirmed assumptions about gender differences in all the measured variables.

R.K. Adsul and Vikas Kamble (2008) investigated the effects of gender, economic background and caste differences on achievement motivation possessed by college students on the basis of societal transformation. An exploratory method of research was employed by adopting 2X3X4 factorial design. The study was based on one hundred and ninety two under graduate students of various colleges from Sangli city of Maharashtra, was selected by random sampling procedure. As per research plan 48 subjects from each caste group i.e. forward castes, other backward castes, Scheduled castes and Nomadic tribes were selected on the basis of male - female ratio was 1:1, and three levels of economic background of family. Achievement Motivation Test (ACMT) developed by Bhargave was used to collect the data from the sample. 't’ test, Duncan’s Multiple Range test and three way ANOVA were calculated for deriving the results. The results show that there is a significant difference between scheduled caste and Nomadic tribes, scheduled caste and other backward caste students and between male and female students. Forward caste and scheduled caste group students having a high achievement
motivation while other backward and nomadic tribes group students having an average level achievement motivation. As well as male students having a high achievement motivation while female students having a below average level of achievement motivation. The most important finding is that the computed F ratio of interaction was found to be not significant which indicates that caste, gender and economic background of family does not jointly affect on achievement motivation of college students.

Nagarathanamma and Rao (2007) designed a study to see the difference between adolescent boys and girls on achievement motivation. They found that there was no significant difference between boys and girls with regard to achievement motivation level.

Kaushik and Rani (2005) also confirmed the findings that there was no significant gender difference on achievement motivation in students of four educational streams.

Adegbija, (2000) Adeagbo, (2004) and Palmer, (1994) have emphasized the effect of students’ attitude, socio-economic background, gender and peer group influence on students’ academic achievement. Apart from these factors, other factors that can also affect academic achievement include emotional intelligence and self- efficacy.
Tramontana, Hooper, and Selzer (1998) examined 74 longitudinal studies published between 1973 and 1986, in which kindergarten measures were used to predict achievement in grade school. Their findings revealed a variety of sources that had served as predictors of student achievement such as: (a) cognitive abilities, (b) academic skills/readiness, (c) language abilities, (d) motor skills, (e) behavioural-emotional functioning, (f) personality, (g) self-image, (h) achievement motivation, (i) study attitude and habit, (j) peer-relationships, (k) student-teacher relationships, and (l) demographic factors. Some variables were more effective than others, with the predictive validity of others more inconclusive.

Achievement levels in India have shown that tribal students have lower achievement compared to non-tribals (Govinda and Varghese, 1993, Varghese 1994, Sujatha 1998, Prakash et al. 1998).

The low achievement levels among tribals were attributed to school-related variables as in the case of non-tribal students. However, tribal students had additional disadvantages arising out of social and locational factors (Sujatha 1998).

Sujatha (1998), Shukla (1994), Prakash (1998) mentioned that the achievement of tribal students are lower than that of non tribal students in primary levels. The studies mentioned that the various factors related to
school, location and society contribute to their lower level of achievement.

Agnihotri (1991) suggested that there were more adjustment problems in the tribal group and so proper remedial measures need to be thought out and executed to improve their adjustment.

Biswal (1991) found that the indifference of parents, lack of motivation in pupils, traditional customs and beliefs etc. hinders the progress of ST students. The above studies suggest the need for the proper academic support to the ST students to improve their achievement and motivation and to help them to become well adjusted individuals.

The achievement levels of tribal children showed slight improvement during the period from 1993 to 1998 as revealed by the baseline studies conducted under the DPEP (Prakash 1998),

**2.3 Emotional Intelligence**

B. Rangaiah and Mewa Singh (Pondicherry & Mysore University) Studied. Cognitive styles among children and adults in tribal and urban contexts. Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology, October 2009, Vol. 35, 131-135. Story pictorial embedded figure test (SPEFT) was employed to assess the cognitive styles. The sample consisted of 70 adults and 30 children in each group. Results showed that the urban
sample were psychologically more differentiated compared to tribes; urban sample had taken more response scores and lesser time to complete the test than tribal sample. Tribal children found to be quicker than tribal adults in completing the test. Urban children were less differentiated psychologically compared to the adults in urban context. Urban children were found to be psychologically more differentiated as compared to tribal children.

Shobha Nandwana and Kushagra Joshi (2010) conducted the study on 60 tribal adolescents (30 boys and 30 girls) of 16-18 years studying in senior secondary school of purposively selected “Tidi” village of Udaipur. The level of emotional intelligence of the tribal adolescents was assessed by administering a standardized emotional intelligence inventory - MEII (2004) by S.K.Mangal and Shubhra Mangal. Percentages were calculated to draw inferences and t-test was applied to assess the impact of gender on emotional intelligence of tribal adolescents. Result revealed that gender is significant on emotional intelligence.

B. Rangaiah and Mewa Singh (2009) Studied cognitive styles among children and adults of urban and tribal contexts. Story pictorial embedded figure test (SPEFT) was employed to assess the cognitive styles. The sample consisted of 70 adults and 30 children in each group. Results showed that the urban sample were psychologically more
differentiated compared to tribes; urban sample had taken more response scores and lesser time to complete the test than tribal sample. Tribal children found to be quicker than tribal adults in completing the test. Urban children were less differentiated psychologically compared to the adults in urban context. Urban children were found to be psychologically more differentiated as compared to tribal children.

Emotional Intelligence with CBT for Educators (2005) Presented by Dr Dom Di Mattia found that Emotional intelligence has been correlated positively with effective management skills by Dan Goleman’s groundbreaking research into emotional intelligence (EQ). Goleman has popularized Emotional Intelligence and conducted extensive research demonstrating that effective managers have higher EQ than ineffective managers. He provides us with instruments to measure Emotional Intelligence and claims that EQ can be raised with proper instruction, however he does not provide techniques to improve EQ. Cognitive Behavioural techniques (CBT) have demonstrated that tested cognitive, behavioural and emotive techniques can reduce emotional disturbance and increase effective performance. These techniques are tailor made not only for teaching managers, but can be particularly useful to teachers and other educators in helping themselves and students to increase their EQ.
In a small pilot study consisting of thirty-seven explored how the
development of emotional intelligence (EI) using the principles of
Cognitive-Behavioural Therapy (CBT) done by Richard Harmer and Ben
Palmer. The Genos Emotional Intelligence Assessment Scale (Palmer &
Stough, 2003) and Team Effectiveness Scale (Pearce & Sims, 2002) were
used to measure workplace EI and team effectiveness, respectively.
Completed assessment measures pre-and-post intervention. Using
Repeated-Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), results indicate
emotional intelligence significantly improved as a result of the EI
development intervention.

Shaun M. Eack, Gerard E. Hogarty, Deborah P. Greenwald, Susan
S. Hogarty and Matcheri S. Keshavan (2007) examined the preliminary
effects of Cognitive Enhancement Therapy (CET) on social cognition,
using an objective, performance-based measure of emotional intelligence.
Result revealed that Cognitive Enhancement Therapy Improves
Emotional Intelligence.

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

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

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

Harrod, N.R.; and Scheer, S.D. (2005) measured emotional intelligence in 200 youth. EI scores were compared to demographic
characteristics of the individuals (age, sex, household income, parent’s level of education and location of residence). Finding indicates that EI levels were positively related to female, parent’s education, and household income. The study did not show significant relationship between adolescent EI and location of residence or age. EI scores were significantly different between females and males, with females reporting higher EI scores and age, location of residence and household income. Significant differences were found based upon EI scores for parent’s education; as they increased so did EI levels. In a liner regression model, with demographic as the independent variables and EI as the dependent variable, father’s education and sex were both predictors.

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

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

Jane Block, (200), a psychiatrist, has made a comparison of theoretical pure types, people high in I.Q. versus people high in emotional aptitudes. The profiles differ slightly for men and women.

i. The High I.Q. Male has a wide range of intellectual interest and abilities. The person is ambitious, productive but tends to be critical and condescending, fastidious and inhibited, uneasy with sexuality and sensual experience, unexpressive, detached and emotionally bland and cold.

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

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

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

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

Katyal, S; and Ashwini, E. (2005) studied gender differences in emotional intelligence among adolescents. Girls were found to have higher emotional intelligence than that of boys. However the difference touched only 0.10 level, hence finding are just suggestive of the trend.
Chadha (2001) conducted a research to find out gender differences in emotional intelligence. Results indicated that there was no significant gender difference in emotional intelligence.

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

Self management of emotions could have enabled the participants to be aware of their emotions, coped with strong feelings and not be overwhelmed or be paralyzed by them. Participants could find the causes for strong reactions like anger, revenge, fear, sorrow or exhaustion and learnt to understand why these behaviours came to the forefront of their thoughts. Motivation could have made the participants to be goal oriented and able to channel emotion towards desired outcomes. Relationship management would have enabled the participants to recognize emotions in others and to understand others’ point of view, thereby making them less prone to negative emotions which are known to retard academic achievement. This assertion finds support in the work of

**Mayer and Geher (1996)**, who examining the positive influence of emotional intelligence on academic achievement demonstrated that students who are able to understand and interpret emotions scored lower on measures of emotional defensiveness, and that this openness to emotion allows individuals to perform better in problem solving situations and academic achievement.

As asserted by Sallay, 2002, Wolf, Pescoshodo, Druskat, (2002), emotional intelligence skills add to and strengthen the critical cognitive
problem solving skill of pattern recognition and perspective taking. Understanding emotions and feelings help students to give their best potential in the classroom. Students who think negatively cannot concentrate for a long time and have more difficulty in reaching their potential than others.

Pool (1997) maintained that emotional well being is a predictor of success in academic achievement and job success among others. Social awareness gives an individual the ability to handle a range of social relationships. Social skills help an individual to understand why he or she does things and serves as the fuel that power his or her actions.

In Cherniss’ (2000) longitudinal study. Two thirds of the boys came from welfare homes, one third had IQ of below 90 and yet most were adjudged successful in their various endeavours. It was discovered that intelligence quotient had little relation with how well they did at work or in the rest of their lives. What made the biggest difference were childhood abilities such as being able to handle frustration, control emotions and get along with other people. These skills which the participants in this study must have acquired from their exposure to the emotional intelligence training could have informed their observed improved performance.
Emotional intelligence also involves the ability to monitor one’s own as well as feelings and emotions of others, discriminate among them and use this information to guide one’s thinking and action. The possession of these abilities aids an individual’s performance in academic achievement (Seligman dd Csikszentmihayi, 2000).

Elias, Gara, Schumier, Bradon-Muller dd Sayette, (1991) revealed that teaching emotional and social skills is very important at school, for they affect academic achievement positively not only during the year they are taught, but during the years that follow as well. These skills also have longer-term effect on academic achievement.

Ediger (1997), Funegan (1998) Mayer dd Salovey (1997), Petrides et al (2004), Ransdel, (2001), Bjarson (2000) and Newcomb et al (2002). Parker et al (2004) confirmed that the transition from high school to the university when he found that emotional intelligence predicts academic achievements. Though the participants used in this study and that of Parker et al are different, the results of the two studies corroborated each other on the importance of emotional intelligence in the enhancement of an individual’s academic achievement.

Work of Emeke, Adeoye dd Torubelli (2006) in their study of locus of control, self concept and emotional intelligence as correlates of academic achievement among adolescents in senior secondary schools
using 600 adolescents from four senior secondary schools when they found that emotional intelligence significantly correlates with improvement in academic achievement of the participants.

Newsome, Day, Catano (2000), Vander Zee, Schäkel and Thyis (2002) who found that emotional intelligence did not correlate with cognitive ability and academic performance. Factors responsible for this result may include the correlational design of the study and the participants used in the study.

The significant effect of self-efficacy on an individual’s academic achievement is not surprising considering the fact that self-efficacy deals with the level of confidence individuals have in their ability to execute certain courses of action or achieve specific outcomes especially in relation to academic achievement. It is established that a student who can understand own capability will be able to diagnosis own problem and seek for solution (Bandura, 1997). The better performance of this group could be explained in terms of participants’ exposure to self efficacy skills of observation, motivation, self regulation, attribution, goal setting and feedback through self efficacy training. A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal wellbeing in many ways. People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. They set
themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them. They heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. They quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks. They attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills, which are acquirable. They approach threatening situations with assurance that they can exercise control over them. Such an efficacious outlook produces personal accomplishments, reduces stress, lowers vulnerability to depression and enhances academic achievement (Bandura, 2000).

Bandura (1993, 1995 & 1997) reported that self-efficacy ultimately determines how an individual behaves, thinks and becomes motivated to be involved with particular roles especially academic performance.

Self-efficacy plays a critical role in an individual’s educational achievement (Arebru & Ogbuagu, 2005).

The role of self efficacy on academic achievement has shown positive correlation with performance attainment in study of (Bandura 1986; Bempêchant & Drago - Severson, 1999; Covington, 2000; Pajares, 1996; Pajares, 2005; Patrie, Hicks & Ryan, 1997; Schunk, 1995; Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez- Pons, 1992).
Rasdell (2001) found that self-efficacy is a crucial variable in learning and performance in his study on the importance of ability and non cognition variables in predicting college success.

Moderate-to-strong relations between academic achievement and self-concept have been found in a large body of research (e.g., Brookover & Passalacqua, 1981; Byme & Worth Gavin, 1996; Maruyama, Rubin, & Kingsbury, 1981; Skaalvik, 1990; Skaalvik & Rankin, 1990, 1995a, 1995b; Skaalvik, Valås, & Sletta, 1994). Those researchers have found persistent correlations of .4 to .6 between achievement and self-concept.

Jasmine Green, Genevieve Nelson, Andrew J. Martin and Herb Marsh (2006) studied the casual relationship between academic self-concept, academic motivation and its effect on academic achievement. Do changes in academic self-concept and academic motivation lead to changes in subsequent academic achievement? Various studies have attempted to answer this question by examining the causal relations between academic self-concept and academic achievement as well as academic motivation and academic achievement. Less integral to research however has been the investigation of the relationship between both academic self-concept and academic motivation and their combined effects on academic achievement. For this reason, this paper aims to
elucidate further the relationships among self-concept, motivation and academic achievement by proposing a longitudinal design by which self-concept and motivation are measured from a multidimensional perspective.

EINAR M. SKAALVIK and HARALD VALAS (1999) studied relations among achievement, self-concept, and motivation in mathematics and language arts were examined in a longitudinal 2-wave, 3-variable panel study. The participants were 3 cohorts of Norwegian elementary and middle school students (N = 1,005). The 1st data collection took place in October and November 1996, when the students in the 3 cohorts attended 3rd, 6th, and 8th grades. The 2nd data collection took place 1 academic year later. LISREL. 8 was used in the separate analyses of mathematics and language arts data; the data were analyzed for each cohort by means of 6 path analyses for latent variables. In all cohorts, the results were consistent with a skill-development model of the achievement-self-concept relation, that is, the view that achievement affects subsequent self-concept. No evidence was found that self-concept affects subsequent achievement (self-enhancement model). Moreover, in the 2 oldest cohorts, motivation was affected by previous achievement. However, there was no evidence
that self-concept affects subsequent motivation or achievement.

Hassan Jorfi, Saeid Jorfi, Hashim Fauzy Bin Yaccob, Ishak Mad Shah (2010) The paper is undertaken to understand the relationship between emotional intelligence especially self-regard. Data (N = 145) for this study were collected through questionnaires that participants were managers and employees educational administrations of Iran. Result revealed that Individuals with high self-regard tend to have higher emotional intelligence and this action lead to improve communication effectiveness.


Self-efficacy which refers to a person’s judgment of own capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated type of performance has also been found to be a major contributor to an individual’s academic achievement (Bandura, 1986).

Adeoye and Hammed (2010) investigated the impact of emotional intelligence and self efficacy training on academic achievement in
English Language of students in Senior Secondary Schools. The sample consisted of 270 participants drawn from nine co-educational schools across three selected educational zones. Simple random sampling technique was used to select three schools from each zone among those that met the inclusion criteria set for the study. Adopting a pre-test, post-test, control group quasi-experimental design, one null hypothesis was tested at 0.05 level of significance. Using Emotional Intelligence Training Package (EIPTA), Self Efficacy Training Package (SEPTA) and English Language Achievement Test (r=0.73), the administration of interventions lasted for eight weeks. Data were analysed using ANCOVA and the Duncan post hoc test to examine the impact of emotional intelligence and self efficacy training on the achievement of senior secondary school students in English language. There was a significant main effect of treatment on students’ academic achievement in English language (F (2,269) = 364.447, P<0.05). Students exposed to Emotional intelligence training (x=42.81) performed better in the English language achievement test than those in the Self-efficacy training group (x=33.88) and those in the Control group (x=27.89). Though Emotional intelligence and Self-efficacy trainings tremendously enhanced the performance of the students in English Language, Emotional intelligence training had a more significant impact on students’ academic achievement. It is recommended
that students’ academic achievement should be enhanced with the use of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy training.

Stenberg (1997), Vermunt (1998), Nelson and Low (1998), Vela (2003) and Stottlemyer (2002). Emotional intelligence have a positive relationship with student achievement motivation. Thus, this study has important implications for pedagogy in higher education in general and UiTM Sarawak in particular. Higher education based on emotional intelligence and learning styles domain can create a conducive learning environment that promotes effective teaching and learning and which will have a positive impact on students’ academic achievement.

Maghar Singh and Kuldip Singh (2009) studied the influence of emotional intelligence and learning styles on academic achievement of University Technology Mara Sarawak students. A sample size of 500 students at the diploma and bachelor level was selected for the study. The total number of usable questionnaires returned was 389 which gave a response rate of 78 %. Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ), an adapted version of the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) developed by Schutte et.al (1998), was used in this study to measure emotional intelligence. The learning styles were measured using Learning Style Questionnaire (LSQ) which comprised adapted items from the ‘VARK Learning Styles Inventory’ developed by Neil Fleming (1987).
The findings showed significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement and also between learning styles and academic achievement. The level of emotional intelligence of the students was found to be moderate and no dominant learning style was found amongst the students. The study concluded that emotional intelligence and learning styles have a positive impact on students’ academic achievement.