CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A thorough review of the related studies is an integral part of the conduct of research. The main purpose of the review of related studies is the fitness of particular project into a broader scheme enabling one to see its importance.

The survey of related studies helps the investigator in the avoidance of duplication and in planning of an adequate research design and also giving insightful interpretation of his findings. It may provide guidelines for framing hypotheses, suggest method of interpretative purpose. It prepares a suitable background for a better appreciation and through comprehension of the studies related to the particular field.

Firstly, related knowledge helps the investigator to avoid overlapping and it acquaints him with the level and nature of research already done and it indicates what remains to be done. Secondly, it helps the investigator to build up new edifice on the basis of perceived knowledge and the standard can be maintained or raised by keeping in view the previous quality standards. Thirdly, related knowledge of the studies is helpful for the further development of any research work. So there is a need for an investigator to review the related literature. In this chapter, studies on locus of control, self-concept, self-efficacy and emotional intelligence are being reviewed and discussed.

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence basically deals with emotional competence i.e. self awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, empathy and handling relationships which are directly and indirectly related to other variables in affective domain of personality having linkage with the construct of emotional intelligence in one way on the other. A brief account of some pertinent studies has been reported here.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) evaluated the emotional intelligence of more than 30000 men and women of ages varying from the teens to 50’s, revealed small but steady and significant increase in their emotional intelligence with advance in age and a peak was reported in 40’s age group. The study confirmed that emotional intelligence developed with increasing age
and experience as a person progressed from childhood to adulthood.

**Goleman (1995)** reported that women are not "smarter" than men when it comes to emotional intelligence, nor are men superior to women. He explained that an individuals’ emotional intelligence can affect one's work situation. Goleman (1995) reported that academic intelligence has little to do with emotional life. People with high IQ can be stunningly poor pilots of their private lives.

**Tyagi (1996)** in his study on emotional intelligence of secondary teachers in relation to gender and age showed no significant difference in emotional intelligence of the teachers with respect to sex as well as age.

**Winner Ellen (1996)** explains in her outstanding book,’ Gifted Children,” that there is a myth that gifted children are better adjusted, more popular, and happier than average children. The challenging reality is that more frequently, nearly the opposite is true. Bar on (1997) found emotional intelligence to be independent of sex. There were no sex differences.

**Mayer and Salovey (1997)** suggested that four aspects of emotional intelligence, i.e.; perceiving emotions, emotional facilitation of thoughts, emotional understanding and emotional management are positively correlated with each other.

**Joe M.Nair, & J. Gary Evans (1997)** studied gifted adolescents and non gifted adolescents with regard to their perception of overall emotional adjustment as measured by a composite score (ESI) on the self report of personality (SRP) of the Behavior Assessment System for Children (BASC). Gifted adolescents were compared with their non-gifted peers from a suburban high school within the atlantics metropolitan area. No difference was obtained between groups with regard to grade. Results support previous findings that when a difference exists between the overall emotional adjustment of gifted and non-gifted students on self-report instruments.

Some empirical evidence that emotional intelligence is associated with emotional well being comes from research indicating that higher emotional intelligence is associated with less depression (Martinez, 1997; Schutte et al 1998).

**Joy and Loss (1999)** said that gifted children have unique emotional needs. In addition to their skills, emotional intelligence training is essential for gifted and talented students.

**Graczyk et al (2000)** investigated the criteria for evaluating the school based social and emotional learning programs and concluded that the social and emotional intelligence have increased teachers awareness that provide experiences that meet student’s social and emotional needs which can improve their adjustment.
Lazzari (2000) conducted a study to examine emotional intelligence, personal meaning satisfaction with life, the psychological well-being in early and late adolescents. Given the importance of personal meaning in identity resolution and moral development, it was hypothesized that personal meaning would be better predicted than emotional intelligence of satisfaction with life and psychological well-being.

Petrides and Furnham (2000) conducted a study on two hundred and sixty predominantly white participants who completed a measure of trait emotional intelligence and estimated their scores on 15 facets on a normal distribution with 100 points as the mean and 15 points as a SD. Females scored higher than males on the “social skills” factor of measured trait EI. However, when the 15 facets of self-estimated EI were combined into a single reliable scale and the participants’ measured trait EI scores were held constant. it was demonstrated that males believed they had higher EI than females. Most of the correlations between measured and self-estimated scores were significant and positive, thereby indicating that people have some insight into their EI. Correlations between measured and self-estimated scores were generally higher for males than females, and a regression analysis indicated that gender was a significant predictor of self-estimated EI.

Ciarrachi, Chan and Caputi (2000), posit that emotional intelligence may protect people from stress and lead to better adaptation.

Schuttle et al (2001) examined the link between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations. Participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence has higher scores for empathic perspective taking and self-monitoring in social situations. Social skills displayed more cooperative responses towards partners. They also found higher scores for close and affectionate relationship.

Ciarrochi, Chan and Bajgar (2001) have found that emotional, intelligence has an impact on psychological health—particularly occupational stress.

Caruso, Mayer and Salovey (2002) concluded a study to examine the ability test of emotional intelligence and its relationship to personality test variables to determine the extent to which these constructs overlap. Results revealed that emotional intelligence was measured reliably and was relatively independent of traditionally defined personality traits, supporting the discriminant validity of the emotional intelligence construct.

Duke (2002) said gifted children who have low levels of emotional intelligence are at risk of social or emotional problems. Children with ADHD are usually low in emotional intelligence because their disorder affects the areas of the brain that manage emotions. They tend to experience greater frustration, lower self-esteem and more peer rejection than most
gifted children. Their low emotional intelligence makes life harder for them both at home and at school.

Bar-on (2003) found there was a moderate yet significant relationship of emotional and social intelligence with psychological health.

Singh (2003) in his book "Emotional Intelligence at work" found that different professions require different emotional quotient levels and to be successful in teaching profession one needs to have high emotional quotient level.

In response to general press assertions that training emotionally intelligent children will lead to great rewards, the study conducted by O’Connor and little (2003) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and academic achievement in college students, using both self-report and ability-based measures of EI. Specifically, the Mayer, Salovey, Caruso’s Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT, an ability-based measure and the Bar-on Emotional Quotient (EQ-i.e.; self-report measure) were used to predict academic achievement. Achievement was operationalized as the respondents’ cumulative GPA. Results indicated that EI is not a strong predictor of academic achievement regardless of the type of instrument used to measure it. However, a construct validity examination revealed that the MSCEIT correlated highly with indices of cognitive ability but minimally with personality dimensions. In contrast, the EQ-i failed to correlate with indices of cognitive ability but correlated substantially with numerous dimensions.

Chan (2003) studied 259 gifted adolescents who were assessed on their emotional intelligence and social coping strategies using the Emotional Intelligence Scale and the Social Coping Questionnaire. An item factor analysis yielded four dimensions of emotional intelligence, leading to the construction of four empirical scales of emotional intelligence. Students scored most highly on social skills and self-management of emotions, followed by empathy, and utilization of emotions. In coping with their being gifted, students endorsed to different degrees their use of six coping strategies, which were valuing peer acceptance, involvement in activities, attempting avoidance, denying giftedness, prizing conformity, and discounting popularity. Social Skills emerged as the most important component of emotional intelligence predicting the use of strategies of valuing peer accepting and involvement in activities. Implications of the findings for enhancing emotional intelligence of adolescents in coping with problems arising from their being gifted are discussed.

Mayer, Salovey, Caruso and Sitarenios (2003) in their study on “Measuring Emotional Intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.O” asked the question “Does a recently introduced ability scale adequately measure emotional intelligence skills?” Using the Mayer-
Salovey-Caruso’s Emotional intelligence Test, the authors examined (i) whether members of a general standardization sample and emotions experts identified the same test answers as correct, (ii) the test’s reliability, and (iii) the possible factor structures of EI. Twenty-one emotion experts endorsed many of the same answers, as did 2112 members of the standardized sample and exhibited superior agreement. The MSCEIT achieved reasonable reliability and confirmatory factor analysis supported theoretical models of EI.

**Sharma and Sharma (2004)** studied the emotional competence in children and the results indicate that interpersonal world helps to animate their emotions to this texture and character to each child’s life. Sharma and Sharma (2004) also studied the emotional competence among 70 adolescents by discovering the varied understanding and use of emotions in children's everyday lives. Their developing awareness of emotions as means of describing oneself demonstrated the interplay of thought and feelings. Results indicated that interpersonal world helps to animate their emotions of this given texture and character to each child’s life.

**Sibia, Mishra and Srivastava (2004)** examined the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) in the Indian socio-cultural context. An attempt was made to discern the indigenous notion of EI based on the perspectives of people (parents, teachers and children) in the contemporary Indian society, where people exhibit a relational and context sensitive construct of self. Results indicate that Indian view of EI is embedded in its highly valued social concerns, virtues, cultural traditions and practices. These provide a frame for emotional learning and are therefore basic to the notion of EI. Responding to open ended questions, the participants (N=1047) described the emotional qualities desired by them in children and those required to be successful in life. The indigenous view of EI takes into cognizance such factors as social sensitivity, pro-social values, action tendencies of EI is context sensitive and focuses on the role of family and society in shaping one’s emotions. Hence results revealed that family and society play a major role in shaping one’s emotions.

**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. He further reported that emotional intelligence is extremely important because Indians have high alleviation need and emotional intelligence can lead to significant gain in productivity.

According to them, “Over the past several years, emotional intelligence (EI) has found increased acceptance as a factor that is potentially useful in understanding and predicting individual performance at work. The EI model is emerging as an influence
framework in psychology, because fields as varied as developmental, educational, clinical and counseling, social and industrial and organizational psychology are being enriched by it. Further, a major impetus of EI is tied in its potential real world applications, including the workplace, ethics, gerontology, and education. This study further analyses the broad array of issues concerning EI and the modalities of integrating them into the EI framework. It also highlights the importance of EI in the fast changing corporate environment brought about by unprecedented pace of globalization. The role of EI in the leadership development process and managing organizations has been analyzed. Educational influences on the mental schema have been looked into. Relevance and prevalence of EI to the Indian corporate setting has been investigated.

**Kailash, Srivastava and Bharamanaikar (2004)** examined the relationship of emotional intelligence with leadership effectiveness, success and job satisfaction. The data were collected from 291 Indian army officers using a structured interview schedule. Emotional intelligence (EI) was measured using work profile questionnaire and leadership effectiveness was assessed by MLQ-5X, where subordinates identified the leadership style. The results showed that EI significantly correlated with transformational leadership and success, but not with job satisfaction. EI also differed across age but not across rank or length of service. It seems that the top management and policy makers should use EI to identify and develop effective leaders.

**Pant and Prakash (2004)** evaluated the construct of Emotional Intelligence (EI) as assessed by the Multi-factor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). The performance on MEIS (N=60) was correlated with theoretically relevant criterion measures. Results revealed low reliabilities with mixed relationship between various subtests of the MEIS and no substantial gender differences on the various EI dimensions. The relationship between empathy and EI as well as social skills and EI were negative and nonsignificant. The results suggest that the EI construct is not a unique ability in the Indian sample as measured by the MEIS.

**Shailendra Singh (2004)** presented the findings of a study initiated for developing and standardizing a measure of Emotional Intelligence (EI). While writing the items, the study has followed Goleman’s (1998) model of EI competencies., i.e, five dimensions. Data were collected from managers (N=263) from various functional areas and representing a heterogeneous set of organizations. The scale was constructed and tested to examine the hypothesized positive relationship with three variables viz; organizational commitment, emotional expression and quality of life. The five dimensions of EI were positively correlated with organizational commitment, emotional expression and quality of life, suggesting
concurrent validity.

**Bhattacharya, Dutta, and Mandal (2004)** attempted to examine the factor structure of the construct of emotional intelligence in India. From a pool of 130 items drawn from various scales developed in western countries, 49 items were selected that were subjected to principal component factor analysis followed by varimax rotation. Analysis yielded five factors: appraisal of negative emotions, appraisal of positive emotions, interpersonal conflicts and difficulties, findings suggested that the construct of emotional inter-personal skills and flexibility, and goal-warding intelligence involve appraisal and experience of emotion for self and inter-personal situations in valence-specific terms in India.

**Pandey and Tripathi (2004)** investigated the developmental changes in emotional intelligence (EI) in a sample of 50 males and 50 females from five age groups (5-6 years, 8-9 years, 11-12 years, 14-15 years and 17-18 years). They completed the measure of EI consisting of identification of emotion, perception and recognition of emotion with probing, perception and recognition of emotion-without probing, understanding emotional meaning and emotion intensity rating. The results indicated that there was increase in EI with age and females were more proficient in managing and handling their own emotions as well as of others.

**Tiwari and Srivastava (2004)** investigated developmental changes in emotional intelligence (EI) on a sample of primary school children (N=270) They were drawn from different schools following a 2x3x3 factorial design, consisting of two gender groups (male/female), three types of medium of instruction (Hindi, English and Mixed) and three grades (third, fourth and fifth). EI was measured with the help of an abridged version of Schutte et.al. (1998) measure of emotional intelligence. In addition perceived environmental quality of home and school were also assessed. The results showed that gender had no significant main effect while medium of instruction and grade had significant main effects on all the three components of EI, i.e.; Expression and Appraisal, Regulation and Utilization of emotions. It was noted that the children attending English medium schools scored higher followed by Hindi and mixed medium school children, respectively. The older children of fifth grade scored higher than third and fourth grade children. It was found that perceived environmental quality of home as well as school was positively related to EI scores.

**Sinha and Jain (2004)** constructed a study of emotional intelligence and its influence on relevant outcomes. They reported that the dimensions of emotional intelligence were meaningfully related with the job satisfaction. Personal effectiveness, organizational commitment, reputation effectiveness, general health, trust, turnover intention, organizational
effectiveness and organizational efficiency.

The study conducted by **Zeidner, Shani-Zinovich, Mathews and Roberts (2005)** examined academically gifted (N=83) and non-gifted (N=125) high school students from Israel to compare mean emotional intelligence (EI) scores, various assessment procedures and relations between EI and ability, across different populations. Participants completed the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), the Schutte Self-Report Inventory (SSRI), and the Vocabulary subtest of the Hebrew version of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WISC-R-95). Gifted students scored higher on the MSCEIT, but lower on the SSRI. Findings suggest that individual differences are measure dependent, with the profile of scores variable across EI assessment procedures. Concepts assessed by the MSCEIT resemble a type of intelligence, whereas findings with the SSRI are problematic from this perspective.

**Ekta Sharma (2006)** in her study found significant differences in the emotional intelligence of academically high and low achievers adolescents in the form of high achiever group, falling in different groups of intelligence. Moreover, boys and girls do not differ significantly in dimensional and total emotional intelligence scores of school going adolescents irrespective of levels of achievement.

**Brackett and Salovey's study (2006)** examines the measurement instrument developed from the ability model of EI (Mayer and Salovey, 1997), the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT, 2000). The four subtests, scoring methods, psychometric properties, reliability and factor-structure of the MSCEIT are discussed with a special focus on the discriminant, convergent, predictive and incremental validity of the test. The authors review associations between MSCEIT scores and important outcomes such as academic performance, cognitive processes, psychological wellbeing, depression, anxiety, prosocial and maladaptive behaviour, and leadership and organizational behaviour. Findings regarding the low correlations between MSCEIT scores and self-report measures of EI are given.

**Varshney (2007)** studied that parental encouragement had a positive effect on emotional intelligence of boys and girls both without any gender discrimination.

**Singh, Chaudhary and Asthana (2008)** studied the impact of locate and gender on emotional intelligence of adolescents. The results reveal significant difference in emotional intelligence of rural and urban adolescents, indicating urban adolescents better than their rural counter parts. Male and female adolescents exhibit the same emotional intelligence.
Babu (2008) compared the emotional intelligence of students based on the problems experienced by them at home. The results show that students have an average emotional quotient and low level of family related psychological problems. Girls show more EI than boys. Among girls there is significant difference between high problem group and low problem group in their emotional intelligence.

Birol, Atamturk, Silman and Sensoy (2008) conducted a study to analyze emotional intelligence level of teachers employed in secondary schools of TRNC. The sample of the study comprises 253 teachers. The findings showed that the emotional intelligence level of teachers in the TRNC was found to be 79.2%. The study showed that as people grew older, their intelligence level increased. Besides seniority was another factor which positively affected their intelligence level. This study showed no significant difference between gender and emotional intelligence level. No significant difference was found between the education level of teachers and their emotional intelligence scores. The study also did not reveal any significance between teachers’ subject area and their emotional intelligence.

Salami & Ogundokun (2009) examined the predictive effect of emotional intelligence and academic self-efficacy on academic performance of students. The findings indicated that emotional intelligence and academic self-efficacy were potent predictors of academic performance of students.

Singh Gaurav and Kumar Girijesh (2009), conducted a research on secondary school teachers of convent schools and Saraswati schools to analyze their emotional intelligence. The research has indicated that emotional intelligence of teachers of convent schools and Saraswati School differs significantly. It is also observed that Saraswati School teachers are good in self-motivation, value orientation and commitment whereas convent school teachers are better on self-awareness, self development, managing relation, integrity and altruistic behaviour aspects of emotional intelligence.

Niradhar Dey (2009), examined the influence of emotional intelligence on academic self-efficacy and achievement of undergraduate students of Raipur Distt of Chhattisgarh state in India. The result demonstrated that emotional intelligence and academic self-efficacy significantly co-related with academic achievement. On the basis of findings, it is suggested that emotional intelligence should be integrated into undergraduate curriculum.

Many studies have revealed the importance of emotional intelligence on the scholastic achievement of the students. The study by Sthapak (2009) was undertaken to find out the effect of emotional intelligence on the scholastic achievement of the students and also to find out whether the emotional intelligence acts as the predictor of the scholastic achievement or
the vice-versa. The study was performed on 99 students of the B.E. IV year and the data were collected by the help of Mangal’s emotional intelligence inventory and their scholastic achievement was taken from their previous class’s annual results. Results revealed that there was significant relationship between the emotional intelligence and the scholastic achievement so the hypotheses was rejected. It proves that emotional intelligence plays a significant role in one’s scholastic achievement and also that the underachievers can benefit if they can improve their emotional competencies.

Gujjar, Naureen, Islam and Khattak (2009) study reports findings drawn from an amended version of Wong & Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLIS). 600 varsity students of Punjab from three universities were selected as the sample for the study. Gender wise, the male students and qualification wise the B.Sc degree holders were found significantly better than their counterparts. There were also some significant differences in terms of the university, the students were studying in. The study concludes that the emotional intelligence is positively correlated with age, gender, qualification as well as the educational institution the student is enrolled in.

Shrivastava and Mukhopadhyay (2009)'s investigation has assessed the levels of alienation and emotional intelligence of adolescents with internalizing symptoms. Multi-dimensional Assessment of Personality test was used as screening tool in the first phase. Total 510 adolescents in the age group of 14-18 years studying in various schools of Varanasi were screened for internalizing symptoms. Those who scored above the cut-off point were identified as the “affected group” having internalizing symptoms showing more than 6 symptoms, the sample showing 4-5 symptoms as “moderate group”, sample showing 1-2 symptoms as “mild group” and adolescents without internalizing symptoms were identified as “normal group”. Student Alienation Scale and Mangal Emotional Intelligence inventory were then administered to all the four groups each having 15 subjects for the final study. The result obtained from ANOVA revealed that the affected group is significantly alienated and emotionally immature in awareness and management compared to their comparative normal group.

Nandwana and Kushagre 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. The results showed that the more emotionally intelligent an adolescent is, more easily he bears the turmoil and pressures of this age group. The socio-cultural, economic and educational variables of tribal population operate as a limiting factor for adolescents to be emotionally intelligent.

**Estrella Esturgo-Deu and Josefina Sala-Roca (2010)** analyzed the relation between disruptive behaviors and emotional abilities of children in primary education, where disruptive behaviour and emotional abilities were evaluated in 1422 pupils aged between 6 and 12 years of age. No relation was found between disruptive behaviors and age, but one was found for sex and emotional abilities. Boys presented more disruptive behaviors than girls. However, there was a significant relation between disruptive behaviors and the general index of emotional intelligence. The most related abilities were stress management and interpersonal relations.

**Song Lynda Jiwan et al (2010)** conducted a study which considers the debate about whether emotional intelligence (EI) has incremental validity over and above traditional intelligence dimensions. It was proposed that EI and general mental abilities (GMA) differ in predicting academic performance and the quality of social interactions among college students. Using the college student samples, it was found that support for the notion that EI and GMA each have a unique power to predict academic performance and that GMA is the stronger predictor. However, the results also show that EI but not GMA, is related to the quality of social interactions with peers.

**Warwick, Nettelbeck and Ward (2010)** studied 272 undergraduates who completed the new Ability Emotional Intelligence Measure (AEIM). To facilitate better application of ability EI, limitations with existing measures were addressed via alternative emotion perception and management items, and a new scoring approach combining consensus and confidence protocols. Analyses of overall consensus and confidence scores, and low and high EI groups were undertaken. Confidence scores produced a single general EI component that was reliable, converged with fluid ability, were distinct from personality domains and incrementally predicted stress. Consensus scores produced a general EI and two-component solution. Consensus results converged with fluid and crystallized ability, and empathy, were distinct from the Big Five and incrementally predicted loneliness and GPA.

In the study conducted by **Mara and Mara (2010)** it was proposed to investigate aspects concerning the manifestation of the students’ emotional intelligence, namely the extent to which the adolescents possess a series of capacities proper to emotional intelligence. Wayne Leon Payne defines emotional intelligence as being the ability which implies a
A creative relation with states of anxiety, pain and desire. Emotion depends on the way a person analyzes and evaluates a certain situation. In order to determine the emotional intelligence quotient, it was used the emotional intelligence test for adults, in the version adapted by M.Rocco from R. Bar-on and D.Golman. The personality dimensions were determined using the E.P.P.I questionnaire. It has been proved that there is a connection between emotional intelligence and the development levels of some personality dimensions: extraversion, amiability, conscientiously, emotional stability and autonomy. There were obtained positive correlations between the emotional intelligence and the development level of the extraversion dimension, resulting the fact that a person emotionally intelligent has also an optimum development level of the extraversion dimension.

Maul Andrew (2011) stated that a series of studies over the past decades has examined empirical evidence of the validity of the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence test (MEIS) and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Scale (MSCEIT) concentrating in particular on whether these tests ‘s internal structures are consistent with the theory on which they are built. Such evidence has been equivocal and previous studies have noted the number of indicators per factor as an analytic limitation. The lack of evidence establishing convergence between the two tests has also been noted. This study seeks to (i) examine the convergence between these two tests of emotional intelligence (EI) and (ii) reexamine the factor structure of EI using an appropriate number of indicators per factor. A high degree of convergence between the two tests was found, but consistent with some previous studies, only partial support was found for the proposed factor structure of both tests. These findings were discussed in the context of the larger validity argument surrounding these tests and the emotional intelligence construct.

Fiori Marina and John Antonakis (2011) found that current measures of ability emotional intelligence (EI) in particular the well-known Mayer-Salovey-Caruse Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) - suffer from several limitations, including low discriminate validity and questionable construct and incremental validity. It is shown that the MSCEIT is largely predicted by personality dimensions, general intelligence and demographics having multiple R’s with MSCEIT branches up to 66; for the general EI factor, this relation was even stronger. As concerns the factor structure of the MSCEIT, support for four first-order factors was found, which had differential relations with personality, but no support for a higher – order global EI factor.

Kim Hyun Jeong and Jerome Agrusa (2011) ‘s study examines the relationship between emotional intelligence and three coping strategies (task, emotion, and avoidance-
oriented coping). The hierarchical regression indicates that EI is by the most dominant predictor of task coping among all selected explanatory variables. EI does not have much influence on emotion coping after the entry of two basic personality traits (neuroticism and extraversion), and EI is significantly related to avoidance coping encompassing distraction and social diversion. In addition, this study reveals the role played by age and work experience in individual coping efforts and a high possibility of female workers as a task-oriented coping in hospitality work settings.

MacCann Carolyn et al (2011) investigated that research examining the relationship between performance measures of emotional intelligence (EI), coping styles and academic achievement. In one of the studies, both EI and coping styles were significantly related to academic achievement. 159 community college students completed the MSCEIT and problem-focused, emotion-focused and avoidant coping scales. Collectively, the coping variables significantly mediated the relationship between EI and grade point average (GPA) for Emotion Perception, Emotion Facilitation of Thought and Emotion Management. Problem-focused coping was the only single significant mediator, mediating the relationship between emotion management and GPA. In the second study, 293 middle school students completed the situational Test of Emotion Management for Youths and scales measuring the same three coping strategies. In this study, the coping variables was a significant mediated the relationship between emotion management and GPA. Once again, problem-focused coping was a significant mediator. Collectively, these results suggest that better educational outcomes might be achieved by targeting skills relating to emotion management and problem-focused coping.

Sukhdeep (2011) in her recent study concluded that (i) There are differences between gifted and normal students on the different components and aspects of emotional intelligence. Gifted students are high on emotional intelligence as compared to non-gifted students; (ii) Sex differences on the different components of emotional intelligence are not found. Rural-urban differences are found in some components of emotional intelligence; (iii) Gifted and normal students do not differ on all the factors of emotional maturity. But sex differences on emotional maturity are observed; where males are less emotionally matured, (iv) Rural and urban differences on the emotional maturity in some of the factors are found; where urban students have been observed to be more emotionally matured,(v) Gifted students have been proved to be more emotionally competent than the normal children; though males and females have almost the same level of emotional competency. The same is the case with the rural-urban students, (vi) There is a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and locus
of control; as the three groups of students of high, medium and low LOC differed each other; whereas high group have more EI and low group less. It means that internally oriented students have high emotional intelligence and externally oriented students have low E.I. (vii) There is also a significant and positive relationship between emotional intelligence and self-confidence; as the high group of self-confidence students have more emotional intelligence than the low group.

Gurmail (2011) concluded in her study on the Emotional Intelligence of the Professional Students that (i) there are no sex differences on the five different components of emotional intelligence both in the professional and non-professional students, (ii) differences have been found between the professional and non-professional students only in the first three components and not on last two components of emotional intelligence, (iii) there is no relationship between emotional intelligence and abstract intelligence, as no differences are there on all the components as well as all the aspects of emotional intelligence of graduate students having three levels of verbal and non-verbal abstract intelligence, (iv) the relationship between emotional intelligence and social maturity has been established, as differences are found on the first, second, third and total components as well as all the aspects of emotional intelligence among the graduate students with different levels of social maturity; i.e.; high, medium and low.

From Rupinder’s recent study (2012), it was inferred that on emotional intelligence, (i) male and female students differed significantly; but not the rural and urban students. Male students have more emotional intelligence, (ii) Govt school students were higher on emotional intelligence than the private school students; (iii) the females were better on self-motivation and empathy whereas the males were better on social skills, (iv) the rural students were better on self-awareness, self-motivation and social skills than their urban counterparts.

Manmohan (2012) concluded in his study that there existed no differences on emotional intelligence between male and female teachers, rural and urban school teachers as well as teachers of govt and private schools. But Navdeep (2012) found that on emotional intelligence; male and female students differed on fourth component and total EI; but not on the first three components. Rural and urban students have differences on the first, fourth and total EI; but not on the second and third ones. But rural and urban students did not differ on almost all components.

Mohammad A.D & Mohammad R.S(2014) The study investigate the relationship between self –efficacy and emotional intelligence in 274 male and 283 female teachers of Saravan city. The result showed that self –efficacy has significant relationship with emotional
intelligence and its subscales (assessing emotions and regulation emotions) at 95% confidence level.

From the review it is clear that most of the studies show that an emotionally intelligent person is more successful, yet there are studies which show minimal evidence between emotional intelligence and effect at work. Ckaetsios and Loumakou (2007)’s studies reviewed on gender differences regarding emotional intelligence depict the same trend. Some studies like Amritha and Kadhiran (2006) show significant gender differences while the studies of Goleman (1998) and Kaur Amandeep (2010) found no significant gender differences regarding emotional intelligence.

2.2 STUDIES ON LOCUS OF CONTROL

Rotter's social learning theory (1954, 66) is the source of the concept of locus of control. The first measure of the constructs as an interpersonal variable was developed by Phares (1955), and was later revised by James (1957). Other measures followed shortly thereafter (Bialer, 1961, Grave 1961; Battle and Rotter 1963; Crandall, Kathovsky and Crandall 1965; and Rotter 1966)

There are conflicting theoretical positions with respect to the predicted relationship between locus of control and academic achievement. The first investigation to relate locus of control with achievement behaviour was reported by Crandall et.al. (1962). Mc. Ghee and Crandall (1968) found that in general, internals made better grades than externals.

William and Stephens (1968) revealed a negative relationship between externally and grades. Otten (1977) reported that internal locus of control was significantly related to greater academic achievement.

Mayer, David (1979) conducted a study "Academic achievement, self-concept in locus of control.” A casual analysis of longitudinal study" concludes that the locus of control and academic achievement analysis suggested the probability of reciprocal causality. The cross-legged panel correlation analysis revealed that locus of control to achievement casual relation was slightly stronger than the casual effect of achievement on locus of control.

Stipek, Deborah, Fry, Coe and Baljal (1980) in their studies reported that internal subjects showed significantly better academic achievement than externals.

Kesar (1980) found that achievement of internal subjects did not differ significantly with the external oriented subjects.

Allen, Edward John (1982) in a study reported that internal locus of control subjects
obtained higher mathematics, reading and language scores than external subjects, and there is no difference found between internal and external locus of control subjects on any achievement tests.

Callini and Kantorowski (1982) presented normative data on Rotter's Internal-External (I.E.) locus of control scale obtained from 183 female and 115 male under graduates from one same college population which examined that both sexes showed a trend toward greater externality over the fifteen years period between two testing. It was suggested that I.E. score may be viewed as an independent variable reflecting the events and experiences of an individual's life.

Rao and Murthy (1984) in their study 'Psychological correlates of locus of control among college students' revealed that high achievers were internal and there are sex differences; girls showing greater externality. They also reported that attitude was also significantly correlated with locus of control. Religion and socio-economic status also influence locus of control.

Rao and Murthy (1984) studied that significant sex differences existed in locus of control, females were more external. Chaudhary (1986) found that neuroticism was negatively correlated with internal locus of control for males and females and extraversion was positively correlated with internal locus of control for males only. For female, extraversion was positively correlated with internal locus of control significantly. The results of a study by DeMan and Devisse (1987) showed that alienation-withdrawal due to maladjustment to society-is related to low self esteem and an external locus of control. Long and Martinez (1994) investigated differences in self-esteem, self-acceptance, masculinity, femininity and locus of control among professional women. Dewan (1996) in her study found that criminals have higher external locus of control than the non-criminals.

McClelland, Robert (1991) said that gifted students in grades 6-9, found that general locus of control measures did not differentiate between the groups, that both scored significantly higher on positive internal than on negative internal locus of control and that there were no gender or grade effects.

Karnes, & Dillio (1991) investigated for 68 rural elementary gifted students, between ages 8 to 14 years. The scores became more internal with older ages, and the girls tended to have more internal locus of control across grades 2.

Haertel, Walberg al Wang, (1990) reported that capacity of individual to overcome personal vulnerabilities and environmental adversities effectively or the ability to thrive physically and psychologically despite adverse circumstances.
Luthar (1991) finds that when people believe that they are powerless to control what happens to them, they become passive and restrictive in coping abilities. On the other hand, when individuals believe that events and outcomes are controllable, learned helplessness is avoided, and instead, active attempts are made to overcome adverse situations.

Archer (1994) studied on 893 college students in Australia and said in his report that learning oriented students showed a much more positive attitude towards their studies and was more likely to choose a difficult task to complete than their performance oriented colleagues who opted for more easy tasks.

Burley, Turner and Vitulli, (1994) found the positive relationship between learning oriented students and adaptive achievement oriented behaviors. It was also found that older students were more likely to be learning oriented and younger students are more performance oriented.

Sowa, McIntyre, May and Bland (1994) found that gifted children as young as nine years have been seen to spontaneously use cognitive appraisal strategies, including problem focused strategies and emotion focused strategies (only previously seen in adults) to deal with stress.

Knight, Bruce Allen (1995) in one study of gifted students investigated that the gifted students perceptions of an internal or external locus of control (LOC) and the effect on their behaviour. Research shows that gifted students who are proficient academically or in other areas believe that they have an internal locus of control, while underachieving gifted students who perceive an external locus of control.

Karnes, Frances, Mcainnis, &. Christopher (1996) study on self-actualization and locus of control in 59 academically gifted adolescents using the reflections of self by youth and the nowicki Strickland locus of control scale for children. They were found no significant gender or grade differences, though locus of control scores they were found that high - achieving students tend to have a more internal locus of control.

Killick, Lawrence Allen (1999) had researched to study the relationship between gender, ethnicity and locus of control among gifted adolescents. This study examined a group of 67 gifted grade 8 students, 41 Asian - Canadian and 26 Caucasian, who received the intellectual achievement responsibility (IAR) questionnaire. A two factor A1 ANOVA, with gender and ethnic background as independent factors, was used to examine the relationship between positive (7+) and negative (7-) internal locus of control, gender and ethnicity. The results showed a significant gender X ethnicity interaction, Caucasian females are more internal LOC orientation than Caucasian males, where as among students of Asian descent,
males are more internal than females. Follow-up ANOVA indicated that these differences are accounted for primarily by the 7+ variables; a significant tendency was also noted for Caucasian students to score higher on 7+ and lower on 7- variables than Asian descended students.

**Dole (2000)** reported on the study of gifted children that they display characteristics of resilience, not all gifted children are successful and a lack of resilience is often connected with that lack of success. This is particularly noticeable in gifted students with learning disabilities whose characteristics often "include poor self concept, poor self-efficacy, hypersensitivity, emotional ability and high levels of frustration, anxiety and self criticism."

**Mans (2000); Hattie, Marsh, Neil and Richards, (1997)** found that at least to some extent, LOC is a response to circumstances. Some psychological and educational interventions have been found to produce shifts towards internal locus of control.

**Mamlin, Harris & Case (2001)** state that males tend to be more internal than females. They further add that as people get older they tend to become more internal people.

**Terje Manager & Ove Johan Eikeland (2001)** found that girls had significantly higher total internal locus of control scores than boys. Boys were, however, significantly more internally oriented than girls on a subscale related to the respondents general belief in luck, while girls were significantly more internally oriented than boys on a school effect scale.

**Prufrock & Cross (2004)** found by studying 5,723 gifted adolescents, the most common personality types among gifted adolescents were those higher up in organizational structures who tend to be more internals, "intuitive" and perceiving." They were higher on introversion, intuition, thinking and perceiving dimensions of the personality scales of the Myers-Briggs type indicator (MBTI) when compared to general high school students. Also, gifted adolescents differed within the group by gender and by ability.

**Schutttz and Schutttz (2005)** point out significant differences in locus of control which have not been found for adults in a U.S. population. They further said that there may be a specific sex based differences for specific categories of item to assess locus of control. For example, they cite evidence that men have a greater internal locus of control for questions related to academic achievement.

**Michele Marie Moore (2006)** reports by studying achieving gifted (AG), under achieving gifted (UAG), and non gifted (NG) students that under achieving gifted students were more externally oriented than achieving gifted students. She further adds that non gifted students were more externally controlled than achieving gifted students. In regard to
underachievers, males were more externally controlled than females.

**Sukhdeep (2011)** in her study on Emotional Intelligence of Gifted Students in relation to their Locus of control and Self-Efficacy” concluded that gifted children differed with normal children on the internal and not on external locus of control; where gifted students were better on the internal locus of control than the non-gifted students. No sex differences were there on either external or internal LOC and no differences were found on both LOC between rural and urban students. She also found a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and locus of control, where the internally oriented students have high emotional intelligence and externally oriented students have low E.I.

**Rupinderjit (2012)** in her study found that the male students were more internally oriented than the females. There was no difference on locus of control on the basis of location of schools. But the private school students have more internal LOC than Govt School students. No significant differences were found between internally and externally oriented students on all components of emotional intelligence whether they were male or female, rural or urban and Govt. or private school students.

**Daodu, M.A (2015)** The study examined the composite emotional intelligence and locus of control as predictors of counsellors’ efficacy among 396 male and female school counsellors of Lagos state, Nigeria. The research shows that emotional intelligence and LOC have significant relationship to school counsellor terms of making decisions, solving problems, planning and organizing programmes that are consistent with behaviours of professional counsellors. The study also reveals that emotional intelligence and LOC are essential in enhancing counsellors’ preparedness and discharge of duties while dealing with clients.

Locus of control was very extensively researched in relation to general cognition, social and political activism, mutual aid, birth control, health care etc., by literally scores of researchers. Research and theoretical literature indicates that locus of control construct is an important psychological variable and a personality dimension which appears to differentiate individuals according to a generalized belief or expectancy attitude about control, that this expectancy can be measured and that these measures are predictive of behavior in a variety of circumstances.

In a report on equality of educational opportunity it was demonstrated that locus of control was a better predictor of behavior than any other attitudinal, familiar school and teacher variable studied (Coleman, 1966). Reported research findings on ‘locus of control’
has provided to be extremely useful in the prediction of a variety of behavior. Its significance is revealed in a variety of predictive areas including attempts at controlling the environment (Davis & Phares, 1967), social influence (Ritchie & Phares, 1969), risk taking (Liverant and Scodal, 1960), socio-cultural phenomena (Battle and Rotter, 1963), etc. Relationship found between locus of control and certain important social variables have no doubt contributed significantly to its present popularity as a research variable.

2.3 STUDIES ON SELF-EFFICACY

The general research studies on self-efficacy are grounded in one of the two theoretical orientations. One orientation is Rotter's (1966) social learning theory of internal versus external control. According to this conceptualization, internally controlled students believe that they are competent to manage and have control over their adjustment difficulties, whereas externally controlled students believe that the environment has more influence on their adjustment. The second orientation is Bandura's (1977) social-cognitive theory and his construct of self-efficacy. According to this conceptualization, students with perceived self-efficacy are students who hold optimistic self-beliefs that they can change behaviors by personal action.

Black-burn & Erickson, (1986); Pfeiffer and stocking (2000); Pirto, (1992), Robinson and Nobre, (1991), Webb (1993) reported that gifted and talented students, despite their generally high cognitive abilities, are not immune to social and emotional problems.

Jones (1986) found that job-related self-efficacy contributed to the political skill necessary cope with strain relationships inside an organization.

Frank Gresham, Sally Evans, Stephen N. Elliott (1988) assessed the academic and social self-efficacy beliefs of mainstreamed mildly handicapped gifted and non-handicapped gifted, and non handicapped students in regular education classrooms. Mainstreamed mildly handicapped students report lower academic and social self-efficacy than their non-handicapped and gifted peers. No difference in academic self-efficacy were reported between gifted and non handicapped students, however gifted students reported lower social self-efficacy beliefs than non handicapped students.

Gross; Pfeiffer and Stocking (1989) reported that for the very high gifted students, they might even feel more different from their non-gifted age peers, and find it difficult to belong to an appropriate peer group and feel accepted by peers within the desired group.

Bandura (1995) reported self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think
and act. In terms of feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety and helplessness. Such individuals also have low self esteem and harbor pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal development.

The majority of academically or intellectually gifted students have been attested to be at least as well adjusted and perhaps better adjusted than their non gifted peers, end they generally do not experience depression, suicidal ideation, or anxiety more often than do non gifted peers (Reynolds and Bradley, 1983; Scholwin Ski and Reynolds, 1985; Derevensky and Coleman, 1989; Baker, 1995; Parker, 1996).

Schwarzer (1992, 1994); Maddux, (1995); Bandura (1997) found that a strong sense of personal efficacy is related to better health, higher achievement and more social integration.

Sharon Andrew and Wirma Vialle (1998) showed one connection between personalised self-efficacy and productivity. They studied the academic achievements of students involved in Science classes in Australia and found that students with high levels of self-efficacy show a boost in academic performance compared to those who reported low-self-efficacy.

Mc Writer (1999) reported that self-efficacy acts as a moderator of sensitivity and interpersonal communication especially among young people.

Yuehua Tong, Shanggui Song (2004) examined the characteristics of general self-efficacy and subjective well being and their relations in low SES college students in China. 102 low SES college students and 164 regular college students were administered a general self-Efficacy scale and index of well being, index of general self-efficacy and subjective well being. Significant gender difference was not found. Individual with stronger general self-efficacy reported that low SES college students had significantly positive correlation with General Affect, Life satisfaction and well being. Research result indicated that SES had an important effect on general self - efficacy and subjective well-being. General self-efficacy was positively related to subjective well being. Michael E. Jung & Baverly J.Dretzke (2004) studied the gifted/talented high school students. They completed the Mathematical Self-Efficacy scale, an instrument developed by Betz and Hackett (1983). Items in the scale asked the students to indicate their degree of confidence regarding successful completion of everyday mathematics tasks, number

sequences, mathematics - based college courses, and mathematics problems. The
mean self-efficacy rating given on the items were analyzed for significant gender differences. Results indicated that males had stronger self-efficacy expectations than females on more than one fourth items, whereas females reported stronger self-efficacy expectations on only a few items of the involved stereotypical female activities.

**Rishi, Purva J. (2007)** examined the influence of academic self-efficacy and social support on the academic success of Indian-American and Caucasian-American undergraduate students. The study showed that academic self-efficacy had a significant effect on college grade point averages for Caucasians, but not for Indians. Regarding social support, the equality of mentoring relationships was found to be twice as high for Indians than Caucasians. The results of the study support theories that highlight the importance of social support on Indian's academic success and of academic self-efficacy on Caucasians' academic success.

**Sukhdeep (2011)** in her study concluded that gifted students have been found to be more self-confident than the normal ones; where as no differences on self-confidence were found on the basis of sex and location of schools. Moreover there was also a significant and positive relationship between emotional intelligence and self-confidence; as the high group of self-confidence students has more emotional intelligence than the low group.

**Conclusion**

From the above quoted reviews, it becomes quite clear that studies regarding Emotional intelligence, Locus of control and perceived self-efficacy in related to teachers in service and teacher under training is sparse. So an attempt was made to review and study the relativity of above said variables in the field of pre service and in service teaching.