CHAPTER-II
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Emotional Intelligence

The term Emotional Intelligence (El) is a popular terminology in the present day world and widely used almost everywhere, even in places where it is quite inappropriate. A lot of academic research is currently focused in the area of emotional intelligence and analyzing its influence on individual's performance in personal and professional life. The word Emotional Intelligence was originally coined by Salovey and Mayer (1990) to describe qualities like understanding one's own emotions, empathy 'for feelings of others', and managing one's emotions. The sustained interest in the topic began with the publication of two important articles in 1990 by these authors. Later the concept was popularized by Goleman (1995) with the publication of his bestselling book titled 'Emotional Intelligence'. Since then, a large number of academicians, researchers and trainers started working on the concept of emotional intelligence. The topic of emotional intelligence and the contributions of the researchers in the field had attracted wide media coverage, culminating, perhaps, when Time Magazine asked the question "What's your EQ?" on its cover, and stated, "It's not your IQ. It's not even a number. But emotional intelligence may be the best predictor of success in life, redefining what it means to be smart" (Time, 1995).

The literature in this emerging concept contains a range of terminology, which can tend to be confusing and includes the terms emotional intelligence as mentioned by (Salovey and Mayer 1990, Goleman, 1995), emotional literacy (Steiner, 1997), emotional quotient (Goleman, 1995, 1997; Cooper, 1997), personal intelligences (Gardner,

1993), social intelligence (Thorndike, 1920) interpersonal intelligence (Gardner and Hatch, 1989) etc.

Emotional intelligence is concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Emotional intelligence is tactical (immediate functioning), while cognitive intelligence is strategic (long term capacity). Emotional intelligence helps to predict success because it reflects how a person applies knowledge to the immediate situation. In a way, emotional intelligence is the reflection of one's "common sense" and ability to get along in the world (Bar-On, 1997).

Emotional intelligence represents an ability to validly reason with emotions and to use emotions to enhance thought. Emotional intelligence is increasingly relevant to organisational development and developing people, because the EQ principles provide a new way to understand and assess people's behaviours, management styles, attitudes, interpersonal skills, and potential. Emotional intelligence is an important consideration in human resources planning, job profiling, recruitment interviewing and selection, management development, customer relations and customer service, and more.

The roots of emotional intelligence follow the lines of the intelligence testing movement. Thorndike (1920) acknowledged there are multiple intelligences and social intelligence is one of them. Social intelligence was problematic from its inception because it is inherently difficult to measure. Examining humans in interactions is a much more difficult task than measuring the cognitive abilities of an individual solving a mathematical problem. Despite the challenges, researchers still made efforts to measure social intelligence. Thorndike and Stern (1937)

reviewed these attempts and concluded social intelligence was composed of three components: attitude toward society, social knowledge, and degree of social adjustment. They also determined social intelligence was too complex to be measured and the difficulties inherent in measuring interactions with people were too large an obstacle to overcome.

The field of psychology's emphasis on behaviorism and IQ testing resulted in social intelligence essentially being ignored during the coming decades, despite Weschler's (1952) acknowledgment of the "affective capacities" of individuals when he developed his first intelligence test. The recognition of social intelligence received a major boost by Gardner (1983) when his highly regarded theory of intelligence was published referencing two types of personal intelligence: interpersonal and intrapersonal. The term, emotional intelligence, was first mentioned in a doctoral dissertation nearly 20 years ago (Payne, 1985). This qualitative study proposed one can overcome deficiencies in emotional functioning and regulation by showing strength in the face of fear or desire. Three years later, another dissertation referred to the "emotional quotient," which is the term commonly used today to refer to an individual's emotional intelligence score (Bar-On, 1988).

Researchers Mayer and Salovey (1990) conducted research a few years later which attempted to answer why some individuals were better at reading emotions than others (Mayer, DiPaolo, and Salovey, 1990). It was in this study where they first published the term emotional intelligence. Mayer and Salovey followed with a second study shortly thereafter that proposed the first model of emotional intelligence and brought its attention to the research community (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

The awareness of emotional intelligence brought about by Goleman's book also fueled much research that was subsequently published during the second half of the 1990s. One of the biggest complaints surrounding emotional intelligence upon its inception was the lack of research to support its validity. Indeed, this skepticism was well founded at the time because emotional intelligence was thrust into the public eye by Goleman's (1995) book that was largely theoretical. Some skepticism continues today, criticizing the methodology of the flood of research during the last seven years.

2.1.1 Taxonomy of Emotional Intelligence

While there are three predominant emotional intelligence taxonomies in widespread use today, the Goleman (2002) taxonomy offers a four-part structure which focuses on an individual's ability to understand his or her own emotions and emotional state, to manage and regulate responses to these emotions, to recognize the emotional state of others, and to respond to the emotions present in others to interact effectively. Although it follows the same theoretical foundation and structure of the other models, Goleman *et al.,* (2002) model is designed for application in organizational theory, research and practice. This framework operates under the assumption that it can be used to develop the effectiveness of individuals in the workplace and in leadership positions (Goleman, 2001).

Personal competence encompasses an individual's capacity to manage himself or herself. Therefore, it includes both self-awareness and self-management (Goleman *et al.,* 2002). Self-awareness includes emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence. Self-management consists of emotional self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement, initiative and optimism. Social competence is

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a factor that includes an individual's capability to manage relationships. Social competence is composed of both social awareness and relationship management (Goleman *et al.,* 2002). Social awareness includes empathy, organizational awareness, and service. Relationship management comprises inspirational leadership, influence, developing others, catalyzing change, managing conflict and teamwork and collaboration.

Most models of emotional intelligence support both personal and social competencies (Bar-On, 2000; Bar On, 2006; Goleman, *et al.,* 2002; Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Brackett and Salovey, 2006). Thus far, only one large-scale study has sought to confirm the structure of Goleman's model of emotional intelligence. This study looked at 596 respondents to the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), a multi-rater measure of emotionally intelligent behavior, in multiple industries. Findings suggested strong support for a model of emotional intelligence based upon personal and social competence (Boyatzis, *et al.,* 2000), but the study did not support splitting the taxonomy into additional skills.

2.1.2 Emotional Intelligence and Performance

Emotional intelligence has been linked to numerous important organizational outcomes and is frequently studied as a correlate with performance (Boyatzis, 2006; Goleman, 1995, 2001 and 2002). The findings linking emotional intelligence to leadership performance are highly important. However, the significance of the emotional intelligence construct is truly felt only when one considers that, unlike other predictors of success such as general intelligence, emotional intelligence can be learned. Studies conducting emotional intelligence training with university students show a marked increase in emotional intelligence measured by a pre- and post-test measure (Ashkanasy, 2001; Clark,

Callister, and Wallace, 2002). This finding has also been observed with leaders in corporate settings (Sala, 2001b; Young and Dixon, 1996). A follow-up study of increase in emotional intelligence as a result of direct learning efforts has revealed the maintenance of changes as long as seven years after the intervention (Wheeler, 1999).

Emotional intelligence is an excellent correlate of job success for leaders. Sosik and Megerian (1999) found leaders high in emotional intelligence outperformed their low emotional intelligence counterparts when measured by organizational performance data. Other carefully conducted studies have correlated emotional intelligence with performance on job-related cognitive ability tasks (Graves, 1999; Lam and Kirby, 2002). Perhaps the strongest evidence to date for the utility of emotional intelligence for predicting on-the- job success for leaders comes from a study by Cavallo and Brienza (2002). This study assessed the leadership behavior of 358 leaders at Johnson and Johnson Corporation, at locations across the globe. The study found the best performers were those high in emotional intelligence as rated by their supervisors, peers, and subordinates in the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), a 360-degree feedback instrument based upon Goleman's (2001) model. Emotional intelligence competencies that were the best predictors of success in this study were self-confidence, achievement orientation, initiative, leadership, influence and catalyzing change.

2.1.3 Historical Roots of the Concept 'Emotional Intelligence'

When psychologists began to write and think about intelligence, they focused on cognitive aspects, and the traditional definitions of intelligence emphasized only cognitive aspects such as memory and problem-solving.

However, in the 1900's there were several influential researchers who recognized the importance of the non-cognitive aspects. Thorndike (1920), Professor of Educational Psychology at Columbia University Teachers College, was one of the first to identify the aspect of emotional intelligence, for which he called *Social Intelligence.* He used the term social intelligence to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people.

According to Thorndike (1920) three different types of intelligence are there. The first type is Abstract Intelligence: the type that is measured in IQ tests that is understanding and manipulating verbal and mathematical concepts. The second, which he gave the name of Concrete Intelligence: the type that helps in understanding and manipulating objects and shapes. The third type, Social Intelligence, was in the area of what we call emotional intelligence. Thorndike defined it as the ability to understand and relate to people. He says (1920) Social Intelligence is "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls - to act wisely in human relations". It is an ability that "shows itself abundantly in the nursery, on the playground, in barracks and factories and sales rooms, but it eludes the formal standardized conditions of the testing laboratory". The social intelligence is clearly an asset in any type of teamwork.

Thorndike and Stern (1937) reviewed the attempts to measure the social intelligence and could not succeed much in the attempt. They concluded their effort that "the social intelligence is a complex of several different abilities, or a complex of an enormous number of specific social habits and attitudes."

In 1935 Doll, an Australian psychologist, devised a structured interview called the Vineland Social Maturity Scale to assess social

competence, which gave an SQ (social quotient) score to indicate the level of social maturity of the individual. It was forty-five years later that a clinical psychologist, Bar-On, pursued this line of research (Bharwaney, 2008).

Similarly, Wechsler (1940) explained the influence of nonintellective factors on intelligent behaviour. By non-intellective, he meant affective, personal and social factors. Wechsler (1943) was proposing that the nonintellective abilities are essential for predicting one's ability to succeed in life. He had the opinion that the measure of total intelligence would not be complete until our tests also include some measure of the non intellective factors (cited in Cherniss 2004). After this there were not many initiatives or studies that had not been taken place in the area for a few decades. This period had been dominated by the behaviourist paradigm and IQ testing movement.

It was Leeper (1948) who made a small but important contribution to the early work of Wechsler (1940), in studying 'emotional thought'. He found that emotions 'arouse, sustain and direct activity'. He proposed that 'emotional thought' was part of, and contributes to, 'logical thought' and intelligence in general. It was another thirty-five years before Gardner helped to broaden the view of aspects of 'intelligence' in the twentieth century (cited in Bharwaney, 2008).

It was Gardner (1975) who played a decisive role in bringing back the concept of emotional intelligence once again to the lime light. In 1975, Gardner's *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences* introduced the idea of Multiple Intelligences which included two varieties of personal intelligences, the *Interpersonal intelligence* (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and the *Intrapersonal intelligence* (the capacity to understand oneself, to

appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations). These two intelligences comprise social intelligence. Emotional intelligence represents the active and intentional use of emotional knowledge to achieve desired behavioural results. The underpinnings of the construct can be found in theories of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983, 1991 cited in Deeter-Schmelz and Sojka, 2003), which suggest that individuals differ in the way they approach problem solving and learning. Consistent with these theories two types of intelligence have been aligned closely with El: interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence.

Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other people; what motivates them, how to work cooperatively with them. Successful sales people, politicians, teachers, clinicians, and religious leaders are all likely to be individuals with high degrees of interpersonal intelligence.

According to Goleman (1995) interpersonal intelligence refers to an individual's ability to react to other's emotions, and includes both the ability to empathise and to perceive others' emotions. Intrapersonal intelligence is a correlative ability, turned inward. It is a capacity to form an accurate, veridical model of oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life. In other words intrapersonal intelligence relates to perceiving one's own emotions, and comprises self-awareness, self-regulation and self-motivation.

Emotional intelligence, on the other hand, "is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Mayer and Salovey, 1993).

One of the most significant emotional intelligence breakthroughs took place in 1980, when the American born Israeli Psychologist. Bar-On began his work in the field. He developed perhaps the first attempt to assess emotional intelligence in terms of a measure of well-being. He was perplexed by a number of basic questions. Why, he wondered, do some people possess greater emotional well being? Why some are better able to achieve success in life? And, most important, why do some people who are blessed with superior intellectual abilities seem to fail in life, while others with more modest gifts succeed? By 1985, he thought he had found a partial answer in what he called a person's Emotional Quotient (EQ) an obvious parallel to the long standing measures of cognitive and rational abilities that we know as IQ, or intelligence quotient (cited in Jermy Geiser 2001). Bar-On (1988) in his doctoral dissertation used the term *'Emotional quotient'* ("EQ") long before the concept gained widespread popularity as a name for emotional intelligence and before Salovey and Mayer had published their first model of emotional intelligence.

The first use of the term "Emotional Intelligence" is usually attributed to Payne's (1985) doctoral thesis, *A study of emotion: Developing emotional intelligence.* This seems to be the first academic use of the term emotional intelligence.

The most significant contribution to the development of the El theory in its current form was made by Salovey and Mayer (1990) with the publication of the seminal article "Emotional Intelligence". Salovey and Mayer's original Model (1990) identified emotional intelligence as the "ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action". It is to be noted that they were aware of the previous work on non-cognitive aspects of intelligence and described

emotional intelligence as 'a form of social intelligence'. According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotional intelligence subsumes Gardner's inter and intrapersonal intelligences, and involves abilities that may be categorized into five domains:

1. Self-awareness
2. Managing emotions
3. Motivating oneself
4. Empathy
5. Handling relationships

The concept of emotional intelligence has been theorized as being critical for effective functioning and providing enhanced personal well-being and growth (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Although attempts to measure emotional intelligence have been numerous and there have been some important advances in the use of ability measures, Salovey and Colbs. developed an earlier self-report approach to assess relevant aspects of individuals' perception of their emotional competencies (Mayer and Stevens, 1994; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, and Palfai, 1995). One of the most widely used self-report measures with regard to emotional intelligence is the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS). This measure taps into what researchers have termed Perceived Emotional Intelligence, or the knowledge individuals have about their own emotional abilities as opposed to actual capacity or capacity of mental abilities (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler, and Mayer, 1999; Salovey, *et al.,* 2002). In particular, the TMMS is a measure of beliefs concerning one´s own emotional attention (perceived attention paid to one´s own emotional states), Clarity (perceived understanding of one´s emotional states), and emotional repair (perceived ability to regulate one´s emotional states).

These meta-mood dimensions have been suggested to reflect a three-phase functional sequence (Martínez-Pons, 1997). Specifically, it is assumed that (1) some degree of attention to feelings is needed (2) for a clear understanding of emotions and, consequently, (3) that the capacity to repair negative moods and emotions would not be possible without some level of emotional clarity. Evidences for this proposed functional sequence have been found using path analytic methodology (Martínez-Pons, 1997; Palmer, *et al.,* 2003).

With respect to predictive validity, growing empirical evidences have showed that TMMS is associated with higher life satisfaction (Martinez-Pons, 1997), better subjective happiness (Extremera, *et al.,* 2011), greater optimism (Extremera, Durán, and Rey, 2007), increased self-esteem (Schutte, *et al.,* 2002), use of more adaptive coping strategies and higher social problem-solving ability (Saklofske, *et al.,* 2007; Pena, Extremera, and Rey, 2011) and better outcomes with regard to one's health and meaningful life (Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal, 2006; Shulman and Hemenover, 2006).

There is also extensive literature demonstrating that perceived emotional intelligence measured by the TMMS is related to a number of aspects of positive well-being (Fernández *et al.,* 2008). For example, Palmer, Donaldson, and Stough (2002) examined the predictive validity of components of TMMS concerning prediction of life satisfaction over and above both positive and negative effect. The authors found that the Clarity subscale accounted for further variance in life satisfaction not accounted for by positive and negative effect. Other studies have found that emotional repair is the most important predictor of emotional well-being (Thompson, *et al.,* 2007). Similar findings suggest significant associations between perceived emotional intelligence measured by the TMMS and psychological well-being independent from well-known mood

state constructs and personality traits in college students (Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal, 2005; Shulman and Hemenover, 2006).

Despite the findings mentioned before about emotional abilities and well-being in adults, the empirical research in emotional intelligence pertaining to adolescence is still in an early stage. Few studies have examined the role of emotional intelligence in the wide spectrum of positive and negative functioning outcomes in adolescence. However, some preliminary evidences suggest that emotional intelligence is also critical for effective emotional functioning in youth and adolescence. Using adolescents as a sample, some research has reported that those adolescents with high perceptions of emotional abilities assessed by TMMS (in particular, high mood clarity and emotional repair) generally show higher life satisfaction and lower perceived stress after the effect of dispositional optimism/pessimism were statistically controlled for (Extremera *et al.,* 2007). Similar results have been obtained between TMMS dimensions and reduced levels of anxiety and depression in adolescents (Fernández *et al.,* 2006; Williams, *et al.,* 2004).

Beyond this direct link between emotional intelligence and well-being, many potential mechanisms have been theorized through which emotional intelligence might work to enhance well-being and adaptive coping (Mathews, *et al.,* 2002). One characteristic considered as a relevant mediator might be self-esteem.

Self-esteem is described as a global feeling of self-worth or adequacy as a person (Baumeister, 1993), or generalized feelings of self-acceptance, goodness and self-respect (Rosenberg, 1965). Numerous evidences exist that self-esteem is positively related to emotional functioning, including several predictors of life satisfaction (Moreno, *et al.,* 2009) and subjective happiness (Lyubomirsky, *et al.,* 2006), or is

even negatively related to psychological maladjustment indicators such as depression (Tennen and Herzberger, 1987) or anxiety in response to acute stressors (Greenberg *et al.,* 1992). In general, believing in oneself as good and worthy provides a setting for effective personal functioning in young adults and adolescents. In addition, some support has been found for the mediational role of self-esteem in studies on the relationship between personality traits and dimensions with similar conceptual content such as life satisfaction, general well-being, depression or social support (Chang, 2001; Çivitci and Çivitci, 2009; Estévez, *et al.,* 2008).

As suggested by Schutte *et al.,* (2002), individuals with higher emotional intelligence use their ability to understand and regulate emotions to resist situational threats. Theoretically, these individuals should be better able to maintain a positive mood when appropriate, and effectively repair a distressed mood when faced with negative events. This emotional ability may enable them to maintain higher levels of self-esteem and perception of self-worth or value. In line with this view, Schutte *et al.,* (2002) found that higher emotional intelligence was associated with an increase in positive mood state and higher state self-esteem. Individuals with higher emotional intelligence also showed less of a decrease in positive mood and self-esteem after a negative state. Similarly, Salovey *et al.,* (2002) found in a cross-sectional study that perceived ability to attend to moods and, specifically, mood clarity and skills at mood repair, were positively associated with self-esteem. In samples concerning adolescents, several studies have corroborated these findings in which high scores in perceived emotional intelligence were correlated positively to perceptions of self-worth (Ciarrochi, *et al.,* 2001). In particular, mood clarity and emotional repair showed higher correlations with self-esteem (Fernández-Berrocal *et al.,* 2006).

Therefore, in analyzing a mediation model in which high self-esteem is conceptually viewed as a causal mechanism accounting for the link between perceived emotional intelligence and life satisfaction, one may consider how, as emotionally intelligent adolescents believe they have the resources to employ the strategies necessary to repair negative moods as well as to maintain positive moods when appropriate, they might reflect a higher sense of self-worth and self-respect. This, in turn, might lead to increased satisfaction in different areas of life (for example family, friends and living environment). Accordingly, Bednar, *et al.,* (1989) have suggested that one's level of self-esteem is the outcome of a self-evaluative affective process. In particular, when people feel they are doing well, they feel good about themselves and have higher self-esteem. The findings of Schutte *et al.,* (2002) suggest that abilities to understand and regulate moods may, in part, facilitate the positive affect necessary for this self-evaluative process. Hence, the assessment of self-esteem as potential mediator of the link between perceived emotional intelligence and life satisfaction among adolescents seems to be warranted.

The concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI) has generated a broad interest both in the lay (Goleman, 1995) and scientific fields (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990), overshadowing other less spectacular classical psychological concepts, such as personality, or even a concept having bad press as IQ (Grewald and Salovey, 2005; Sternberg, 2002).

There are several sociological and epistemological reasons to explain the fast and wide diffusion of the term emotional intelligence in professional fields. One of these reasons regards the acknowledgement made by professionals of the importance and relevance of emotions and feelings for their work outcomes. In this sense, emotional intelligence has become a satisfactory and appropriate theoretical scaffold within

organizational and educational fields to organize their everyday work, both for evaluative and formative tasks (Caruso and Salovey, 2004; Feldman-Barret and Salovey, 2002). However, this fast and wide diffusion of the term emotional intelligence in the lay, and, specially, in applied fields such as education and organizations, has oversimplified the concept and generated expectations of results beyond scientific data available to date as a cost (Matthews, *et al.,* 2002; Mayer, 1999).

2.2 Current Theoretical Models of Emotional Intelligence

A review of the literature focusing on the models of emotional intelligence during the last fifteen years allows different classifications of the construct, but these classifications are, in some sense, compelling and complementary. As a first division we could distinguish several approaches following the publication of Goleman's book (1995). These are pseudo-scientific proposals with a noticeably commercial intention, and with divulgation rather than scientific purposes (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Elías, *et al.,* 1999; Shapiro, 1997; Weisinger, 1997).

On the other hand, as a second division, we distinguish those scientific models which propose a theoretical explanation of their components. These models are based on the review of previous literature, conduct controlled empirical studies to validate them, and use measurement instruments developed with this purpose (Bar-On, 1997; Boyatzis, *et al.,* 2000; Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

These theoretical approaches have guided current lines of research. In general, these approaches try to discover the emotional components that underlie emotionally intelligent people and the mechanisms and processes that set off the use of these abilities in our everyday life. Currently, there are three theoretical approaches accepted by the scientific community, these are: the emotional intelligence ability

model by (Mayer and Salovey 1997; Brackett and Salovey, 2006), Bar-On's Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI) model (1997; Bar-On, 2006), and the emotional competencies model focused on the workplace (Goleman, 1998; 2001; and Boyatzis, 2006).

The emotional intelligence ability-based model (Mayer and Salovey, 1997) Reviewing the literature on emotional intelligence, one finds that Mayer and Salovey's mental ability model is the theoretical approach that has generated the largest number of researches (Matthews *et al.,* 2002; Geher, 2004). The interest of the scientific community for this model is based on several reasons: 1) the solid and justified theoretical base, 2) the novelty of the measurement compared to other approaches, and 3) its systematic evaluation and support by empirical data obtained from basic and applied fields. Moreover, the critics of the concept consider Mayer and Salovey's model a genuine approach to the study of intelligence that could add interesting contributions to the emotional individual differences field (Mathews *et al.,* 2002).

Although there was a previous theoretical approach (Salovey and Mayer, 1990), the most accepted proposal is the one that considers EI as a mental ability, specifically: Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

The model comprises four abilities: perception, assimilation, understanding, and regulation of emotions. Concisely, emotional perception consists of the ability to perceive emotions on the self and on

the others, and also on objects, art, stories, music, and other stimulus. The assimilation of emotions is the ability to generate, use, and feel emotions as necessary to communicate feelings, or to use them in other cognitive processes. Emotional understanding is related to the ability to understand emotional information, how emotions combine and shift across time, and the ability to appreciate emotional meanings. Finally, emotional regulation refers to the ability to stay open to feelings, and to monitor and regulate one's and other's emotions to promote understanding and personal growth.

These four branches are hierarchally organized, thus, perceiving emotions is at the most basic level, and managing emotions is at the highest and most complex level in the hierarchy. Therefore, the ability to regulate one's and other's emotions is built on the basis of the competencies of the three other branches.

According to these authors, emotional intelligence represents an intelligence system focused on the processing of emotional information, and, as that, it must be part of other traditional and well established intelligences (Mayer, *et al.,* 1999). In this sense, the methodology for the assessment of emotional intelligence is based on performance or ability measures, in line with the assessment methodology used to measure other intelligences (that is mathematical intelligence or logic-spatial intelligence).

Although the authors initially developed self-reported measures for the assessment of the concept (Trait Meta-Mood Scale, TMMS; Salovey, *et al.,* 1995), their biggest efforts have been focused on the design and development of ability measures or performance-based measures, culminating in the development of the MSCEIT (*Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test*; Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso,

2002; Mayer, *et al.,* 2001; 2003). This instrument provides an indicator of people's emotional performance level in different items that evaluate: the ability to perceive emotions in faces, pictures, and abstracts designs; the ability to assimilate emotions in several thinking and decision making processes; the ability to understand simple and complex emotions, their combinations and the shift of emotions; and finally, the ability to manage and regulate owns and other's emotions.

Bar-On's emotional-social intelligence model (Bar-On, 1997; Bar-On, 2000) Bar-On's (1997) theoretical approach to emotional intelligence is wider and more comprehensive than Mayer and Salovey's model (1997). From Bar-On's point of view "…emotional-social intelligence is a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands" (Bar-On, 2006). The accent on "non-cognitive" factors represents a withdrawal from the traditional conceptions of intelligence which underlined the relevance of cognitive factors. The aim of this proposal was to find out the key factors and components of social and emotional functioning that lead individuals to a better psychological wellbeing (Bar-On, 2000, 2004, 2006).

Bar-On's model defines the construct "emotional-social intelligence", which is formed by a cross-section of inter-related emotional and personality traits that are well established and interact together in the individual. Specifically, emotional and social intelligence comprises five high level factors, which are subdivided in 15 sub factors: 1) Intrapersonal Skills refers to the ability of being aware and understand emotions, feelings, and ideas in the self, and it is subdivided into the 5 sub factors Self-Regard, Emotional Self Awareness, Assertiveness, Independence, and Self-Actualization; 2) Interpersonal

Skills refers to the ability of being aware and understanding emotions, feelings, and ideas in the others, and it is subdivided into the 3 sub factors Empathy, Social Responsibility, and Interpersonal Relationship; 3) Adaptability refers to the ability of being open to change our feelings depending on the situations, and includes the 3 sub factors Reality-Testing, Flexibility, and Problem-Solving; 4) Stress Management refers to the ability to copy stress and control emotions, it is composed by the sub factors Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control; and lastly, 5) General Mood refers to the ability of feeling and expressing positive emotions, and being optimistic, and comprises the sub factors Optimism and Happiness (Bar-On, 2006).

In order to evaluate the factors proposed in his model, Bar-On developed the first *commercial* instrument available to measure emotional intelligence (EQ-I; Bar-On, 1997). Later, Bar-On designed a large amount of measuring instruments (that is interviews, questionnaires for external raters, self-report measures for different ages, and different versions of these instruments) distributed by *Multi-Health System* (MHS). For research purposes the most employed measure is the *Emotional Quotient Inventory* (EQ-i; Bar-On, 1997), a self-reported measure comprising 133 items that evaluates the five components described in his theoretical model. As the author points out, the EQ-i is a wide inventory that includes many emotional and social competencies, giving not just an estimation of the emotional intelligence level, but also an affective and social profile (Bar-On, 2000). This led some authors to consider Bar-On's proposals as a mixed model of emotional intelligence, since it combines social, emotional, cognitive, and personality dimensions (Mayer, *et al.,* 2000). A substantial part of the research developed by this group and by independent groups is focused on the psychometric properties of the EQ-I, its predictive,

construct, and incremental validity upon other classical constructs (that is personality and cognitive intelligence) and its contribution to different everyday life criteria (Bar-On, 2000, 2004, 2006).

Goleman's model of emotional intelligence: a model of competencies focused on the workplace (Boyatzis *et al.,* 2000; Goleman, 1998, 2001) No doubt, the term emotional intelligence was brought to light by Goleman's book and by his statements regarding the influence of these abilities upon many areas of our lives (Goleman, 1995). In his first book, Goleman stated that emotional intelligence comprises five essential elements: 1) knowing one's emotions; 2) managing emotions; 3) motivating oneself; 4) recognizing emotions in others, and 5) handling relationships.

In 1998, Goleman presented his second book, proposing a theory of performance in organizations based on a model of emotional intelligence. This model was created and adapted to predict the effectiveness and personal outcomes in the workplace and in organizational fields (Goleman, 1998). The model is based on several competencies, which were identified by researches conducted in hundreds of organizations; these competencies are considered characteristic of the most brilliant and successful employees (Goleman, 2001). Currently, the model presents four essential dimensions, which are subdivided into 20 competencies (Boyatzis *et al.,* 2000; Goleman, 2001): 1) Self-Awareness, comprising Emotional self-awareness, Accurate self-assessment, and Self-confidence; 2) Social Awareness comprising Empathy, Service orientation, and Organizational awareness; 3) Self-Management comprising Self-control, Trustworthiness, Conscientiousness, Adaptability, Achievement drive, and Initiative; and finally, 4) Relationship Management which comprises Developing others,

Influence, Communication, Conflict management, Leadership, Change catalyst, Building bonds and Teamwork and collaboration.

According to Goleman, (2001) each one of these four dimensions are the basis to develop other learned abilities or competencies necessary in the organizational field. For example, the Self-awareness domain provides the basis for the development of learned competencies such as to perform an "accurate self-assessment" of the advantages and disadvantages in decision making processes, which is necessary when an executive must play his/her leading role in his/her work team. For Goleman (2001), an emotional competence is "a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work".

This idea of learned competence is essential to understand Goleman's proposal. Thus, while emotional intelligence as defined by Mayer and Salovey represents our potential to dominate specific emotional abilities, from Goleman's proposal, emotional competencies by themselves represent the level in which a person dominates specific abilities or skills based on his/her emotional intelligence level and make this person more effective in his/her work (Goleman, 2001).

In order to evaluate social and emotional competencies in the organization, this approach uses 360° methodology or measures based on external raters. This methodology is easier and quicker than other measurement methods such as the individualized interview, and it is also wider because it provides a general indicator of 20 emotional competencies regarding the work performance using just one instrument. Besides, this instrument shows higher security and reliability than others because it allows the comparison between the employees' perception of his/her own competencies and other

employee's and boss' perceptions of these competencies (Boyatzis, *et al.,* 2000). The instrument used to evaluate Goleman's model is the *Emotional Competence Inventory 2.0* (ECI 2.0), which is based on 360º methodology and shows evidence of validity and reliability (Boyatzis *et al.,* 2000; Sala, 2002). Built on the measure developed by Boyatzis, the authors of the ECI consider that the instrument has applicability only in the workplace and organizational fields. The ECI consists on 110 items, where 3 items is the minimum number to evaluate each competence. The ECI comprises two ways of evaluation: a self-reported measure where people are asked to estimate their performance in each one of the competencies, and an evaluation by an external rater, such as work mates or superiors.

Compared to other approaches, to date, the model (Boyatzis *et al.,* 2000; Goleman, 2001) has less empirical support. In this sense, the efforts made by the authors to show empirical evidence from their theoretical model in this Special Issue is a valuable effort that will answer some of the critics made to this approach (Boyatzis, 2006).

2.3 Future Considerations

Among the so-called Hot Intelligences, emotional intelligence is the one that shows the best and largest development of instruments for the assessment of the concept. Especially, if we compare emotional intelligence with other Hot Intelligences as the Theory of Multiple Intelligences (MI, Gardner, 1983/1993) which has an extensive theoretical development and a widespread repercussion in scholar practice, theory with which we sympathies. The few instruments developed for the assessment of multiple intelligence do not provide the standards for reliability and consistent measurement (McMahon, Rose, and Parks, 2004), showing for example, very low alphas for

interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences (alphas= .39 and .22, respectively).

However, the abundance and development of different instruments to measure emotional intelligence, both self-report and performance based measures, represents a problem to some authors because it makes simple comparisons among studies difficult, and of course, it makes meta-analyses hard (Landy, 2005). Although this is true, maybe the Darwinist dynamic competition among instruments will end determining those that will survive and will be used in the future. However, this tendency probably will continue, and several research groups will develop new measures of emotional intelligence, especially *freeware* performance-based measures beyond those currently commercialized (Freudenthaler and Neubauer, 2005).

Some authors have shown their most pessimistic side towards the existence of different approaches and instruments for measurement of this new field, and for some of them this is enough to impair the construct and the lines of investigation generated (Locke, 2005). However, although a lack of agreement regarding the concept could be seen as a matter that lessens the construct validity of emotional intelligence, the existence of several theoretical approaches to the concept of emotional intelligence must not be understood as a conceptual weakness of this field, but as a sign of robustness and theoretical maturity. The co-existence of multiple ways to study emotional competencies and abilities demonstrate a new and incipient field, searching for a satisfactory scientific explanation to the processes of interrelationships between cognition and emotion from different points of view. The findings reported from each approach and through different instruments for measurement, help scientists to introduce subtle distinctions in their proposals, to verify the existence of the

abilities comprising their models and the relationships between these abilities, and to analyze the compatibility of the approaches and refine the instruments for the assessment of emotional intelligence. The diversity of the efforts made regarding the definition of the concept, the assessment, and the empirical research should not be considered as unsuccessful or questioning the validity and utility of emotional intelligence in the field of individual differences.

In fact, other classical but very prolific topics for individual differences research such as cognitive intelligence (Sternberg, 2000, 2004) or personality (Carver and Scheier, 2000; Pervin and John, 2001) get advantage from the continuous debate and from the existence of the numerous theories, approaches, and measurements trying to explain human behavior or personal success. We join Sternberg's words considering that since the first paper of emotional intelligence was published in 1990, it is not surprising that there are still aspects to improve and questions to answer (Sternberg, 2004). Moreover, the rapid increase and growth of this field in just 15 years is impressive. This growth is supported by the rigorous and careful work of scientists trying to verify the validity of the construct and to know the real contribution of emotional intelligence upon people's life. One of the biggest expectations of education and human resources professionals regarding emotional intelligence is its learning, development, and training potential. Goleman, in his book published in 1995, stated that emotional intelligence is the most important variable contributing to professional and personal success. His statement was based on the fact that IQ explains just the 20% of the success in life, while the leaving 80% could be conferred to emotional intelligence. These optimistic perspectives and their diffusion to the mass media opened Pandora's Box leading to the proposal of ambitious training programs for schools

and organizations made by educational and consulting entities, giving exaggerated promises of improving performance and scholar and professional success. However, empirical support for these statements is still discrete.

Future investigations must determine clearly, through adequate experimental designs, which ones of the four branches of emotional intelligence: (1) perception of emotion, (2) emotional facilitation of thought, (3) understanding emotions, and (4) managing emotions, are suitable of developing and training, how long this would take, and the adequate ages for this (for a revision in scholar fields, see Greenberg, Weissberg, *et al.,* 2003; Zins, *et al.,* 2004; and in organizational fields, see Ashkanasy and Daus, 2005; Jordan, *et al.,* 2002). In accordance with these assertions, Lopes and Salovey (2004) underlined the need for future educational research to identify which components of social and emotional learning (SEL) programmes are most important and effective. Specifically, they strengthen that there are two important points to address the question as to what skills we should teach to students. The first one is that SEL programmes should be personalized to students' requests and the problems these students face everyday. The second is to focus on skills that are likely to be useful across domains and are important for the development of additional abilities. Future research must investigate which one of these two approaches is more productive and effective. In addition, it is necessary to determine whether it is the programmes that lead to advance or the excellence, interest, and motivation of the educators and trainers who deliver the SEL programmes.

Finally, other productive line of future research would be the cross-cultural validity of emotional intelligence. On one hand, it is not likely that different cultures such as European and Asian cultures use

the same emotional skills. In this sense, correct answers for instruments like the MSCEIT should change considering the cultural context where emotional skills are used. It is also necessary to determine the way in which cultural dimensions interacts with the individual's ability to attend to, understand, and regulate their emotions and the specific weight that each of these variables has in its influence upon people's emotional and social adjustment (Fernández, *et al.,* 2005).

2.4 Definitions of Emotional Intelligence

The concept of emotional intelligence brings new depth to the understanding of human intelligence; it expands the ability to evaluate one's general or overall intelligence. Like cognitive intelligence, emotional intelligence is difficult to define. Broadly speaking, emotional intelligence addresses the emotional, personal, social and survival dimensions of intelligence, which are often more important for daily functioning than the more traditional cognitive aspects of intelligence (Bar-On, 1997).

There are lot of arguments about the definition of emotional intelligence, arguments that regard both terminology and operationalizations. Salovey and Mayer (1990) had made the first published attempt toward defining the concept. The concept of emotional intelligence has been defined in various ways by different authors giving emphasis to different components of the concept. While Mayer and Salovey (1997) emphasized the cognitive elements in their definition of emotional intelligence, Goleman relates it to the way people function emotionally if their function is at its potential or at least is not problematic. The definition given by Cooper and Sawaf (1997) gave greater emphasis to the higher aspects of human behaviour, particularly aspects associated with business leadership. Their concept includes factors such as intuition, integrity, personal purpose, and creativity not

emphasized by Goleman. Weisinger's (1998) definition is relatively close to Goleman's definition.

Currently there are several definitions of emotional intelligence in use and they do not necessarily match well. Emotional intelligence is a multifaceted construct and we do not have a clear, simple definition of it. Nonetheless, following are some of the widely used definitions at present.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions".

Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions, to assess and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotion so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Martinez (1997) refers to emotional intelligence as being: " ..... an array of non cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influence a person's ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures" (Tischler *et al.,* 2002).

Goleman (1997) provides a useful definition of the construct of emotional intelligence, which is about:

- Knowing what you are feeling and being able to handle those feelings without having them swamp you;
- Being able to motivate yourself to get jobs done, be creative and perform at your peak; and

- Sensing what others are feeling, and handling relationship effectively.

In other words emotional intelligence as defined by Goleman is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. His frame work has five branches: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills.

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

Bar-On's (1997) non cognitive model defines emotional intelligence as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures".

Weisinger (1998) defined emotional intelligence as "the intelligent use of emotions: you intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to help guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance your results".

Emotional intelligence has been defined by Mayer *et al.,* (1999) as an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them. Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them.

Emotional intelligence has been defined by Lames (2004) as the ability of a person to use emotions as a guiding tool for interpersonal effectiveness in his or her social environment.

According to Murthy (2004) emotional intelligence is the ability to choose the right feelings appropriate to a given situation and the skill to communicate these feelings effectively. It is the emotional competency which includes awareness of our own emotions, ability to identify and empathize with others' feelings, understanding the impact of one's emotions on others and sensitivity to cultural sanctions for expression of emotions that constitutes emotional intelligence.

2.5 The Major Emotional Intelligence Models

The encyclopedia of Applied Psychology states that there are three major models of emotional intelligence:
a) The Mayer-Salovey model: which defines this construct as the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions to facilitate thinking;
b) The Bar-On model: this describes emotional intelligence as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behaviour and
c) The Goleman model, which views it as an array of emotional and social competencies that contribute to managerial performance.

The Bar-On Model and the Goleman Model are also known as the Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence. Models that mix together emotional intelligence qualities with other personality traits unrelated to either emotion or intelligence are often referred to as *mixed models* of emotional intelligence.

2.5.1 The Mayer-Salovey Model of Emotional Intelligence (Ability Model)

It is the first formal model of emotional intelligence - the 1990 model -was the one Goleman relied on in his popularization of the field. The Mayer-Salovey model of Emotional Intelligence is widely known as the 'Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence. The model views emotions and thoughts as working with each other in adaptive ways. This model defines emotional intelligence as "intelligence" in the traditional sense, that is, as a set of mental abilities to do with emotions and the processing of emotional information that are a part of, and contribute to, logical thought and intelligence in general. These abilities are arranged hierarchically from basic psychological process to the more psychologically integrated and complex, and are thought to develop with age and experience in much the same way as crystallized abilities. Further, they are considered to be independent of traits and talents and preferred ways of behaving (Mayer and Salovey, 1993).

Emotional intelligence refers in part to an ability to recognize the meanings of emotional patterns and to reason and solve problems on the basis of them (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotion so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

The Mayer-Salovey model was initially known as Four Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence. This model describes four areas of capacities or skills that collectively describe many of areas of emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). The domain of emotional intelligence describes several discrete emotional abilities. As per the

ability model of emotional intelligence, these emotional abilities can be divided into four classes or branches, as shown below.

1. Perception and Appraisal of Emotions (Identifying Emotions)

The most basic skill involves the perception and appraisal of emotion. It is the ability to recognize how you and those around you are feeling. The initial, most basic, area has to do with the nonverbal reception and expression of emotion. The capacity to accurately perceive emotions in the face or voice of others provides a crucial starting point for more advanced understanding of emotions. Individuals who accurately appraise and express (perceive and respond to) their emotions are likely to be better understood by the people they work with, and they also have the potential to better lead and manage people when they are able to perceive the emotions of the people around them and to develop empathy- the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself (Salovey and Mayer, 1989, 1990).

2. Assimilating Emotion in Thought (Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought)

The second set of skills involve assimilating basic emotional experiences into mental life, including weighing emotions against one another and against other emotions and thoughts and allowing emotions to direct attention. In other words "it is the capacity of the emotions to enter into and guide the cognitive system and promote thinking. For example, cognitive scientists pointed out that emotions prioritize thinking. In other words: something we respond to emotionally, is something that grabs our attention. We may hold an emotional state ill consciousness so as to compare it with a similar sensation in sound, colour, or taste (Mayer *et al.,* 2000).

Individuals also differ in the ways (functional *vs.* dysfunctional) in which they utilise their emotions. Emotions can:

- Help in generating multiple future plans (flexible planning)
- Improve the decision-making process due to a better understanding of one's emotional reaction (creative thinking)
- Facilitate cognitive processes such as creativity on the one hand and punctuality on the other hand (mood redirected attention); and
- Enhance persistence regarding challenging tasks (motivating emotions)

3. Understanding and Analysing Emotions

The third level involves understanding and reasoning about emotions. It is the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional 'chains', how emotions are transition from one stage to another. According to the proponents of the model, emotions convey information: Happiness usually indicates a desire to join with other people; anger indicates a desire to attack or harm others; fear indicates a "desire to escape and so forth. According to Mayer and Barsade (2008) each emotion conveys its own pattern of possible messages, and actions associated with those messages. He says a message of anger, for example, may mean that the individual feels treated unfairly. The anger, in turn, might be associated with specific sets of possible actions: peacemaking, attacking, retribution and revenge seeking, or withdrawal to seek calmness. Understanding emotional messages and the actions associated with them is one important aspect of this area of skill. In other words, emotional intelligence involves the ability to recognize the emotions, to know how they unfold, and to reason about them accordingly.

4. *Managing Emotions*

The fourth, highest level, of emotional intelligence involves the management and regulation of emotion in oneself and others such as knowing how to calm down after feeling angry or being able to alleviate the anxiety of another person. Mayer *et al.,* (2008) says that a person needs to understand emotions convey information. To the extent that it is under voluntary control, a person may want to remain open to emotional signals so long as they are not too painful, and block out those that are overwhelming. In between, within the person's emotional comfort zone, it becomes possible to regulate and manage one's own and others' emotions so as to promote one's own and others' personal and social goals.

People differ in their ability to manage (monitor, evaluate, and adjust to changing moods) their emotions as well as in their ability to regulate and alter the affective reactions of others (Salovey and Mayer 1989, 1990). Regulation of one's own emotions and moods results in positive and negative affective states. Emotionally, intelligent individuals are adept at placing themselves in positive affective states and are able to experience negative affective states that have insignificant destructive consequences.

Mayer *et al.,* (2000) opined that the mental ability model of emotional intelligence makes predictions about the internal structure of the intelligence and also its implications for a person's life. The theory predicts that emotional intelligence is, in fact, intelligence like other intelligences in that it will meet three empirical criteria. First, mental problems have right or wrong answers, as assessed by the convergence of alternative scoring methods. Second, the measured skills correlate with other measures of mental ability (because mental abilities tend to

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inter-correlate) as well as with self-reported empathy. Third, the absolute ability level rises with age (Mayer *et al.,* 2000).

The model further predicts that emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to (a) have grown up in bio-socially adaptive households (that is have had emotionally sensitive parenting), (b) be non-defensive, (c) be able to reframe emotions effectively (that is be realistically optimistic and appreciative), (d) choose good emotional role models, (e) be able to communicate and discuss feelings, and (t) develop expert knowledge in a particular emotional area such as aesthetics, moral or ethical feeling, social problem solving, leadership, or spiritual feeling (Mayer and Salovey, 1995).

2.5.2 The Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence

Unlike the Ability model, the Bar-On model explicitly included non-ability traits also in its efforts to explain Emotional intelligence and it is also known as Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence. The Bar-On's (1997) non-cognitive model defines emotional intelligence as "an array of non cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. While Bar-On (2000) places this model under the banner of emotional intelligence, it is a somewhat broader construct to which he more generically refers as "... emotional and social intelligence". This model describes El as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behaviour. He defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands.

This model can be divided into two main parts. The first part is the theory, or conceptualization, of emotional-social intelligence; and the second part is the psychometric aspect of the model which is, essentially, the measure of emotional-social intelligence which was based on the theory and designed to assess it. These two aspects of the model have also been referred to as (a) the Bar-On conceptual model of emotional-social intelligence and (b) the Bar-On psychometric model of emotional-social intelligence, while (c) the Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence refers to both the conceptual and the psychometric aspects of this model combined into one entity. The psychometric aspect of the Bar-On model is the measure of the construct which was created to assess the conceptual aspect of this model.

Bar-On's (1997) model of emotional intelligence was intended to answer the question, "Why are some individuals more able to succeed in life than others?" Bar-On reviewed the psychological literature for personality characteristics that appeared related to life success. He has operationalisation this model according to 15 conceptual components that pertain to five specific dimensions of emotional and social intelligence. These five major domains in Bar-On's (1997) model are:

1. ***Intrapersonal skills:*** representing abilities, capabilities, competencies and skills pertaining to the inner self.
2. ***Interpersonal skills:*** representing interpersonal skills and functioning.
3. ***Adaptability:*** representing how successfully one is able to cope with environmental demands by effectively sizing up and dealing with problematic situation.
4. ***Stress management:*** concerning the ability to manage and cope effectively with stress and

5. ***General mood:*** pertaining to the ability to enjoy life and to maintain a positive disposition.

Each broad area is further subdivided. For example, intrapersonal skills are divided into emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualisation and independence. The 15 components of the model are described as non-cognitive variables that "..... resemble personality factors" (Bar-On, 1997).

Bar-On offered the following rationale for his use of the term emotional intelligence:

Intelligence describes the aggregate of abilities, competencies, and skills ...that ... represent a *collection of knowledge used to cope with life effectively.* The adjective emotional is employed to emphasize that this specific type of intelligence differs from cognitive intelligence ... (Bar-On, 1997). Bar-On's theoretical work combines what may qualify as mental abilities (for example emotional self awareness) with other characteristics that are considered separable from mental ability, such as personal independence, self-regard, and mood; this makes it a mixed model (cited in Mayer et al., 2000). Bar-On (1997) contented that to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express ourselves, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures.

Bar-On proposes that the components of this model develop over time, change throughout life, and can be improved through training and development programmes, and that the model relates to the potential for performance rather than performance itself.

The development of Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence had been influenced by the contributions of many earlier theorists including

Darwin, Thorndike and Wechsler. Darwin's early work (1837-1872) on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation influenced the development of the Bar-On model, which also stresses the importance of emotional expression and views the outcome of emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour in tenns of effective and successful adaptation. Thorndike's (1920) description of social intelligence and its importance for human performance as well as Wechsler's (1940) observations related to the impact of non-intellective (non-cognitive) factors on what he referred to as intelligent behaviour are also influenced the development of the Bar-On' s Model.

Gardner's (1983) introduction of the concept of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences, within the context of multiple intelligences, had an impact on the development of the intrapersonal and interpersonal components of the Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence.

The most popularly used measure of Emotional Intelligence is the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (the EQ-i). The development of the conceptual aspect of the Bar-On model and the construction of its psychometric component (the EQ-i) are closely interrelated. Consequently, the EQ-i may be considered an 'operationalisation' of this model.

Consistent with the way this model is conceptualized, to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express ourselves, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. This is based, first and foremost, on our intra-personal ability to be aware of ourselves, to understand our strengths and weaknesses, and to express our feelings and thoughts non-destructively.

On the interpersonal level, being emotionally and socially intelligent encompasses the ability to be aware of others' emotions, feelings and needs, and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. Ultimately, being emotionally and socially intelligent means to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions as the need arises. To do this, we need to manage emotions so that they work for us and not against us, and we need to be sufficiently optimistic, positive and self-motivated.

Subsequently, Bar-On (2000) defined emotional intelligence in terms of an array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities that influence our overall ability to effectively cope with environmental demands. This array includes 1. The ability to be aware of, to understand, and to express oneself; 2. The ability to be aware of, to understand, and to relate to others; 3. The ability to deal with strong emotions and control one's impulses; and 4. The ability to adopt to change and to solve problems of a personal or a social nature.

2.5.3 The Goleman Model (The Emotional Competencies Model)

Goleman's books, *Emotional Intelligence* (1995) and *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998b), have served to popularize this relatively new area 'Emotional Intelligence'. He has presented his adaptation of a few existing models of emotional intelligence and emphasized how it is altered throughout life, the ways basic emotional skills can augment one's ability to function better and to succeed in life, and the price paid for what he calls "emotional literacy".

The emotional intelligence model introduced by Goleman focuses on El as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive managerial

performance. The competency based model of emotional intelligence by Goleman (2001) has been designed specifically for workplace applications. In *Working with Emotional Intelligence,* Goleman (1998b) explored the function of emotional intelligence on the job, and claimed emotional intelligence to be the strongest predictor of success in the workplace, with more recent confirmation of these findings on a worldwide sample seen in Bradberry and Greaves, "The Emotional Intelligence Quick Book" (2005).

In his research at nearly 200 large, global companies, Goleman found that truly effective leaders are distinguished by a high degree of emotional intelligence. Without it, a person can have first-class training, an incisive mind, and an endless supply of good ideas, but he still won't be a great leader.

Goleman's model of intelligence is also a mixed model and it is characterized by the five broad areas. They are 1) knowing one's emotions (Self-awareness), 2) managing emotions (Self-management) 3) motivating oneself, 4) recognising emotions in others (Social awareness) and 5) handling relationships (Relationship management). Goleman included a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.

Goleman (l998a) summarises the five broad areas of his emotional intelligence model in his article published in Harvard Business Review (HBR) as given in the following table:

Table 2.1: Summary of the Five Broad Areas of competency-Based Model of Emotional Intelligence

	Definition	Hallmarks
Self-Awareness	The ability to recognize and understand your moods, emotions, and drives, as well as their effect on others.	• Self-confidence • Realistic self-assessment • Self-deprecating sense of humor
Self-Regulation	The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods. The propensity to suspend judgment to think before acting.	• Trustworthiness and integrity • Comfort with ambiguity • Openness to change
Motivation	A passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status. A propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence.	• Strong drive to achieve • Optimize, even in the face of failure • Organizational commitment.
Empathy	The ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people. Skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions.	• Expertise in building and retaining talent • Cross-cultural sensitivity service to clients and customers.
Social skill	Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks. An ability to find common ground and build rapport.	• Effectiveness in leading change persuasiveness • Expertise in building and leading teams.

Goleman (1995) recognized that he was moving from emotional intelligence to something far broader. He states that "ego resilience is quite similar to [this model] emotional intelligence" in that it includes social (and emotional) competencies. He goes so far as to note that, "There is an old - fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: *Character"* (Goleman, 1995).

Goleman (1995) notes that, "at best, IQ contributes about 20 % to the factors that determine life success, which leaves 80% to other factors". He further states that emotional intelligence can be as powerful, and at times more powerful, than IQ Mayer *et al.,* (2000) opines that, 'it is hard not to conclude that at least part of the popular excitement surrounding emotional intelligence is due to these very strong claims'.

Goleman (2001) proposes that the underlying abilities of the model are necessary, though not sufficient, to manifest competence in anyone of the emotional intelligence domains and that the emotional competencies are job skills that can be learned. Within this context, Goleman defines emotional intelligence as the ability to recognize and regulate emotions both within the self and others.

Table-2.2: Three Competing Models of Emotional Intelligence

Mayer and Salovey (1997)	Bar-On (1997)	Goleman (1995)
Overall Definition "Emotional intelligence is the set of abilities that account for how people's emotional perception and understanding vary in their accuracy. More formally, we define emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion and regulate emotion in the self and others". (after Mayer and Salovey, 1997)	Overall Definition "Emotional intelligence is an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures". (Bar-On, 1997)	Overall Definition "the abilities called here emotional intelligence, which include self control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself" (Goleman, 1995). "There is an old-fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: Character" (Goleman, 1995)

Major Areas of skills and Specific Examples	Major Areas of skills and Specific Examples	Major Areas of skills and Specific Examples
Perception and Expression of Emotion • Identifying and expressing emotions in one's physical states, feelings, and thoughts. • Identifying and expressing emotions in other people, artwork, language, etc.	Intrapersonal Skills • Emotional self-awareness • Assertiveness • Self-Regard • Self-Actualization • Independence Interpersonal Skills • Interpersonal	Knowing One's Emotions • Recognizing a feeling as it happens • Monitoring feelings from moment to moment. Management Emotions • Handling feelings so they are appropriate

* Source: Models of Emotional Intelligence by Mayer *et al.,* (2000).

It is evident from Table No. 2.2, that three models represent emotional intelligence are described in different ways by Mayer *et al.,* (2000). Both the Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1995) models are distributed across the various levels. For example, Bar-On's adaptability skills (problem-solving, reality testing, and flexibility) primarily represent cognitive skills (lower right), whereas his interpersonal skills (interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, and empathy) primarily represent more synthetic interpersonal relatedness (upper right). By way of contrast, the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model fits within the emotion and cognitive interactions area. The diagram shows in yet another way that a central difference among models is that the mental ability models operate in a region defined by emotion and cognition, whereas mixed models label a multitude of components as emotional intelligence (Mayer *et al.,* 2000).

The theory of emotional intelligence introduced in 1990 by Salovey and Mayer had undergone several modifications later on and several distinctive emotional intelligence models had been generated by various investigators including Salovey and Mayer themselves.

Goleman (1998b) says that all these emotional intelligence models share a common core of basic concepts. Emotional intelligence at the most general level refers to the abilities to recognize and regulate emotions in ourselves and in others. Goleman (2004) asserts that there are human abilities which lies between the mind and the heart, or more technically, between cognition and emotion. Some abilities are purely cognitive, like IQ or technical expertise. Other abilities integrate thought and feeling and fall within the domain of emotional intelligence, a tenor that highlights the crucial role of emotion in their performance. He is of the opinion that all emotional intelligence abilities involve some degree of skill in the affective domain, along with skill in whatever cognitive elements are also at play in each ability. This stands in sharp contrast to purely cognitive aspects of intelligence, which, to a large degree, computers can be programmed to execute about as well as a person can.

The most widely accepted emotional intelligence model with empirical support is a four branch model proposed by Salovey *et al.,* (2002). This model posits that emotional intelligence consists of the abilities to: perceive one's own and others' emotions and to accurately express one's own emotions; facilitate thought and problem solving through use of emotions; understand the causes of emotion and relationships between emotional experiences; and manage one's own and others' emotions.

The personal factors model developed by Dulewicz and Higgs (2000a) measures emotional intelligence in tens of seven elements, which are as follows:

1. **Self-awareness:** Being aware of one's feelings and being able to manage them.

2. ***Emotional resilience:*** Being able to maintain one's performance when under pressure.

3. ***Motivation:*** Having the drive and energy to attain challenging goals or targets.

4. ***Inter-personal sensitivity:*** Showing sensitivity and empathy towards others

5. ***Influence:*** The ability to influence and persuade others to accept your views or proposals.

6. ***Intuitiveness:*** The ability to make decisions, using reason and intuition when appropriate.

7. ***Conscientiousness and integrity:*** Being consistent in one's words and actions, and behaving according to prevailing ethical standards.

The conceptualizations of the emotional intelligence construct are different among different researchers and that resulted in different approaches to the operationalisation of the concept. However they appear to share a view of the roots of emotional intelligence and its place within organizational context. It can be concluded that the approaches to operationalisation tend to fall into three broad categories, namely Abilities (Mayer *et al.,* 2001), Competencies (Goleman, 1998b) and personal factors (Bar-On, 2000; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000a)

2.6 Can Emotional Intelligence be Learned?

This is an interesting question and this particular aspect-learnable, made this concept so popular all over the world. Are people born with certain levels of empathy, for example, or do they acquire empathy as a result of life's experiences? Goleman (l998b) says the answer is both. He stated that the scientific inquiry strongly suggests that there is a genetic component to emotional intelligence. He further

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puts that psychological and developmental research indicates that nurture plays a role as well. How much of each perhaps will never be known, but research and practice clearly demonstrate that emotional intelligence can be learned (Galeman, 1998b).

He has the opinion that the emotional intelligence can be improved with the help of the training programmes focused on the right part of the brain. Emotional intelligence is born largely in the neurotransmitters of the brain's limbic system, which governs feelings, impulses, and drives. Research indicates that the limbic system learn best through motivation, extended practice, and feedback. Compare this with the kind of learning that goes on in the neocortex, which governs analytical and technical ability. The neocortex, grasps concepts and logic. It is the part of the brain that figures out how to use a computer or make sales call by reading a book. Goleman (l998b) says not surprisingly-but mistakenly- it is also the part of the brain targeted by most training programmes aimed at enhancing emotional intelligence.

Based on his research with the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in organisations, he further adds that when such programmes take, in effect, a neocortical approach can even have a negative impact on people's job performance. Goleman (1998b) opines that the organisations must refocus their training to include the limbic system to enhance the emotional intelligence of the employees and the training programme requires an individualized approach. Sincere desire and concerted effort from the part of the individual is essential for building one's emotional intelligence. A brief seminar would not help; nor can one buy a how-to learn manual. It is much harder to learn to empathize- to internalize empathy as a natural response to people- than it is to become adept at regression analysis (Goleman 1998b). Goleman (1998a) concludes his famous HBR article as "It is fortunate, then, that

emotional intelligence can be learned. The process is not easy. It takes time and, most of all, commitment. But the benefits that come from having a well-developed emotional intelligence, both for the individual and for the organisation, make it worth the effort".

Raju (2004) proposes the following as the ways in which one can improve his emotional intelligence:

- Take responsibility for your emotions and your happiness.
- Examine your own feelings rather than the actions or motives of other people.
- Develop constructive coping skills for specific moods. Learn to relax when your emotions are running high and to get up and move when you are feeling down.
- Make hunting for the silver lining a game. Look for the humour or life lesson in a negative situation.
- Be honest with yourself. Acknowledge your negative feelings, look for their source, and come up with a way to solve the underlying problem.
- Show respect by respecting other people's feelings.
- Avoid people who invalidate you or do not respect your feelings.
- Listen twice as much as you speak.
- Pay attention to non-verbal communication.
- We communicate with our whole selves.
- Watch faces, listen to tone of voice, and take note of body language.
- Realize that improving your emotional intelligence will take time and patience.

Criticisms of the Theoretical Foundation of Emotional Intelligence

1. Emotional intelligence is too broadly defined and the definitions are unstable:

The major criticism over the theoretical foundation of emotional intelligence is about its definition. It is argued by many that the definition of emotional intelligence is constantly changing and broadening- which has come to encompass many unrelated elements- had rendered it an unintelligible concept. Some of the critics mention that without some stabilization of the concepts and the measurement instruments, meta-analyses are difficult to implement, and the theory coherence is likely to be adversely impacted by this instability.

2. Emotional intelligence cannot be recognized as a form of intelligence

Goleman's early work has been criticized for assuming from the beginning that emotional intelligence is a type of intelligence. Goleman's description of emotional intelligence contains unsubstantiated assumptions about intelligence in general, and that it even runs contrary to what researchers have come to expect when studying types of intelligence.

Locke (2005) argues that the concept of emotional intelligence in itself is a misrepresentation of the intelligence construct, it is not another form or type of intelligence, but intelligence (the ability to grasp abstractions) applied to a particular domain: emotions. He suggests that the concept should be relabeled and referred to as skills.

3. Claims for the predictive power of Emotional intelligence are too extreme; it has no substantial predictive value

A distinction has been made between the 'commercial wing' and 'the academic wing' of the El movement by Landy (2005). According to him, the former makes expensive claims on the applied value of El, while the later is trying to warn users against these claims. As an example, Goleman (1998a) asserts that "the most effective leaders are alike in one crucial way: they all have a high degree of what has come to be known as emotional intelligence. . .... emotional intelligence is the *sine qua non* of leadership". In contrast, Mayer (1999) cautions "the popular literature's implication - that highly emotionally intelligent people posses an unqualified advantage in life - appears overly enthusiastic at present and unsubstantiated by reasonable scientific standards."

The predictive validity of the construct emotional intelligence had been questioned by a few researchers. For example, Landy (2005) has claimed that the few incremental validity studies conducted on emotional intelligence have demonstrated that it adds little or nothing to the explanation or prediction of some common outcomes (most notably academic and work success). Landy proposes that the reason some studies have found a small increase in predictive validity is in fact a methodological fallacy-incomplete consideration of alternative explanations. He puts, "Emotional intelligence is *compared and contrasted with a measure of abstract intelligence but not with a personality measure. or with a personality measures but not with a measure of academic intelligence*". The interpretations of the correlations between self-report emotional intelligence and personality have been varied and inconsistent. Some researchers have asserted that correlations in the 0.40 range constitute outright construct redundancy,

while others have suggested that self-report emotional intelligence is a personality trait in itself.

4. Ability based measures are measuring conformity, not ability

One criticism of the works of Mayer and Salovey comes from a study by Roberts *et.al.* (2001), which suggests that the emotional intelligence, as measured by the MSCEIT may be one measuring conformity. This argument is rooted in the MSCEIT's use of consensus-based assessment, and in the fact that scores on the MSCEIT are negatively distributed (meaning that its scores differentiate between people with low emotional intelligence better than people with high emotional intelligence).

Brody (2004) criticized that unlike tests of cognitive ability, the MSCElT "tests knowledge of emotions but not necessarily the ability to perform tasks that are related to the knowledge that is assessed". The main argument is that even though someone knows how he should behave in an emotionally laden situation, it does not necessarily follow that he could actually carry out the reported behaviour.

2.7 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is generally considered the evaluative component of the self-concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioural aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). Self-esteem describes how people think and feel about themselves, how they regard themselves, and the degree of worth they attribute to themselves.

Self-esteem lies at the heart of ones ability to learn, overcome setbacks and respond assertively to others. It is the foundation of all self-development and it is increasingly recognised as a vital area of

management development. A self-esteem result from an individual's continuing self-evaluation. In psychology, self-esteem reflects a person's overall self-appraisal of his or her own worth. Psychologists usually regard self-esteem as an enduring personality characteristic (trait self-esteem), though normal, short-term variations (state self-esteem) occur. Self-esteem, how positively or negatively we feel about ourselves, is a very important aspect of personal well-being, happiness, and adjustment (Brown, 1998; Diener, 2000). Self-esteem is generally considered as the evaluative component of the self concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioural aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). Self-acceptance, self-love, a positive self-image and the freedom to be ourselves; all these are crucial aspects of self-esteem.

The level of self esteem is quite stable over the life span, with correlations of 0.50 to 0.70 from childhood to old age (Passer and Smith, 2007). Branden (1969) says "Healthy self-esteem correlates with rationality, realism, intuitiveness, creativity, independence, flexibility, ability to manage change, willingness to admit (and correct) mistakes, benevolence and cooperation. Poor self-esteem correlates with irrationality, blindness to reality, rigidity, fear of the new and unfamiliar, inappropriate conformity or inappropriate rebelliousness, defensiveness an overly complaint or controlling behaviour, and fear or hostility towards others"

Self-esteem has become the third most frequently occurring theme in psychological literature: as of 2003 over 25,000 articles, chapters and books referred to the topic. The Oxford English Dictionary traces the use of the word "self-esteem" in English as far back as 1657. Self-esteem has been characterized as both a trait variable (long-term, affectively laden self-evaluation) and a state variable (short-term,

situational, affectively laden self-evaluation) and it has been studied at many levels - global, intermediate (for example organisation-based) and task specific (Strauss, 2005).

While the construct is most often used to refer to a global sense of self-worth, narrower concepts such as self-confidence or body-esteem are used to imply a sense of self-esteem in more specific domains. It is also widely assumed that self -esteem functions as a trait, that is, it is stable across time within individuals. Self-esteem is an extremely popular construct within psychology, and has been related to virtually every other psychological concept or domain, including personality (for example shyness), behavioural (for example task performance), cognitive (for example attribution bias), and clinical concepts (for example anxiety and depression). Self-esteem has been related both to socioeconomic status and to various aspects of health and health-related behaviour.

2.7.1 Definitions of Self-Esteem

Rosenberg (1965) and social-learning theorists defined self-esteem in terms of a stable sense of personal worth or worthiness, measurable by self-report testing.

Branden (1969) defined self-esteem as "the disposition of experiencing oneself as competent in coping with the basic challenges of life and as being worthy of happiness". This two-factor approach provides a balanced definition that seems to be capable of dealing with limits of defining self-esteem primarily in terms of competence or worth alone. There are two components to Branden's definition. The first he calls self-efficacy: "confidence in the functioning of my mind, in my ability to think, understand, learn, choose, and make decisions; confidence in my ability to understand the facts of reality that fall within the sphere of my interests and needs; self-trust, self-reliance".

The second is self-respect: "Self-respect means assurance of my value; an affirmative attitude towards my right to live and be happy; comfort in appropriately asserting my thoughts, wants and needs; the feeling that joy and fulfillment are my natural birthright".

Branden's (1969) description of self esteem includes the following primary properties:

- Self-esteem as a basic human need.
- Self-esteem as an automatic and inevitable consequence of the sum of individuals' choices in using their consciousness.
- Something experienced as a part of, or background to, all of the individual's thoughts, feelings and actions.

In his famous book, *'The power of self-esteem'* Branden (1992) remarks that "self-esteem is the experience that, we are appropriate to life and to the requirements of life". More specifically, self-esteem is:

1. Confidence in our ability to think and to cope with the basic challenges of life.

2. Confidence In our right to be happy, the feeling of being worthy, deserving, entitled to assert our needs and wants and to enjoy the fruits of our efforts".

According to Blascovich and Tomaka (1991) self-esteem refers to an individual's sense of his or her value or worth, or the extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes him or herself. According to "Contingencies of self-worth model" developed by Crocker and her colleagues (2000) people differ in their bases of self-esteem. Their beliefs about what they think they need to do or who they need to "be" in order to class as a person of worth form these bases. Crocker and Wolfe (2001) identified six "domains" in which people frequently derive their self-worth, including: virtue, support from the family, academic

competence, physical attractiveness, gaining others' approval. Individuals who base their self-worth in a specific domain (such as, for example, academic success) leave themselves much more vulnerable to having their self-esteem threatened when negative events happen to them within that domain.

2.7.2 Why Self-Esteem is Important?

As Branden notes, "positive self-esteem is the immune system of the spirit, helping an individual face life problems and bounce back from adversity". Self-esteem affects behaviour in organisations and other social settings in several important ways. It is related to initial vocational choice. For example, individuals with high self-esteem take risks in job selection, are attracted to high-status occupations and are more likely to choose unconventional or non-traditional jobs than are individuals with low self-esteem. In a general sense, self-esteem is positively related to achievement and a willingness to expend effort to accomplish tasks. Clearly, self-esteem is an important individual difference in terms of work behaviour.

Good self-esteem is important because it helps a person to hold his head high and feel proud of him and what he can do. It gives him the courage to try new things and the power to believe in himself. It lets you respect yourself, even when you make mistakes. And when you respect yourself, adults and other kids usually respect you too. One who has good self-esteem knows that he is smart enough to take his own decisions. People who have a positive view of themselves and their capabilities tend to like themselves and see themselves as valuable. People with low self-esteem are more susceptible to external influences, suggesting that low-self-esteem individuals depend on the receipt of positive evaluations from others. As a result, people with low self-esteem

are more likely to seek approval from others and are more prone to confirm to the beliefs and behaviours of those they respect than are people who believe in themselves. Studies have shown that people with low self-esteem may benefit more from training programmes because their self-concept is more influenced by such interventions (Robbins *et al.,* 2007).

2.7.3 High and Low Self-esteem - A Comparison

Individuals with high self esteem tend to be confident and thus act more confidently. They value their strengths over their weaknesses. Individuals and teams with high self-esteem tend to be higher performers and are more satisfied with their work. Individuals with low self-esteem emphasize their weaknesses over their strengths, perceive themselves negatively, and are more concerned about how others view and feel about them. People with low self-esteem usually cannot tolerate criticism well and are apt to criticize people who attempt to offer them constructive feedback (Weiss, 2001).

High self-esteem is important because confident people usually have better relationships with others, can accomplish more, and lead fuller, more satisfying lives. People with good self-esteem are usually optimistic and expect others to like and welcome them. They make better parents and are able to manage life's struggles. In contrast, those who think the worst of themselves may distrust others and may be afraid to try doing things that could bring them success. Those with low self-esteem may fall into destructive behaviour and may get along poorly with friends and with their own parents and children.

Low self-esteem has an impact on every area of life including work, personal relationships, and emotional state. Kundu and Rani (2007) report studies that have consistently shown that low self-esteem

is related to psychological problems, unemployment, and maladaptive behaviours. Low self-esteem is associated with a greater concern with social evaluation by others as it has been linked to a higher need for social approval (Vermunt *et al.,* 2001), higher social anxiety and stronger reliance on social relations like group membership (cited in Kundu and Rani, 2007).

Low self-esteem people are more adaptive in their behaviour based on feedback or situations and more responsive to external cues than high self-esteem individuals (Brockner, 1988; Sandelands, 2000 cited in Kundu and Rani, 2007). Employees with low self-esteem are more easily influenced by the opinions of other workers than are employees with high self-esteem. Employees with low self-esteem set lower goals for themselves. Employees with low self-esteem are more susceptible to adverse job conditions such as stress, conflict, ambiguity, poor supervision, poor working conditions and the like.

High self-esteem is related to many positive behaviours and life outcomes. People with high self-esteem are happier with their lives, have fewer interpersonal problems, achieve at a higher and more consistent level, are less susceptible to social pressure, and are more capable of forming satisfying love relationships (Brown, 1998). In contrast people with poor self-images are less likely to try to make themselves feel better when they experience negative moods in response to perceived failures in their lives (Heimpel *et al.,* 2002).

2.7.4 Organisation-Based Self-Esteem

A concept related to self-esteem and widely used in the area of organisational behaviour is *Organisation-Based Self-Esteem* (OBSE). The values, attitudes and beliefs of the individuals working in an organisation are important indicators of what has been termed

Organisation-Based Self-Esteem, that is, the self-perceived value that individuals have of themselves as organisation members acting within an organisational context. Individuals with high self-esteem tend to feel good about themselves and generally act more confidently and capably; they are also more readily accepted by their peers. Self-esteem is also an important ingredient in the cognitive link between personal system and organisational productivity. The opposite tend to hold for persons with low self-esteem. The OBSE model has been extensively tested and validated. High scorers see themselves as effective, important, worthwhile and meaningful in their organisation (Weiss, 2001).

Determinants of OBSE include managerial respect, organisational structure, and job complexity. Employees' self-esteem increases when they believe their supervisors respect them and are concerned about their welfare. Moreover, flexible organisational structures tend to positively influence OBSE more than mechanistic, rigid structures. Challenging, rich, and complex jobs can also positively influence OBSE, in comparison with boring, repetitious, and simple jobs. Factors that are positively related to high OBSE and negatively related to low OBSE include global self-esteem, job performance, organisational commitment and satisfaction, intrinsic motivation (personal feelings of individual accomplishment), and citizenship behaviour [performing helpful tasks for the organisation] (Weiss, 2001).

2.7.5 Measuring Self-esteem

For the purpose of empirical research, psychologists typically assess self-esteem by a self-report questionnaire yielding a quantitative result. Popular lore recognises just "high" self-esteem and "low" self-esteem. Among the most popular and well-utilized measures of self-esteem are the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (1965) and the Coopersmith

Self-Esteem Inventory. Rosenberg's scale was originally developed to measure adolescents' global feelings of self-worth or self-acceptance, and is generally considered the standard against which other measures of self-esteem are compared. It includes 10 items that are usually scored using a four-point responses ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was developed through research to assess attitude toward oneself in general, and in specific contexts: peers, parents, school, and personal interests. It was originally designed for use with children, drawing on items from scales that were previously used by Rogers. Respondents state whether a set of 50 generally favourable or unfavourable aspects of a person are "like me" or "not like me".

The biggest limitation of all measures of self-esteem is their susceptibility to socially desirable responding. Most measures are self-report, and it is difficult to obtain non-self-report measures of such a personal and subjective construct. Also scores tend to be skewed toward high self-esteem, with even the lowest scores on most tests scoring above the mean and exhibiting fairly high levels of self-esteem.

2.7.6 How to Build Self-Esteem?

Healthy self-esteem originates in the environment found in the: family, school, peer group, work place, and community. For healthy self-esteem individuals need to receive nurturing from the people in their environment, to include:

- Unconditional warmth, love and caring; to realize that other people recognise them as deserving to be nurtured, reinforced, rewarded, and bonded to.

- Acceptance for who they are; to recognise that other people see them as worthy individuals who have a unique set of personality characteristics, skills abilities and competencies making them special. Acceptance enables people to develop relationships with others, yet maintain healthy boundaries of individuality within themselves.

- Good communication; being listened to and responded to in a healthy way so that healthy problem solving is possible.

The family is a strong force in the development of self-esteem. The early years are particularly important in establishing an 'authentic and abiding self-esteem' in a person. Higher parental self-esteem is crucial to the ability to nurture high self-esteem and personal effectiveness in children. Children develop higher self-esteem when their parents communicate unconditional acceptance and love, establish clear guidelines for behaviour, and reinforce compliance while giving the child freedom to make decisions and express opinions within those guidelines (Brown, 1998; Coopersmith, 1967). Beginning in early childhood, success in achieving positive outcomes builds a sense that one is an effective person (Hawley and Little, 2002, cited in Passer and Smith, 2007).

Feedback received from other people also has an impact on the child's sense of self. One study showed that when low-self-esteem children were exposed to highly supportive youth sport coaches who gave them large amounts of positive reinforcement and encouragement, the children's self-esteem increased significantly over the course of the sports season (Smoll *et al.,* 1993). Apparently, the positive feedback caused the children to revise their self concepts in a positive direction. High self-esteem can never be given to a person by another person or society. It must be sought, 'earned' by the individual for him or herself.

To improve self-esteem, Branden (1992) suggests a technique called Sentence Completion, which you can use with the six pillars of self-esteem. The technique is based on the premise that all of us have more knowledge than we are normally aware of, more wisdom than use, more potential than we reveal in our behaviour. The technique basically consists of creating an incomplete sentence and writing six different endings to it as rapidly as possible.

2.8 Personal Effectiveness

When individuals who are excellent at their job are asked to describe it, they mention their skills and understanding of the things they do. Therefore, an excellent bank manager may talk about his knowledge of banking systems, shrewdness in lending, and skill in building up business.

In addition to talking about his skills and abilities most would also mention personal qualities such as "gets people to work well together", or "always listens to what people have to say", or "always trying to do things better". These qualities apply to excellent people in all situations whether in working or personal life. It is also interesting to note that they apply to people of all ages and at all levels of employment within organisations. It is these qualities which are referred to as personal competencies. The development of personal competencies leads to personal effectiveness.

There is nothing new in the idea of personal competence. It has long been recognized that personal competence (personal qualities or personal effectiveness) often makes the difference between being seen as competent at something and being seen as incompetent. There has, however, been little concentration on the development of personal effectiveness within the field of education, training and development.

There is a variety of perspectives and approaches to personal effectiveness which has resulted in the subject being criticised as vague and lacking clarity of definition.

No one would deny that a certain amount of confusion exists. This manual explores views on personal effectiveness and looks at how they fit in relation to a series of theories of management and competence.

Most people want to feel useful in their lives. They want to feel as though they are making a contribution of some kind.

If you are employed, then work is one of the more important places where you will want to feel useful, valued and appreciated.

When things are going well, your life feels effective and efficient and you're capable of handling whatever the workday throws at you.

However, when things are not going quite so well, when too many demands are made on your time and you can't seem to see what's needed, then you may begin to feel ineffectual, de-skilled and pretty useless.

On top of that, one of life's little ironies is that it only takes one small incident, one conflict, mistake or reprimand; something overlooked or a problem not sorted out to feel that everything you do is useless.

It's not true, but human nature being what it is, most people tend to focus on what's wrong rather than what's right.

When this happens, it's actually possible to feel so ineffectual that you become ineffectual. This is how negative reinforcement happens.

In other words, one blip may create just that much extra stress that the rest of your work is affected; and then one blip, one small error or mistake, turns into many and you really do become a liability. In reality all those skills and abilities you have when things are going well don't go away, they just go to ground for a while.

The trick is to get them back again before it all goes 'pear shaped'.

Knowing what you do well, what you can rely on, what qualities you have are essential to maintaining your *personal effectiveness.*

Being able to identify what makes you feel aligned, motivated and energised will also reinforce and build your confidence, so that when those blips come along (and they will), you can deal with them effectively.

2.9 Concept of Personal Effectiveness

One precondition for personal effectiveness is better self-awareness. But only understanding one's self does not make a person effective. One simple model for self-awareness, which is widely used, is the Johari Window, developed by Luft and Ingham (1955). In this model, there are two main dimensions for understanding the self; those aspects of a person's behaviour and style that are known to him (self) and those aspects of his behaviour that are known to those with whom he interacts (others). A combination of these two dimensions reveals four areas of knowledge about the self.

Known to self   Not known to self

Figure : 2.1: Johari Window

The upper left-hand square is the *arena* or the public self—that part of an individual's behaviour known both to himself and to those with whom he interacts. The *arena* includes information such as name, age, physical appearance, and the familiar or organizational affiliation.

The *blind* area contains those aspects of the person's behaviour and style that others know but person himself does not know about. A

person may have mannerisms of which he is unaware but which are perceived by others as funny, annoying, or pleasing. For example, an individual might be surprised to hear that his method of asking questions annoys others who may interpret them as cross-examination rather than curiosity or a request for information.

The *closed* area involves that which is known to the person but not revealed to others; things in this area are secret. For example, a subordinate may be annoyed if his supervisor does not ask him to sit down during the meeting, but he will remain standing without letting the supervisor know that he is annoyed. The supervisors may think that the subordinate does not mind standing and may accept his behaviour as a part of their hierarchical relationship. Most of us have many such feelings in our closed areas that we are unwilling to reveal to the persons concerned.

The fourth area is the *dark area,* inaccessible to both the self and others. Some psychologists believe that this is a very large area indeed, and that certain circumstances (for example, an accident), a particular stage of one's life or special techniques such as psychoanalysis or psychodynamics, may suddenly make a person realize some hidden aspects of himself. Because the *dark* area cannot be consciously controlled or changed, this discussion will be limited to the arena, the blind and closed areas.

In the Johari Window model the size of the arena or open space is critical for personal effectiveness. Arena increases in proportion to the decrease in the blind and the closed areas.

2.9.1 Models of Personal Effectiveness

There are a number of key skills and competencies that can be used to help people achieve their goals in a wide range of circumstances.

If a dozen people were asked what personal effectiveness is, they would give a dozen different answers.

Covey's argued that the following traits are crucial in personal effectiveness.

1. ***Be pro-active***, take responsibility. Being proactive means taking initiative. It means that as human beings ,we are responsible for our own live. Our behavior is a function of our decisions, upon our conditions

2. ***Begin with the end in mind***. To begin with the end in mind means to start with a clear understanding of your desired destination. It means you know where you're going- so you can better understand where you are and what steps are required to achieve what you truly want.

3. ***Put first things first***. Organizing and managing time and events

According to personal priorities we say "yes" and "no" to things daily. When armed with correct principles and focused on a mission, you have the ability to make much wiser decisions at each of life's crossroads.

4. ***Think win-win***: This means developing an attitude of seeking mutual benefit. All parties must feel good about the final decision and committed to the action plan.

5. ***Seek first to understand then to be understood***. Since we too easily see the world as we are, not as it is, we need to shift our frame of reference.

Empathic listening gets inside another person's frame of reference. You begin to see the world as they see it. You begin to deal with the other person's view of reality.

6. ***Synergize***. Refers to developing the habit of creative cooperation or teamwork

Synergy means that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. It means that three people working in creative harmony are not limited to the power of three. Potentially they have the power of nine.

Synergy comes from valuing differences by bringing different perspectives together in the spirit of mutual respect

7. ***Sharpen the saw***. This habit is aimed at self-renewal in four areas – physical, mental, emotional-social and spiritual. It involves setting aside time for self-renewing activities regularly. Most people are so busy doing things they have always done; they refuse to take time to improve.

2.9.2 Etiology of Personal Effectiveness

Personal effectiveness is the success of a person to produce desired behavior-related consequences. It can be conceived as a general indicator, as an over-all measure of the success of a person to achieve desired outcomes. It also can be conceived as a situation-specific indicator, as a measure of how well one produced outcomes in specific situations. In either case, personal effectiveness is dependent on a person's degree of personal control and contextual control/influence. Personal control is the degree of regulation one has over one's behavior. Contextual control/influence is the degree of personal effect and affect on elements in one's context.

Personal control and contextual control/influence are dependent on a person's employment of situational power. Situational power is the potential for one to exercise personal control and contextual control/influence in specific situations. Situational power depends on how well personal operating capacity matches the conditions of a situation. Personal operating capacity is the wherewithal of a person to function in situations. Operating capacity is dependent on one's biology, psychology, competency and contextual support.

A positive correlation exists among a person's capacity-situation fit, situational power, power employment, personal control and contextual control/influence, situational personal effectiveness, general personal effectiveness and length and quality of life.

Principal sources of operating capacity are psychology, biology, competency and contextual support. The sources have reciprocal influential relationships with each other and with personal behavior. It is in a person's best interest to nurture and protect situation-specific and broad-based operational capacities that will fit the range of situations the person expects to encounter. Unfortunately, all too often a person will confront life-situations with an inadequate operating capacity, which will result in lessened power in those situations, which will result in lessened personal control and contextual control/influence, which will result in lessened personal effectiveness, which will adversely affect personal longevity and prosperity. Engaging in situations with an inadequate operating capacity can be troublesome for the person and for others.

2.9.3 Aspects of Personal Effectiveness

Openness: Openness then, is critical for personal effectiveness. Openness has two aspects self disclosure (sharing with others what do not seem to know about one's self), and use of feedback (being open to what others say on aspects which one may not be aware of.

The extent to which one shares ideas, feelings, experiences, impressions, perceptions, and various other personal data with others, shows the degree of openness which is an important quality and contributes a great deal to person's effectiveness.

Openness in combination with perceptiveness and communication makes a persons much more effective. But openness alone is often misunderstood as sharing everything with everyone.

Openness can be characterized as effective, first, if the person sees that sharing what he wants to share is appropriate. Inappropriate sharing does not contribute to effective openness. For example, a typical task group is usually an inappropriate place for a person to share

marital problems. Second, openness can be characterized as effective if the person is aware of what his openness is likely to do the others. Those who practice openness by calling others names or pouring out all their feelings are unlikely to be effective. For example, a supervisor who takes out his anger on a subordinate without taking into consideration that person's ability to process and use the data generated, will not be effective. The supervisor would be better advised to listen to the subordinate and share his concerns in a manner that will help the subordinate use the data he receives.

Receiving Feedback : Feedback on those aspects of a person about which others are aware but the person himself does not know about may be positive or negative. Generally, there is no problem in positive feedback. Negative feedback, however, creates dissonance with self-image, and may be threatening to the ego. When one receives negative feedback (for example, if one is criticized or blamed) one tends to be defensive, and generally uses defensive behaviour to deal with the feedback.

Perceptiveness : The ability to pick up verbal and non-verbal cues from others indicates perceptiveness. However, like openness, this dimension must be combined with the other two dimensions for effectiveness. A person who is not open may receive many cues and much feedback from others at first, but soon he may be seen as being manipulative and generally unavailable. Perceptiveness and openness reinforce each other and, if used effectively, are likely to increase personal effectiveness. Like openness, perceptiveness can be used appropriately or inappropriately. If a person is too conscious of others feelings, he may inhibit his interactions. Similarly, a person who is too conscious of his own limitations will tend not to take risks. Effective perceptiveness can be increased by checking others reactions to what is

said. A person who does not do this (in other words, if he is not open), may become over concerned about the cues he receives.

2.9.4 Developing Personal Effectiveness

Personal effectiveness must be viewed across three dimensions-openness, perceptiveness, and communication-all significant to interpersonal relationships. By becoming more open, a person reduces his or her closed area; the blind area is reduces by increasing perceptiveness. Communication can be improved in various ways. These three dimensions, however, do not function in isolation, but interact with each other. In order to increase effectiveness, it is necessary to work on a combination of all three.

Personal effectiveness can be increased by moving towards appropriate perceptiveness and openness. Organizational consultants and trainers, while working on the process leading to increased effectiveness, will find it useful to emphasize the role of both openness and perceptiveness as contributing factors to effectiveness. Movement in these directions is possible, however, only through a greater emphasis in communication. People must learn to take risks in giving feedback to others and to use in an appropriate manner the feedback they receive. Only in this way can personal effectiveness be truly increased.

Ways to Increase Your Personal Effectiveness

- Watch that your independence does not prevent you from recognizing how others can make an important contribution.

- Keep a check on your tendency to be critical and unsupportive of group efforts. This tendency may result in others seeing you as a poor team player.

- You may be able to manage group dynamics more effectively if you identify the specific tasks you need to complete for the team, and then work on them independently.

- Your reserved, formal style can come across as being unsympathetic and uncaring. You may increase your effectiveness

by showing sympathy and providing support when people are encountering difficulties.

- Take time to consider the effects your decisions will have on people. If there are negative repercussions, consider ways to moderate the impact of the changes.

- Introverted individuals such as yourself often need time to think things through before responding. Make sure you give yourself enough time to formulate your thoughts when considering serious issues.

- In some situations you may be more effective by speaking up for your ideas immediately and allowing your opinions to be formed by the discussion that follows.

- Develop a greater comfort with meeting new people and presenting your ideas in front of others.

- Consult with others when you need to make important decisions, or when mistakes could result in serious consequences.

- Keep a check on your tendency to ignore the advice of others.

- Be more supportive of group decisions, and willingly put your colleagues' desires ahead of your own.

- Consider how your level of ambition and competitiveness influences the balance between your career and personal responsibilities.

- In some situations your competitive style may not be appropriate. When working on teams or with other individuals, it may be more effective to adopt a less competitive style.

- Learn how to recognize when a project is no longer worth the effort or resource to complete.

- Avoid seeing less persistent individuals as uncommitted.

- Guard against your tendency to commit too much energy to things. You may be more effective if you drop some things.

- Take control of tasks or teams when your skills allow you to make a significant contribution.

- Examine the situations where your consultative leadership style may be inefficient or ineffective.

- Learn how to comfortably give direction and guidance to people working under you.

- Keep an open mind to unconventional ideas and solutions.

- Carefully examine the ideas of others before discounting them.
- Learn to recognize when adapting a previous solution is not effective and a more creative, original solution is necessary.
- Show enthusiasm and excitement to your colleagues.
- Let other people know your thoughts and feelings. This will help you develop closer relationships with colleagues and customers.
- Guard against coming across as cold or uninvolved.

2.10 Academic Achievement

Academic achievement can be defined as excellence in all academic disciplines, in class as well as extracurricular activities. It includes excellence in sporting, behaviour, confidence, communication skills, punctuality, assertiveness, arts, culture, and the like.

Academic achievement is a measure which helps to assert the degree to which the educational objectives are being realized. Good (1973) in the Dictionary of Education referred to "Academic achievement as the knowledge attained or skill developed in the school subjects, usually designated by test scores, or marks assigned by the teacher".

The term achievement is widely used. The Dictionary of Education (1959) defines achievement as knowledge of skills developed in the school and college subjects usually designed by the test score or by marks assigned by the teacher or both.

In the field of measurement achievement is generally used in the sense of acquired ability to do capacity to do or tendency to do. Caplin (1961) defines educational or Academic achievement as a specific level of proficiency in academic work evaluated by the teachers by standardized test or by a combination both.

Achievement Test

A test designed to measure a person's knowledge, skill, understandings, etc., in a given field taught in school, for example, a Mathematics test or an English test (Good, 1973). Refers to test

designed to measure the effects of specific teaching or training in an area of the curriculum. A standardized test designed to measure and compare levels of knowledge and understanding in a given subject already learned. (Bellingham, 2004).

2.11 Concept of Academic Achievement

Achievement refers to the scholastic or academic achievement of the student at the end of an educational programme. A good number of variables such as personality characteristics of the learners, the SES, the organizational climate of the school, curriculum planning, etc., influence achievement in different degrees. These variables are generally referred to as correlates of achievement.

The factors, which influence on academic achievement of student are many. Students' IQ, health, peer group, past experience, attitude towards the school subjects and teachers, his/her emotional intelligence, parents' love and affection, self-esteem, family environment, SES, personal effectiveness etc. are some of the factors which affect the academic achievement of students. In the present study, emotional intelligence, self-esteem and personal effectiveness are the factors which are conceived to influence on academic achievement.

Academic achievement is the knowledge and skills developed by the student in the subject in which one were imparted training in schools and subsequent success in life. It is the competence actually shown by the student in the subject in which the student has received the instruction at school.

According to States Dictionary of Psychology (1988) "Academic achievement is specific level of attainment or proficiency in academic work as evaluated by teachers by the standardised tests or combination of both".

According to Dictionary of Education, Good (1973), "The

knowledge attained or skills developed in the school subject usually determined by test scores or by marks assigned by teachers or both".

2.12 Importance of Academic Achievement

Academic Achievement is the outcome education the extent to which a student teacher or institution has achieved their educational goals Academic achievement is commonly measured by examinations or continuous assessment but there is no general agreement on how it is best tested or which aspects are most important procedural knowledge such as skills or declarative knowledge such as facts. Academic achievement is the accomplishment or proficiency of performance in a given skill or body of knowledge. Robinson and Horrock (1975) defined achievement as "status level or individuals learning and his ability to apply what he has learned ". According to this definition achievement is at first assumed to include any knowledge or skill. There is, however, a much broader approach which includes attitude, interests and values as aspects of a achievement and achievement is defined as the product of learning attitudes and interests as they are learned retained and forgotten just as knowledge or skill is According to Crow and Crow (1956) achievement means the extent to which learner and profiting from interaction from a given area of learning in other words we can say achievement means the extent to which teaching and studying has resulted in mastery. It is the outcome of general and specific learning experiences.

The performance of the students in a class is usually judged by their achievement score in the examinations, which is often considered as their academic achievement. The academic achievement has been treated as the main basis for admission and promotion of a student to their next class. It has also been taken as a criterion even in selection of the individuals into various vocational and professional courses. On the

other hand intelligence is the ability and capacity to learn and carry out abstract thinking to respond appropriately to a new situation. Intelligence as closely related to intellect, which includes observing, thinking, understanding, remembering and all ways of knowing. Thus, intelligence has a great role to lay in academic activities. Shah and Kishan (1982) in their study have observed that factors such as school climate, teaching method, facilities available both in school and at home, learner's personality characteristics, etc., influence their academic achievement. Deshpande and Lodhy (1981) expressed that academic achievement of an individual was affected by psychological variables like intelligence and personality.

Academic achievement of the student is of major concern both to the parents as well as to the teachers. There are students who demonstrate discrepancy between expected and actual achievement. These problems may be due to obvious factors such as physical deficiencies, ill health, emotional disturbances and absence from the school, unfortunate personal circumstances or inadequate environmental conditions in the classroom. It is also found that poor academic achievement of students due to the impairment of psychological process like perception, attention and memory (Rana and Sinha 1996).

Intellectual factors may also be the determinants of academic achievement and they must also be studied. The researchers has mainly been on teachers participation, their burnout and absenteeism and congenial atmosphere at school etc.

Academic achievement of the learner is the primary concern of all types of educational endeavour. Particularly at secondary school stage, great emphasis is on achievement, right from beginning of formal education. To certain extent, achievement test is a good tool for the

timely appraisal of the students' learning which will form the basis for improvement, refinement and modification of teaching-learning process.

Assessment of academic achievement has been largely confined to the evaluation in terms of information, knowledge and understanding. It is universally accepted that the acquisition of factual data is not an end in itself but that an individual who has received education should show evidence of having understood the subject and relate to the life situation. But for obvious reasons the essay type of test and examinations are largely confined to the measurement of the amount of information which students have acquired (Rao, 1990)

Very low level of expectation tends to make a pupil accept very low standard of achievement, very high expectations lead to discouragement and diminished effort because of student failure to live upto what is the requirement. To be practical, the level of expectation needs to be geared to suit each individual's capability. Hence every student should be encouraged and motivated to have academic success according to different tastes, interests and capacity. In this regard the teacher has to help the student to find ones worth and set the standards. And these standards should not be too low or too high but within the reach of the student and should enjoy the success every time the teacher reaches the academic achievement. Kalam mentions that "you can achieve if it you can dream", "dream high". Hence, the students should be helped to dream within the reach and every time give the test of success which will work as intrinsic motivation for life to achievement success.

This chapter gives the theoretical perspective which provides basics for further study.