Chapter-2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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The review of related studies involves locating, studying and evaluating reports of relevant researches and articles, published research abstracts, journals encyclopedias etc. The investigator needs to acquire up to date information about what has been thought and done in a particular area. The researcher draws maximum benefits from the previous investigations, utilizes the previous findings, takes many hints from designs and procedures of previous researchers and formulates an outline for future research. The review of related studies provides the insight into the methods, measures etc. employed by others in the particular area. It provides ideas, theories, explanation, hypotheses of research, valuable in formulating and studying the problem at hand. It also furnishes indispensable suggestions related to the problem and already employed techniques to the investigator. However, for reviewing the related literature in an objective and scientific manner, the present investigator has followed the flowchart of activities in the review of related literature presented by Weirsma (1991).
The flow chart is as under:

1. Identify descriptors relevant to the problem
2. Identify sources such as an appropriate index or retrieval system.
3. Identify titles of potentially relevant reports.
4. Locate copies of reports to be reviewed.
5. Separate the reports in order or into categories of relevance or importance. (Optional)
6. Delete non-relevant reports.
7. Prepare abstracts or summaries for the reports containing relevant information.
8. Write the review of the related literature.
9. Prepare a complete Bibliography.
SIGNIFICANCE OF RELATED LITERATURE

Research takes the advantage of the knowledge which has accumulated in the past as a result of constant human endeavor. It can never be undertaken in isolation of the work that has already been done on the problems which are directly or indirectly related to study proposed by researcher.

A careful review of the researcher journals, books, dissertations, thesis and other sources of information on the problem to be investigated is one of the important steps in the planning of any research study. Review of the related literature, serves the following specific purposes:

1) A careful review helps the researcher in selecting the variables lying within the scope of his interest, in defying and operationalizing variables and in identifying variables, which are conceptually and practically important.

2) It helps the researcher in avoiding any duplication of work done earlier, especially when the stability and validity of its results have been clearly established.

3) It also gives the researcher an understanding of the research methodology which refers to the way; the study is to be conducted.

4) The review of the related literature helps the researcher to know about the tools and instruments which proves to be useful and promising in the previous studies.
5) The advantage of the related literature is also to provide insight into statistical methods through which the validity of research is to be established.

6) The final and important specific reason for reviewing the related literature is to know about the recommendations of previous researchers for further research which they have listed in their studies.

The investigator has quoted the studies in this chapter that have direct or indirect relevance with the proper study. The studies quoted in this chapter have been classified factorwise as follows:

- Studies related to Emotional intelligence
- Studies related to Need Achievement
- Studies related to Temperament and Character

RELATED STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Wayne (1985) introduced the concept of Emotional Intelligence, as a faculty of consciousness. A rigorous theoretical and philosophical framework is developed to throw light on the nature and characteristics of emotion and emotional intelligence and to enable us to explore how actually to develop emotional intelligence -in self and in others by way of education. His work offers guidance in three ways: (1) by raising important issues and questions about emotions (2) by providing a language and framework to enable us to examine and talk about the issues and question raised and (3) by providing
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concepts, methods and tools for developing emotional intelligence. Since emotional intelligence involves relating creatively to fear, pain, desires, these states were explored in detail and guidance is offered on how to relate to them in emotionally intelligent ways.

Barnes and Thagard (1996) recent research has yielded an explosion of literature that establishes a strong connection between emotional and cognitive processes. Damasio presented a ‘somatic maker’ hypothesis which explained how emotions are biologically indispensible to decision. His research on patients with frontal lobe damage indicated that feelings normally accompany response options and operate as a biasing device to dictate choice. What Damasio’s hypothesis lacks is a theoretical model of decision making which can advance the conceptual connection between emotional and cognitive decision making processes. Barnes and Thagard confined Damasio’s somatic maker hypothesis with the coherence theory of decision put forward by Thagard and Millgram. The juxtaposition of Damisio’s hypothesis with a cognitive theory of decision making leads to a new and better theory of emotional decisions.

Mayer and Casey (2000) wrote that Educational Policy on Emotional Intelligence appears to be based on mass media science journalism than on actual educational and psychological research. Mayer and Casey provided an overview of the research areas of emotional intelligence, social and emotional learning and character education. They also examined the scientific evidence
for whether emotional intelligence underpins social and emotional learning and how emotional intelligence is related to success and whether it is central to character.

Nada (2000) studied whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and academic success. The population of the study was the 11th graders in Montgomery, Alabama. The sample was 500 11th graders—boys and girls—from public and private schools in Montgomery, Alabama. The sampling was stratified, making sure that schools, genders, races, socioeconomic statuses, and abilities are appropriately represented. The sample was given the BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) which is the first scientifically developed and validated measure of emotional intelligence.

Mayer et.al. (2001) have claimed that emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for intelligence (J.D. Mayer, D.R. Caruso & P. Salovey 1999) R.D. Roberts, M. Zeidner and G. Mattews, questioned whether that claim was warranted. The central issue raised by Robert et al. concerning Mayer et al (1999) is whether there are correct answers to questions on tests purporting to measure emotional intelligence as a set of abilities. To address this issue (and others), the Mayer and his co workers briefly restate their views of intelligence, emotion and emotional intelligence. They then presented arguments for the reasonableness of measuring emotional
intelligence as ability, indicate that correct answers exist and summarize recent data suggesting that such measures are, indeed, reliable.

Roberts et al. (2001) investigated that performance based measures of emotional intelligence (EI) are more likely than measures based on self report to see emotional intelligence as a construct distinct from personality. A multivariate investigation Scale [MEIS; J.D Mayer, D. Caruso & Salovey 1999]. Participants (N=704) also completed the Trait Self Description Inventory (ISD), measure of the Big Five personality factors, Christal, 1994 R.D. Roberts et al) and the Armed Service Vocational Aptitude battery (ASVAB a measure of intelligence). Results were equivocal. Although the MEIS showed convergent validity (correlating moderately with the ASVAB) and the divergent validity (correlating minimally with the TSDI), different scoring protocols (i.e. experts and consensus) yielded contradictory findings. Analysis of factor structure and subscale reliability identified further measurement problems. Overall, it is questionable whether the MEIS operationalizes emotional intelligence as reliable and valid construct.

Warner (2001) commented on the article by R.D. Roberts, M. Zeidner and G. Matthews that there is now sufficient work to suggest that his construct or series of construct deserves series attention, but several questions remain as to adequate construct validation as well as to the emergence and development of these constructs. There is need to conduct convergent and divergent validity studies on a midlife sample that is likely to conduct
convergent and divergent validity studies on a midlife sample that is likely to show that optimal level of differentiation of the new constructs. The reference domain of cognitive intelligence should be constructed in a multiple construct manner, and the validation procedure should use confirmatory factor analysis and P.S. Dwyer’s (1937) extension method.

Izard (2001) challenged the adequacy of the psychometric properties of the principal performance measure of emotional intelligence (EI). They raised doubt about the existence of emotion-related abilities that influence behavioral outcomes and social competence after controlling for general intelligence and personality. He agreed with Roberts et. al. that demonstrating the discriminant and predictive validity of a measure of emotional intelligence in the context of rival predictors would require more research he further agreed that the proponents of emotional intelligence that emotion-related abilities do exit and showed that such abilities in children account for unique variance in measures of adaptive behavior and social competence. However, evidence from developmental and clinical research suggested that these emotions related abilities and their influence on socioeconomically competence stem more from the direct effects of emotions than from a special form of intelligence.

Schutte et al. (2002) suggested a link between emotional intelligence and emotional well being. Emotional intelligence includes the ability to understand and regulate emotions, emotional well being includes positive
mood and high self esteem. Two studies investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and mood, and between emotional intelligence and self esteem. The results of these studies indicated that higher emotional intelligence was associated with characteristically positive mood and higher self esteem. The results of the third study indicated that higher emotional intelligence was associated with higher positive mood state and greater state self esteem. The third study also investigated the role of emotional intelligence in mood and self esteem regulation and found that individuals with higher emotional intelligence showed less of a decrease in positive mood and self esteem after a negative state inductive using the Velten methods, and showed more of an increase in positive mood but not in self esteem, after a positive state induction.

Salovey et al. (2002) examined the relationship between perceived Emotional Intelligence (PEI), measured by the trait Meta Mood Scale (TMMS) and psycho-physiological measures of adaptive coping. The TMMS assess perceived ability to (a) attend to moods (Attention) (b) discriminate clearly among moods (Clarity) and (c) regulate moods (Repairs). Study I showed significantly positive associations between PEI and psychological and interpersonal functioning. In study II skills at mood repair was associated with less passive coping and perceptions of repeated laboratory stressors as less threatening: Clarity was related to greater increase in negative mood, lower cortisol release during repeated stress. In study III, lowered cortisol
and blood pressure responses to acute laboratory challenges. These findings suggested that psycho-physiological responses to stress may be one potential mechanism underlying the relationships between emotional functioning and health.

**Ghorbai et al. (2002)** studied Trait Meta Mood Scale (TMMS) to assess self reported emotional intelligence cross culturally as an input (attention to emotions), process (clarity of emotions) and system (repair of emotions) information-processing system. Iranian (N=231) and American (N=220) university students responded to the TMM along with measures of alexithymia, public and private self consciousness, depression, anxiety, self esteem and perceived stress. Negative correlations with alexithymia and expected linkage with all other variables documented the validity of the TMMS in both cultures. Most of the other measures correlated similarity in the two samples. However private and public self-consciousness displayed a stronger positive association in Iran. These two scales were also more predictive of adjustment in Iran and of maladjustment in the US. This difference perhaps reflected a poorer integration of the two dimensions of self consciousness within a presumably more individualistic American society. Iranians displayed positive relationships among the input processing, and output activity of the information processing model. For the American, however, greater input was associated with diminished processing and output. This unanticipated relative contrast seemed congevent with speculation that
the historical American emphasis on the self and individualism promoters positive, optimistic thinking. Over all, these data most importantly suggested that subtle cultural differences might exist in the processing of emotional information.

Zeidner et al. (2003) examined the development of emotional intelligence (EI) in childhood. It is proposed that ambiguities in conceptualizing emotional intelligence may be resolved by distinguishing multiple levels of emotion-regulation processes temperament, rule based skill acquisition, and self aware emotion regulation are differentiated as potential source of individual differences. They reviewed empirical studies that demonstrated multiple mechanisms linked to these levels. Temperament is shaped by genes, interacting with environmental influence such as patterns of infant caregiver interactions. Early, language development skill learning is governed by reinforcement and modeling processes. Subsequent insight learning is influenced by emotional discourse with parents and others, and cultural factors. Cognitive abilities may also influence individual differences in emotional function. At the same time the biological and sociocultural factors that influence emotional intelligence interact in complex and interrelated ways. They concluded by proposing a tentative investment model for emotional competences in children that accommodates the multifaceted nature of emotional intelligence. Lower level competencies may provide a
platform for developing more sophisticated emotion-regulation skills with competencies becoming increasingly differentiated over time.

**Berrocol and Extremera (2003)** explored the use of interaction between moral heuristics and emotional intelligence. The main insight presented in that the quality of moral decisions is very sensitive to emotions, and hence this may lead us to better understanding of the role of emotional abilities in moral choices. In doing so, we consider how individual differences (specifically, emotional intelligence) are related to moral decisions they summarized evidence bearing on some of the ways in which emotional intelligence might moderate framing effects in different moral tasks such as "The Asian disease problems" and other more real life problem like "a divorce decision".

**Coffer et al. (2003)** examined the different facets of Emotional Intelligence, Alexithymia, and mood awareness. Undergraduate students (N=129) completed the Trait Meta Mood Scale (TAS-20) and the Mood Awareness Scale (MAS). A factor analysis revealed two dimensions, attention to and clarity to emotions that cut across all three instruments. These two extraversion and openness to experience portions of the NEO-FFI, and with performance on an emotional Stroop task. They discussed the implications for the conceptualization of broad constructs such as emotional intelligence and alexithymia, as well as the potential utility of more narrowly defined individual differences.
Kelly et al. (2003) described a collaborative action research project in one primary school that arose from a mutual interest in applying the concept of ‘Emotional Intelligence’. It involved an exploratory qualitative study of the Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS) curriculum. This is an approach aimed at promoting emotional competence in children and young people. The PATHS curriculum was chosen because of its clear conceptualization of emotion, it emphasized upon cognitive and developmental aspects and its research history. One class of 9 and 10 years olds took part in the project. Target children were selected from within this group for closer monitoring. The outcomes suggested that PATHS was rated very positively by class teachers, pupils and other staff involved in the project. Positive emotional, social and behavior changes at a class and individual levels were attributed to the effects of PATHS. Finally, the importance of developing a positive school ethos was highlighted as promoting these effects.

Verma and Alka (2003) examined the emotional intelligence among college students and the relationship to their general wellbeing. The sample consisted of 120 college students. Emotional intelligence measure by Schutte and PGI measure employed on postgraduate students. Two extreme groups were drawn on the basis of scores on emotional intelligence measure, High and Low scorer on emotional intelligence (male and female separately) were further compared regarding their general well being. High and Low group
differed significantly on their general well being. The male and female students, who scored higher on emotional intelligence scored significantly higher for general well being.

Dash and Behera (2004) examined the effect of emotional intelligence on teacher effectiveness at senior secondary level of education. The study conducted on senior secondary level teacher (N=100). From the analysis of the result, it was found that there is a positive effect of emotional Intelligence on teacher effectiveness (as overall and in all the dimensions) at senior secondary school level. The teacher effectiveness of various dimensions on differential between high and low emotional intelligent teachers are also found positively different.

Fielder and Bond (2004) compared psychological acceptance and emotional intelligence. In making this comparison, the effect of job control are accounted for, this is a work organization variable that is consistently associated with occupational health and performance. Results from 290 United Kingdom workers showed that emotional intelligence did not significantly predict any of the well being outcomes, after accounting for acceptance and job control. Acceptance predicted general mental health and physical well being but not job satisfaction, and job control was associated with job satisfaction only. Discussion focuses on the theoretical and applied implication of these findings. These included support for the suggestion that not controlling one's thoughts and feelings (as advocated) by acceptance may
have greater benefits for mental well being than attempting consciously to regulate them (as emotional intelligence suggests).

**Freshwater (2004)** discussed how the concepts of emotional literacy and emotional intelligence have gained a significant amount of coverage in the last decade. Emotional Intelligence is closely aligned with emotional literacy and can be described as being about a set of non cognitive abilities that influence the individual’s capacity to succeed in life. Emotional literacy and intelligence are considered fundamental, not just to the profession of mental health, but to any caring profession. The question and challenge to mental health professionals posed was how can health professionals work cooperatively with those who they some into contact with to raise the challenge of structuring emotionally literate curricula and health care organizations, thereby enabling practitioners to manage the helping relationships in a more insightful, deliberative and conscious way while also addressing matters pertaining to citizenship through emotional maturity.

**Akerjordet and Severinsson (2004)** used a hermeneutic analysis in their study. Four main themes emerged: relationships with the patients; the substance of supervision, motivation; and responsibility. It was concluded that emotional intelligence stimulates the search for a deeper understanding of a professional mental health nursing identity. Emotional learning and maturation processes are central to professional competence, that is, personal growth and development. In addition, the moral character of the mental health
nurse in relation to clinical practice is of importance. The findings implied multiple types of intelligence related to nursing sciences as well as further research possibilities within the area of emotional intelligence.

Parker et al. (2004) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement in high school. Students (N=667) attending a high school in Huntsville, Alabama completed the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i: YV). At the end of the academic year the EQ-I YV data was matched with student’s academic records for the year. When EQ-I YV variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly successful students, moderately successful, and less successful based on grade point average for the year), academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence. Results revealed the importance of emotional and social competency on academic achievement.

Gohm (2004) commented focuses on the J.D Mayer et. al. model of emotional intelligence (EI) and its measurement instrument, the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, as it is the only ability scale available at that time. Gohm presented some comments on each of the seven myths of emotional intelligence discussed by G. Matthews et al. He saw as the best ways to move the field of emotional intelligence research forward. Three areas in which research is especially needed to support Mayer et al’s ability model are in testing behavioral predictions, testing processing
explanations and testing generalizability to other content. Emotional Intelligence theory needed further empirical support, but the most recent research showed that the ability model of emotional intelligence has potential to yield important explanatory and predictive power.

Oatley (2004) in his book "Emotions" investigated the history of emotions in western and other cultures as well as the evolutionary history of emotions and the history of emotional development across an individual’s span. In clear and accessible language, the author examined key topic such as emotional intelligence, emotion and the brain and emotional disorders. Throughout, he interweaved three themes: the changes that human emotions have undergone from the past to the present, the extent to which we are able to control out emotions and the ways emotions help use discern the deeper layers of ourselves and our relationships.

Lagattuta (2005) investigated 4 to 7-year olds and adults (N=64) concepts about the emotional consequence of desire fulfillment versus desire inhibition in situation where people’s desire conflict with prohibitive rules. Results revealed developmental increases in attributing positive or mixed emotions to story characters that makes power decisions and negative or mixed emotions to characters that transgress. These development changes in emotion predictions were accompanied by age related differences in emotion explanations. Whereas 4- and 5-year olds largely explained emotions in relation to the character’s goals, 7 yr olds and adults further explained how
rules and future consequences influence emotions. Results are discussed in relation to connections among children’s psychological, deontic and future-oriented reasoning about emotions as well as the development of self control.

Brackett et al. (2005) assessed whether emotional intelligence is related to self assessed relationship quality, an ability test of emotional intelligence and measures of relationship quality were administered to 86 heterosexual couples in a university setting. Results indicated that female partners were significantly higher in emotional intelligence than male partners and that emotional intelligence scores were uncorrelated within couples. Two 2x2 multiple analysis of variance (performed separately for positive and negative outcomes) assessed how relationship quality measures differed across four different types of couples (high emotional intelligent female/high emotional intelligent male, low emotional intelligent female/low emotional intelligent male). As predicted, couples with both partner low on emotional intelligence tended to have the lowest scores on depth, support and positive relationship quality and the highest scores on conflict and negative relationships quality. Counter to their hypotheses, couples with both partners high on emotional intelligence did not consistently have higher scores on positive outcomes and lower scores on negative outcomes than couples with one high emotional intelligent partner.

Zeidner et al. (2005) examined academically gifted (N=83) and nongifted (N=125) high school students from Israel to compare mean
emotional intelligence scores, various assessment procedures and relations between emotional intelligence and ability, across different populations. Participants completed the Mayer-Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and Schutte Self Report Inventory (SSRI) and the Vocabulary subtest of the Hebrew version of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children Revised (WISC-R-95). Gifted students scored higher on the MSCEIT, but lower on the SRRI. Findings suggested that individual differences are measure dependent, with the profile of scores variable across emotional intelligence assessment procedures. Concepts assessed by the MSCEIT resemble a type of intelligence, whereas findings with the SSRI are problematic from this perspective. They concluded with a discussion of measurements issues, alternative perceptive on tests of emotional intelligence, and suggestions for future research.

Jain and Sinha (2005) examined the predictive ability of emotional Intelligence (EI), trust and organizational support in general health. The sample consisted of 250 middle levels executives from Two wheeler manufacturing organizations. Results suggested that the dimension of emotional intelligence termed positive attitude about life predicted both factors of general health positive: (a) sense of accomplishment and contribution (b) botheration free existence organizational support predicted sense of accomplishment and contribution, where as vertical trust predicted botheration free existence, accompanied by the assertiveness and positive self
concept dimension of emotional intelligence. The implications of the results are discussed in forms of promoting the general health of employees through training on emotional intelligence skills and through the creation of an atmosphere of trust and recognition within the organization.

Lyons and Tamera (2005) examined the relationship of ability based emotional intelligence facets with performance under stress. They expected high levels of emotional intelligence would promote challenge appraisals and better performance, whereas low emotional intelligence levels would foster threat appraisals and worse performance. Undergraduates (N=126) performed mental math and videotaped speech tasks. Certain dimensions of emotional intelligence were related to more challenge and enhanced performance. Some emotional intelligence dimensions were related to performance after controlling for cognitive ability, demonstrating incremental validity. This pattern of findings differed somewhat for males and females.

Graves et al. (2005) studied terrorist attacks on Sep 11, 2001. The attacks were evaluated through a social cognitive processing theory framework. A total of 537 people completed an Internet-based survey and 177 chose to write about their thoughts and feelings related to 9/11. People who wrote about their thoughts and feelings reported more total symptoms of 9/11 related distress and greater attentions to feelings. Linguistic differences emerged among participants classified by high, moderate or low distress and
were also evident in terms of participant’s emotional intelligence and perceived social environment.

Chan (2005) examined the relationship among emotional intelligence, social coping and psychological distress in a sample of 624 Chinese gifted students in Hong Kong. A mediation–effect model specifying that emotional intelligence has an effect on psychological distress mediated by social coping was hypothesized and testing using structural equation modeling procedures. For comparison, a direct-effect model and a direct – and – mediation –effect model were also fitted to the data. The results indicated that the mediation-effect model provided an adequate and good fit, suggesting that the effects of self-relevant and other – relevant emotional intelligence on psychological distress were mediated by avoiding coping and social-interaction coping, respectively.

Parker et al. (2005) examined the long term stability (32 months) of emotional intelligence related abilities over the course of a major life transition (The transition from high school to university). During the first week of full time study, a large group of undergraduates completed the EQ-i: Short; 32 months later a random subset of these students (N=238), who has started their postsecondary education within 24 months of graduating from high school, completed the measures for a second time. The study found emotional intelligence scores to be relatively stable over the 32 month time period. Emotional intelligence scores were also found to be significantly
higher at time 2; the overall pattern of change in emotional intelligence levels was more than can be attributed to the increased age of the participants.

Sibia et al. (2005) reported on the conceptualization and development of a measure of emotional intelligence in the Indian socio cultural context. The 34 items scale incorporates the four dimensions of emotional intelligence (identifying, assimilating, understanding and managing emotions) with the components of emotional intelligence discerned in Indian context social sensitivity, prosocial interaction, action tendencies and affective states.

Van Rooy et al. (2005) studied a common measure of emotional intelligence. It was administered to 275 participants (216 female) to examine how different score in a test of emotional intelligence. Differences were compared for gender, ethnicity and age. Results indicated that female scored slightly higher than males and emotional intelligence scores tended to increase with age. Group differences existed for ethnicity but favoured minority groups, migrating potential adverse impact concerns.

Lopes et al. (2005) found that emotion regulation abilities, measured on a test of emotional intelligence, were related to several indicators of the quality of individual’s social interactions with peers. In a sample of 76 college students, emotion regulation ability were associated with both self reports and peer nominations of interpersonal sensitivity and prosocial tendencies, the proportion of positive Vs negative peer nominations and reciprocal friendship nominations. These relationships remained statistically
significant after controlling for the Big Five personality traits as well as verbal and fluid intelligence.

**Grannon and Ranzijn (2005)** hypothesized that emotional intelligence would explain unique variance in life satisfaction beyond that predicted by personality, IQ and control variance. A community sample (N=191) aged 18-79 yrs (M=35.94; SD=14.17) was recruited. Because IQ showed no bivariate relationship with life satisfaction, IQ was not used in further analyses. After controlling for marital status and income, personality accounted for an additional 34.2% of the variance in life satisfaction and total emotional intelligence scores accounted for a further 1.3% (p<0.05). Further analysis revealed that the additional variance was explained by the emotional intelligence dimension of emotional management. In a competing analysis, emotional intelligence explained 28.3% of the variance at step 2, and personality accounted for a further 8.8% of the variance at step 3. It was concluded that emotional intelligence predicted some unique variance in life satisfaction, and that there was substantial conceptual overlap between emotional intelligence and personality. However, it was argued that, rather than being redundant, emotional intelligence may offer valuable insights to current conceptions of personality.

**Ioannis and Ioannis (2005)** investigated the relationship of emotional intelligence characteristics, such as perception, control, use and understanding of emotions, with physical and psychological health. In the first
study, 365 individuals filled in measures of emotional intelligence and general health. It was hypothesized that emotional intelligence would be negatively associated with poor general health. In the second study, 212 working adults completed the same measure of emotional intelligence and another measure, which apart from the standard information regarding physical and psychological health, provided also information about other health related behaviors such as smoking, drinking and exercising. It was also hypothesized that emotional intelligence would negatively correlates with smoking and drinking and positively correlates with exercising. The findings confirmed both hypotheses and provided further support on the claim that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and health functioning.

Pradhan et al. (2005) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and personal effectiveness. The study was conducted on 50 postgraduates (25 male & 25 female) from various departments of Delhi, University. The sample was administrated Emotional Intelligence Scale [Cooper & Sawaf, 1997] and Personal Effectiveness Scale [Udai Pareek, 1989]. The study reported that there exists a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and personal effectiveness.

Gupta and Kaur (2005) studied the emotional intelligence of prospective teachers. Further the study compared different groups on emotional intelligence. For this purpose a sample, comprising 200 B.Ed students was selected randomly from different educational colleges under the
jurisdiction of Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar. Results revealed that there were 9% male and 22% female B.Ed students with high emotional intelligence while 6 male and 12 female B.Ed students have low emotional intelligence. Male and female B.Ed students differed significantly on self-management dimension of emotional intelligence while Arts and Science stream B.Ed students differed on social skills dimensions of emotional intelligence. B.Ed. students of non working mothers were scoring more on internality while B.Ed students of working mothers were scoring more on empathy.

Bastain et al. (2005) investigated relationships between emotional intelligence and number of ‘life skills’ (academic achievement, life satisfaction, anxiety, problems solving and coping) among 246 predominantly first year tertiary students. Correlations between emotional intelligence and academic achievement were small and not statistically significant, although higher emotional intelligence was correlated with higher life satisfaction, better perceived problem solving and coping ability and lower anxiety. However, after controlling for the influence of personality and cognitive abilities, shared variance between emotional intelligence and life skills was 6% or less.

Schneider et al. (2006) examined the postulate that emotional intelligent people should be better at discerning physiological events. It was expected that individuals high in the facet of emotional intelligence,
particularly good emotional perceivers, would be better at perceiving their autonomic nervous system activities (i.e., heartbeats). Seventy-nine undergraduate completed an ability-based emotional intelligence measure, the Mayer-Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and performed a visceral self-perceptions task (heartbeat detection). Although emotional perception was not related to discriminating autonomic activity reliably, the other emotional intelligence facets were related to discriminating autonomic activity reliably, the other emotional intelligence facets were related to visceral self perception. The pattern of relationships was similar for males and females with some exceptions. This study provided support for the validity of the theory of emotional intelligence.

Elfenbein (2006) presented data on training to improve the accuracy of judging facial expressions of emotion, a core component of emotional intelligence. Feedback following judgments of angry, fearful, sad, and surprised states indicated the correct answers as well as difficulty level of stimuli. Improvement was greater for emotional expressions originating from a cultural group more distant from participants' own family backgrounds, for which feedback likely provides greater novel information. These results suggested that training via feedback can improve emotion perceptions skills. Thus, the study also provided suggestive evidence for cultural learning in emotion, for which previous research has been cross-sectional and subject to selection biases.
Bay and Lim (2006) examined the relationships between the seven variables of Gardner’s (1983) theory of Multiple Intelligence and the four components of the Emotional Intelligence construct [Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer 1990]. 360 upper primary school students in Singapore (ages ranges between 10 to 11 yrs old) completed the Teelc Inventory of Multiple Intelligence (Teelc, 1995) and the Mayer-Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test Youth Research Version (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2002). Several interesting findings from the research highlighted the correlates of Multiple Intelligence and emotional intelligence namely a negative correlation was found between interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, logical/mathematical intelligence is negatively correlated with interpersonal intelligence, and that no relationship was found between a student’s interpersonal intelligence and their total emotional intelligence quotient.

Shulman and Hemenover (2006) conducted two studies (Ns=263, 116) to examine whether dispositional emotional intelligence predicted psychological health independent of personality. Participants completed measures of three emotional intelligence dispositions (perception, understanding, regulation), Big Five Traits, psychological well being and emotional distress. In study 2 participants completed the health scales a second time three months later results revealed that dispositional emotional intelligence is related to health outcomes cross sectionally (Study 1) and
predicted changes in health over time (Study 2) after controlling for the Big Five. These findings suggested that dispositional emotional intelligence is not synonymous with personality and predicts meaningful life outcomes above and beyond the Big Five Personality traits.

**Champion and Hayslip (2006)** investigated the differentiation of the construct of emotional intelligence in young and middle aged adults on the basis of hypotheses generated from differential emotions theory, discrete emotions functionalist theory, and empirical literature on age related changes in affective complexity and differentiation of abilities. Both age groups were characterized by the same set of comparably related dimensions. However, midlife adults reported significantly greater use of optimism as a mood regulation strategy than was reported by young adults. The study considered implications of possible structural continuity emotional intelligence in conjunction with mean increases in the use of optimism as a strategy for managing affect.

**Paek (2006)** examined the extent to which religiosity, operationalized as religious orientation and behavior, was related to perceived emotional intelligence in self report measures among 148 church attending adult christian. Results showed a positive correlation between intrinsic religious orientation and perceived emotional intelligence, and in particular, its subcomponent emotional understanding as well as emotional and cognitive empathy. Among behavior measures of religiosity, only emotional
understanding correlated with behavior indices, though perceived emotional intelligence overall varied significantly between groups of different levels of religious commitment, as indicated by church status and ministry service. While both attitudinal and behavior religiosity factors were significantly predictive of perceived emotional intelligence, the former proved to be more predictive than the latter.

**Tett and Fox (2006)** evaluated the factor structure of six core trait emotional intelligence facets from Salovey and Mayer (1990). They assessed the stability of the core factor structure across students (N=184) and worker (N= 225) samples, and explored relations between core emotional intelligence dimensions and four proximal outcomes from the same model. A three factor structure, including Self Orientation, other Orientation and Emotional Sharing, replicated well across sample (fit indices range; 93-98 per sample). Relations involving emotional intelligence outcomes were less consistent. They concluded that trait emotional intelligence warrants assessment as specific facets rather than a global construct, core trait emotional intelligence structure may be stable across populations, and emotional intelligence applications are context specific.

**Dhingra. R ; Manhas. S. and Thakur. N. (2005)** studied the emotional quotient (E.Q), spiritual quotient (S.Q.) and social adjustment of Kashmiri migrant women. Further, it explored the relationship that exists between these variables. The sample comprised of 50 migrant women (25
each classified as socially well adjusted and maladjusted respectively) in the age group of 35-45 years, residing in Muthi camp at Jammu. The tools used for data collection included interview schedule, participant observation, Social Adjustment Inventory, Spiritual Quotient Scale and Emotional Quotient Scale. The results showed that majority (86%) of the women had moderate S.Q and (58%) had moderate E.Q. There existed a significant positive correlation between E.Q and S.Q. Social adjustment was positively and significantly correlated with E.Q. (for the entire and maladjusted group). This indicated that women scoring high on social adjustment had low E.Q and vice versa. Social adjustment on the other hand shared a significant negative correlation with S.Q. (for entire sample and maladjusted women). This showed that higher the social adjustment higher the S.Q. of the sample women.

Qualter et al. (2007) aimed to explore (1) whether pupils with high emotional intelligence (EI) cope better with the transition to high school; and (2) whether the introduction of an intervention programme to support the development of EI competencies can increase EI and self-worth, and so ease the negative effects of transition. Results suggested that pupils with high/average levels of EI cope better with transition in terms of grade point average, self-worth, school attendance and behaviour than pupils with low EI. In addition, pupils with low baseline EI scores responded positively to the
intervention programme, although a negative change was noted in pupils with high baseline emotional intelligence.

Meyer and Fletcher (2007) wrote a paper to: (a) review EI models and assessment inventories; (b) review research on EI in business, health, and sport; and (c) identify directions for future research and professional practice in sport psychology. Over the past five years, sport psychology researchers and practitioners have become increasingly vocal in their suggestions that emotional intelligence (EI) may be an important construct in the sport domain. Initial research in sport has been valuable for gaining preliminary insights, but use of disparate theoretical frameworks and assessment techniques confuses rather than clarifies potential links between EI and sport. Specifically, the use of different definitions, conceptualizations, and assessment inventories may yield different EI profiles of the same individual or team. This disparity has important implications for applied sport psychology, where there is a call for the use of theoretical paradigms, objective and subjective assessments, and empirical research to inform practice.

Halsell. S. S; Shumate. S. R and Blum. S (2007) studied that in the workplace, teamwork, collaboration, and excellent interpersonal communication are traits of successful leaders. Transformational leaders, utilizing their emotional intelligence (EI) abilities, are successful in employing these effective leadership skills. Using the dimensions of transformational
leadership and the domains of EI, a model was developed indicating the direct relationship between the two constructs. Additionally, a pilot study was conducted to demonstrate that students in hospitality undergraduate programs do not possess the level of EI needed to be successful transformational leaders. These findings demonstrated the need to incorporate EI instruction into orientation and training programs.

Keaten, J and Kelly, L (2008) investigated the relationship between family communication patterns, emotional intelligence and reticence. Participants \( (N = 296) \) responded to three measures: (a) the Revised Communication Patterns Scale (Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990), (b) the Emotional Intelligence Scale (Schutte et al., 1998), and (c) the Reticence Scale (Keaten, Kelly, & Finch, 1997). An analysis of partial correlations indicated that the relationship between conversation orientation and reticence was mediated by emotional intelligence. A hierarchical regression on emotional intelligence revealed a significant interaction between conversation orientation and conformity orientation.

Jacobs, S; A. Kemp, A and Mitchell, J (2008) stated that in an environment of comprehensive reformation, teachers report to having high levels of work-related pressure and stress. They are expected to attend courses where they learn how to implement change but there is no mechanism to help them cope with this change induced stress. The purpose of the study reported was to examine elements of emotional-social intelligence that could
perhaps indicate ways in which teachers can learn to cope with change. Using an instrument based on the Bar-On model of emotional social intelligence it was found that teachers have low self- and social awareness coupled with insufficient self-management skills. On the whole the general mood is not positive enough to be optimistic and sufficiently self-motivated to set and pursue goals in order to be successful teachers. The results of the research indicated that there is a need to create mechanisms by which teachers can be trained and through which they can increase their own self- and social awareness, thereby improving their general mood and motivation.

Singh, P and Manser, P (2008) research focused on the perceived emotional intelligence (EI) of school principals and their leadership strategies affecting the job satisfaction of teachers in a collegial environment. The study found that teachers have expectations of empowerment and collaboration that will enhance their levels of job satisfaction. Teachers strongly believed that they would feel satisfied at school if their principals created the opportunity to develop their skills in a collegial environment that nurtures effective communication, healthy relationships, empathy and trust. The findings of the empirical investigation further confirmed that teachers wish to be led by school principals who are confident in their collegial leadership role and who maintain self-control, are adaptable and flexible and who face the future with optimism. Evidently, in order for a school to reach its full potential, teachers
must be exposed to working in a collegial environment, be satisfied in their jobs and be nurtured by principals with an appropriate EI level.

Cha. J; Cichy. R. F and Kim. S.H (2008) revalidated three dimensions of emotional intelligence (EI) and examined EI’s contribution to social skills and stress management skills among members of the National Automatic Merchandising (NAMA), representing executives of the vending, coffee services, and foodservice management industries. After performing Confirmatory Factor Analysis, a sample of 191 was spilt into high EI and low EI groups, based on respondent’s overall EI and each dimension of EI median scores. Differences between high and low EI groups for both overall and each dimension of EI scores in social skills and stress management skills were statistically significant, implying that the EI contributes to NAMA member’s social skills and stress management skills.

Lii. S; Wong. S (2008) investigated the impact of corporate entrepreneurship, work role characteristics, emotional intelligence and locus of control on the adjustment and commitment of expatriates. Using data from 152 expatriates working in the Taiwanese subsidiary companies in China Mainland, structural equation modelling results indicate that work role characteristics is the most significant predictor for the adjustment and commitment of the expatriates. Emotional intelligence only has impact on commitment. External locus of control has a positive impact on the adjustment, but a negative impact on the stay commitment.
Seaton, C. L and Beaumont, S. L (2008) examined patterns of differences in proactive, adaptive forms of positive adjustment as a function of identity processing style. Three hundred undergraduate students (98 men, 202 women) completed self-report measures of identity styles (informational, normative, diffuse-avoidant), identity commitment, curiosity/exploration, proactive coping, and emotional intelligence. All three identity styles and identity commitment were found to be related to curiosity/exploration, proactive coping, and emotional intelligence. These relationships were positive with identity commitment and the informational and normative styles. When the overlapping variance accounted for by identity commitment was controlled via hierarchical regression, all three identity styles significantly predicted emotional intelligence, with positive predictions from the normative and informational styles. However, only the informational identity style made a unique positive contribution to curiosity/exploration and to proactive coping. The results were discussed in terms of the role of identity processing style in positive adjustment.

Malekar, S. V and Mohanty, R. P (2008) described that researchers and human resource management professionals across the world are actively engaged in studying Emotional Intelligence (EI) and its applications in various organizational settings to improve the managerial performance. It is found from literature that very few studies relating to the application of EI among the school students are available. Malekar and Mohanty conducted an
empirical study to identify the important determinants of EI among school students in the metro city of Mumbai, and thus provide feedback to the parents, teachers, and other authorities to meet the future needs of the society in a better and more effective way.

Van D.; Cydney J. and Elias, M. J. (2008) investigated how the tendency to express forgiveness, purpose, and religiosity in a free-response essay relates to emotional intelligence and self-concept in 89 5th-graders (mean age = 10.84 years) from an urban public school district in New Jersey. The data were compared with self-reports on scales of emotional intelligence and self-concept. It was hypothesized that expressions of the predictor variables would correlate positively with emotional intelligence and self-concept. In contrast to expressions of purpose, which were common among students, expressions of forgiveness and religiosity were infrequent. Furthermore, forgiveness was not significantly related to either criterion variable; purpose was positively related to self-concept (but not to emotional intelligence); and religiosity was negatively related to emotional intelligence (but not to self-concept). Correlational analyses by gender revealed a possible trend toward more robust relationships being observed among females than males; however, the differences between the correlation coefficients observed among males and females failed to reach statistical significance.

Cheung, F. Y. and Tang, C. S. (2009) investigated how affectivity and emotional intelligence (EI) influence the use of emotional labor strategies
at work among 486 Chinese employees. Hierarchical regression analyses showed that negative affectivity was a significant correlate for surface acting, while EI was a significant correlate for both deep acting and expression of naturally felt emotion. Positive affectivity and EI interacted with each other to influence the adoption of various emotional labor strategies. For instance, individuals with positive affectivity and regulation of emotion, a key facet of EI, tended to use more deep acting and the expression of naturally felt emotion but less surface acting than employees who were low in regulation of emotion. Furthermore, mediation analyses revealed that EI was a mediator between positive affectivity and deep acting.

RELATED STUDIES OF ‘NEED MOTIVATION’

McClelland (1972) explained the effects of achievement motivation training in the school and it has been found that the achievement motivation training enhances the class work and life management talents rather that affecting achievement levels in a direct fashion.

McClelland (1973) in his paper entitled “Testing for competence rather than for intelligence” wherein he argued that traditional academic aptitudes, school grades, and advanced credential simply did not predict how well people would perform on the job or whether they would succeed in life. Instead he proposed that set of specific competencies including empathy, self
discipline and initiatives distinguished the most successful from those who were merely good enough to keep their jobs.

**Agarwal (1974)** made a study of the correlates of achievement motivation. The aim of the study was that high socio economic status subjects would have middle or low subjects. Boys would be significantly higher achievement motivation as compared to girls. The major findings of the study were that achievement motivation and SES variables were related significantly positively with each other. The effect of sex on achievement motivation was found to be independent of SES, All the four adjustment factors (i.e. home, school, emotional health and social adjustment) were related positively but insignificantly with achievement motivation in the boys group.

**Mohan (1975)** made a study of development of self concept relation to intelligence, learning ability, achievement and achievement motivation. The findings of the study were that ideal self for both sexes indicates rapid increase. In most of the differential growth curves, low and average groups indicated parallel growth, while high groups scored higher on all a variables of self, female showed more stability of self than males during adolescence.

**Phutela (1976)** conducted study on some selected motivational factors on relation to academic achievement and socio economic status among the college students in the state of Punjab. On the sample of 745, he found that through inter-correlation 41/66 and 25/28 on fear of failure scale on socio economic status has been found significant. And the differences in the mean
of high, average and low academic achievement have been found insignificant on the motivational factor except vocational aspiration.

Abrol (1977) conducted a study of achievement motivation in relation to intelligence, vocational interest, achievement, sex and socio economic status. The objective was that achievement motivation is higher among students whose parents belong to higher income groups than among those whose parents belong to lower income groups. The sample consists of 414 students of class X from six higher Secondary school from the urban area of Delhi. The results revealed that the SES of the family affected the level of Achievement Motivation i.e., higher the status, the higher was the motivation. The SES of the student affected correlation coefficients between the two variables; A significant and positive correlation of moderate value was found between achievement motivation and scholastic.

Humphreys and Revelle (1984) presented a model to relate the personality dimensions of introversion-extraversion, achievement motivation, and anxiety to efficient cognitive performance. It is demonstrated how these personality dimensions in combination with situational moderators (e.g., success, failure, time pressure, incentives, time of day, stimulant drugs) affect the motivational constructs of arousal and effort. A general information-processing model that accounts for the systematic effects of these motivational states on certain task components (sustained information transfer and some aspect of short-term memory) was proposed. Empirical
generalizations about task components in a structural model are combined, and testable predictions that differentiate alternative motivational hypotheses were derived.

**Bharathi (1984)** conducted a study of self-concept and achievement motivation of early adolescents. The study aimed self-concept measures in different age groups, different sex groups and different socio economic groups, and to observe the interaction, effects of age, sex, SES and achievement motivation. Rao SES scale (1993) and Mehta achievement motivation test was administered on 360 students at each age level. The results revealed that no age differences were found in self concept with respect to adjustment. The strength of achievement motivation increased significantly from 12 to 16 yrs.

**Chauhan (1984)** investigated a comparative study of achievement motivation, of schedule caste, schedule tribe students of Himachal Pradesh in relation to their intelligence and socio economic status. The objective was to find out the international effect of community and SES in relation to the achievement motivation of the student. The study was conducted on 600 students studying in grade X. The findings showed that schedule caste and schedule tribe students did not differ significantly in relation to their achievement motivation, the achievement motivation of student differed significantly at different levels of SES, sex and SES did not interact significantly in relation to the achievement motivation of students.
Kumar (1984) conducted a study of perception of classroom social climate with reference to prediction of dimension of achievement motivation of high school students. The sample consisted of 1251 students of class X. The students were administered the Trickett and Moos Classroom Environment Scale and Moon and Doyle Academic Motivation Inventory. The result of the study showed that there were positive and significant correlation between 9 dimensions of classroom social climate and 14 dimensions of achievement motivation, competition, rule, clearly, involvement. Teachers control, tasks orientation and teachers support contributed positively by to total academic motivation.

McClelland (1985) reviewed the research that demonstrates the importance of motivation, incentive value, and probability of success, independently measured, for predicting achievement performance and the frequency with which affiliation acts are performed. Both theory and research lead to the following conclusions: (1) motive strength, particularly in relation to the strength of other motives in the person, is the more important determinant of operant act frequency; (2) incentive value is the more important determinant of cognitively based choices; (3) motive strength and probability of success combine multiplicatively to predict response strength or probability; and (4) all determinants, plus this last interaction, together account for over 75% of the variation in operants such as affiliative act
frequency. The remainder of the variation is readily attributable to environmental opportunities.

Ahluwala (1985) made a study of factors affecting achievement motivation. The study aimed to know the effect of age, birth order, academic performance, parent's education, parent's occupation, and parent's economic status separately on achievement motivation. The study was conducted on a sample of 200 children of 8 to 12 yrs. of age. The study showed that older age group subjects themselves as being less able less aspirating for greater ability and showed more dissatisfaction with their ability. No age difference were found in self concept with respect to adjustment, the strength of achievement motivation increased significantly from 12 to 16 yrs.

Schroth and Lund (1994) made a three fold study. The first objective was to investigate the relationships between basic traits of need achievement (n Ach) and sensation seeking (SS). The second purpose was to examine how situational factors affect subject's scores on the Work and Family Orientation Questionnaire (WOFO). Need Achievement and Sensation Seeking Vs Scales. The final goal was to compare how the measures of n Ach and SS relate to performance on cognitive tasks. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of three conditions (achievement, relaxed and neutral) in which they received different instructions. Subjects then filled out the WOFO and SSV questionnaires. They were then given a black design test and creativity test. The former measured convergent thinking and the latter divergent thinking.
Fontain (1994) conducted a study on achievement motivation and child rearing in different social context the sample were 288 mothers of 6th Grader (10-13yrs.). The findings of the study were that more motivated children live in more rigidity structured families than the less motivated. They have less autonomy with exceptions of rural girls socio economic status and urban girls from a low socio economic status who have more autonomy than the low motivated ones.

Elliot and Church (1997) proposed the hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation and tested in a college classroom with 178 undergraduates. Mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance goals were assessed and their antecedents and consequences examined. Results indicated that mastery goals were grounded in achievement motivation and high competence expectancies; performance-avoidance goals, in fear of failure and low competence expectancies; and performance-approach goals, in achievement motivation, fear of failure, and high competence expectancies. Mastery goals facilitated intrinsic motivation, performance-approach goals enhanced graded performance, and performance-avoidance goals proved inimical to both intrinsic motivation and graded performance. The proposed model represented an integration of classic and contemporary approaches to the study of achievement motivation.

Harackiewicz et al. (1997) investigated personality predictors of achievement goals in an introductory psychology class, as well as the
consequences of these goals for the motivation and performance of undergraduates. Two dimensions of achievement motivation (workmastery and competitive orientations; J. T. Spence & R. L. Helmreich, 1983) predicted the goals endorsed. Individuals high in workmastery were more likely to adopt mastery goals and less likely to adopt work avoidance goals, whereas competitive individuals were more likely to endorse performance and work avoidance goals. Students adopting mastery goals were more interested in the class, but students adopting performance goals achieved higher levels of performance. The results suggested that both mastery and performance goals can lead to important positive outcomes in college classes.

Mueller and Dweck (1998) made a study on praise and its effect on motivation. Praise for ability is commonly considered to have beneficial effects on motivation. Contrary to this popular belief, six studies demonstrated that praise for intelligence had more negative consequences for student’s achievement motivation than praise for effort. Fifth graders praised for intelligence were found to care more about performance goals relative to learning goals than children praised for effort. After failure, they also displayed less task persistence, less task enjoyment, more low-ability attributions, and worse task performance than children praised for effort. Finally, children praised for intelligence described it as a fixed trait more than children praised for hard work, who believed it to be subject to improvement. These findings have important implications for how achievement is best
encouraged, as well as for more theoretical issues, such as the potential cost of performance goals and the socialization of contingent self-worth.

**Busato and Prins (2000)** directed their study towards an integration of intellectual ability, learning style, personality and achievement motivation as predictors of academic success in higher education. Correlation analyses partly confirmed and party disconfirmed their expectations in a sample of 409 first year psychology students. Consistent with the literature, intellectual ability and achievement motivation were found to be associated positively with academic success. For the meaning directed, reproduction directed and application directed learning style, no positive association with academic success could be detected. The undirected learning style, however, appeared to be consistent negative predictor. For the Big Five Personality factors [extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience], a consistent, positive association for conscientiousness with academic success was found. The very first examination at the university came out as the most important predictor for academic success, even after two and three years of study.

**Covington and Mueller (2001)** wrote in their article the main purpose that is to advance an alternative perspective on the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and in particular to examine critically the assertion that these processes are antagonistic such that the will to learn for its own sake is inhibited by the presence of extrinsic, tangible rewards and
incentives such as school grades. The presumption of an antagonistic relationship largely depends on the theoretical perspective adopted. An alternative interpretation based on need achievement theory leads to distinctly different conclusions. Exploring this new perspective allows one to identify both the conditions under which intrinsic motives may coexist with extrinsic motives as well as to consider some of the means by which intrinsic motives and caring about learning can be stimulated in their own right in school settings.

Adele (2004) proposed conceptualization advances a new view that motivation is an area of giftedness in and of itself. Academic intrinsic motivation (i.e., enjoyment of school learning) is the domain focused upon in this conceptualization inasmuch as it has inherent ties to cognition, gifted intellect, and achievement. Research supported the following criteria, advanced as a beginning effort toward the development of a conceptualization of a gifted motivation construct: (a) significantly higher academic intrinsic motivation is evidenced by intellectually gifted compared to their comparison cohort; (b) academic intrinsic motivation is significantly, positively, and uniquely related to academic achievement above and beyond IQ; (c) academic intrinsic motivation evidences substantial continuity from childhood through adolescence; and (d) environment is significantly related to academic intrinsic motivation. The construct of gifted motivation serves heuristic purposes to
advance further inquiry and also has implications regarding the development and implementation of giftedness programs.

Schallert et al. (2004) described their interest in bringing together student’s emotions and their motivation for academic work as these play out across the school year. They explored three main issues. First, they considered what some view as an incompatibility between student’s use of established work habits (volitional strategies) and real enjoyment of academic tasks (what they called involvement). Rather than seeing these two approaches as diametrically opposed, they showed how volitional control can be useful in getting a students to experience involvement in a task. Conversely, they considered how involvement itself can be an incentive to student’s use of volitional strategies. A second issue had to do with students realizing that long term goals may require different volitional strategies than short term goals. Finally, they discussed the need to encourage students to develop the habit of seeking enjoyment in academic tasks because the goal of enjoyment focuses them on the rewards of deep concentration rather than on the elation of having finished a task.

Broussard and Garrison (2004) studied the relationship between motivation and academic success as better established with older children and adults than with younger. They examined the relationship between classroom motivation and academic achievement in 122 first grade and 129 third grade children from a mid sized city in the southern United States. The findings
from the study were consistent with previous researches in that higher levels of mastery motivation and judgment motivation were found to be related to higher match and reading grades in third graders. However, higher levels of mastery motivation, not judgment motivation, were related to higher math and reading grades in first grades.

Brunstein and Maier (2005) examined how implicit and self attributed needs to achieve (labeled as n Ach and san Ach, respectively) combine with self referenced and norm referenced feedback to predict effort-related (task performance) and choice related (task continuation) indexes of student's engagement in a mental concentration task. In Experimental I the authors found that in a task focused setting, task performance was predicted by the joint effect of self referenced feedback and n Ach, whereas task continuation was predicted by the joint effect of norm-referenced feedback and san Ach. In Experiment II the authors found that in an ego focused setting n Ach and san Ach interacted in the prediction of task performance but not of task continuation. Experiment III the authors found that the effects of n Ach and san Ach on student's performance were mediated by the anticipated affective value of achievement outcomes. These findings were discussed in relation to a system approach to achievement motivation.

Lens et al. (2005) contributed in the theory that in order to understand and predict student's achievement and persistent at learning activities, many contemporary motivational models consider how much students are motivated
for their school work. However, student's achievement and persistence might not only be affected by their amount of study motivation, but also by the motivation to engage in competing alternative activities, as suggested three decades age ago by Atkinson and Birch in their 'Dynamics of Action' (1970). Building on this line of theorizing the present contribution indicated that it is not only instructive to consider the level of student's motivation for these competing activates, but also the type of activities they engage in that is leisure Vs working activities. Two studies demonstrated that whereas time spent on working activities is inversely related to study motivation, attitude, persistence and academic achievement, such relationships were not found for leisure time engagement. Spending sometimes on leisure time activities does interfere with optimal learning.

Jarvenoja and Javela (2005) reported the aim of the paper was to consider the sources of emotional and motivational experiences of secondary school students (N=18), 12-15 yrs old, during computer supported collaborative learning projects. They chose the concept of volition to frame the analysis of the various kinds of descriptions the students give of their emotional experiences in collaborative inquiry. Process oriented interviews were conducted during and after lessons, and questions dealing with students self related beliefs and feelings, and the learning environment were asked. The analysis was complemented with a micro-level video analysis of two students working processes. The results showed that student's descriptions of
their emotions had several origins, five different categories were created to describe the various sources of emotional experiences. The case descriptions demonstrated how students express and control their emotions, as well as their motivation.

Yeung and McInerney (2005) administered a survey on students from a school in Hong Kong (n=199) responded to 22 items asking about their school motivation and aspirations. Structural equation models found four school motivation factors consistent with the task, effort competition and praise scale of the Inventory of School Motivation, one education aspiration factor, one career aspiration factor, and significant relations of the motivational factors with the aspiration factors. Tasks and effort orientations were found to be stronger than the other orientations and to have relatively stronger associations with education aspirations, whereas task and praise has stronger associations with career aspirations. In examining potential change in student's goal orientations and aspirations through high school years, analysis of variance found that 7th Graders had significantly higher scores in task and efforts orientations and career aspiration than 9th Grades, and higher scores in praise orientation than 11th graders. The apparent drop in motivation scores from grade 7, especially in task and effort orientations, both pertaining to a mastery orientation dimension that has been assumed to be a major driving force for excellence, calls for urgent attention to student motivation in junior high schools classes.
Tulsi (2006) suggested achievement motivation to be very powerful in transforming individuals and societies. It propels humans and their world to a significant stage of advancement. On the contrary, agreed it sinks one to the lower levels of human concerns and accountability. Achievement motivation over a period of time becomes functionally autonomous and at this point gets closer to agreed.

National Academic of Psychology (2006) published that research have demonstrated that parents of high achieving children give emphasis on independence and achievement efforts, show affectionate treatment and low degree of restriction and control towards children (Li, 1974; Radin and Epstein, 1976, Winterbottom, 1958).

Sood (2006) investigated the educational choice in relation to academic stress, achievement motivation and academic self-concept among the adolescent of the intermediate or plus two stage in their academic career. Random sampling procedures were used select the sample. 180 students studying in the secondary year intermediate in the junior colleges of Hyderabad and Secunderabad formed the sample. They were from four educational stream viz BPC (Biology), MPC (Mathematics) Commerce and Humanities (Arts). There were 90 boys and 90 Girls varying in age from 17 yrs. 19 yrs. The academic Stress Scale (Rajendra and Kaliappan, 1991), Achievement Motivation Scale (Deo Mohan, 1985) and Academic self-concept Scale (Kumar, 1998) was administered to the sample. Data was
correlation and critical ratio. The results revealed that subjects from VPS stream had significantly more academic stress and the commerce subjects exhibited low academic stress. In the BPC group, the interpersonal difficulties were found to be the major source of their stress. The medical stress also has a high need to achieve while the commerce group showed significantly least-achievement motivation. The four educational stream subjects did not vary in academic self-concept. No significantly gender differences were found in academic stress, achievement motivation and academic self-concept in the subjects of four education streams. However, in the total sample, academic stress was negatively correlated with academic self-concept and achievement motivation and positively related to academic self-concept. Girls exhibited significantly achievement than boys.

**Pandey and Ahmad (2007)** aimed at measuring the achievement motivation of adolescents in relation to their sex difference, the investigator hypothesis that boys and girls differ in terms of their achievement motivation and find the hypothesis being rejected as the achievement motivation of boys and girls in all the factors is the same with girls not being inferior to boys in any factor: It was found that the girls are more motivated than boys in the factor ‘Anticipatory Behavior’.

**Faye, C. and Sharpe, D. (2008)** investigated of the relationship between psychological need fulfillment, psychosocial development, and academic motivation in university students. Two models were tested. The 1st
model, derived from developmental theories, proposed that basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness would predict identity and intimacy achievement, which would, in turn, predict academic intrinsic motivation. A 2nd model, based on self-determination theory, proposed that identity and intimacy would predict academic motivation and that this relationship would be mediated by basic psychological needs. Results from path analyses supported the model derived from self-determination theory over the model derived from developmental theories. Competence and identity were found to be the 2 constructs most strongly associated with academic motivation. These findings supported the view that identity formation plays a critical role in facilitating academic motivation in university.

Pekrun, R; Elliot, A. J. and Maier, M. A. (2009) proposed a theoretical model linking achievement goals and achievement emotions to academic performance. This model was tested in a prospective study with undergraduates (N = 213), using exam-specific assessments of both goals and emotions as predictors of exam performance in an introductory-level psychology course. The findings were consistent with the hypotheses and supported all aspects of the proposed model. In multiple regression analysis, achievement goals (mastery, performance approach, and performance avoidance) were shown to predict discrete achievement emotions (enjoyment, boredom, anger, hope, pride, anxiety, hopelessness, and shame), achievement
emotions were shown to predict performance attainment, and 7 of the 8 focal emotions were documented as mediators of the relations between achievement goals and performance attainment. All of these findings were shown to be robust when controlling for gender, social desirability, positive and negative trait affectivity, and scholastic ability. The results were discussed with regard to the underdeveloped literature on discrete achievement emotions and the need to integrate conceptual and applied work on achievement goals and achievement emotions.

RELATED STUDIES OF ‘TEMPERAMENT’ and ‘CHARACTER’

Gaines et al. (1992) studied the child temperament; child temperament has been of interest to researchers, clinicians and caregivers for many years. The New York Longitudinal Study identified nine dimensions of child temperaments, several additional investigations have contributed to the development of this important construct. These studies and the subsequent development of temperament instruments has stimulated debate, research and opposing theories currently, there is not a single definition of temperament and there are many psychometric problems with the available temperament instruments.

Beauvale and Tokarz (1996) studied if there is any relationship between the motivation system of research workers (the main motives for scientific work) and temperament. The answer to the question was sought
Chapter -2 Review of Related Literature

using a hierarchical factor analysis of scores on the Researcher's Work Inventory of Kocowski and the Strelau Temperament Inventory (STI) of a sample of young scientific workers. One secondary and three primary factors were obtained. The secondary factor was identified as self-actualization or power motivation. This was a composite of intrinsic cognitive or achievement motivation (primary factor I), and will or conscientiousness (primary factor II). The factor will or conscientiousness was positively connected with mobility and strength of excitation (STI scales). A strong nervous system seems to be necessary for successful scientific work combining efficiency and creativity.

Sabini and Silver (1998) in their book, 'Emotion, Character, and Responsibility' examined a conflict in the way that psychologists, philosophers, and ordinary people think about character. Most of them share an intuition that emotions are central to who they are and the characters they have, even though emotions are unchosen. Yet one also shares the intuition that action, choice, and responsibility are what count about ones characters. Sabini and Silver dealt with this conflict by exploring the relations between the chosen and unchosen, moral and nonmoral, in sincerity, loyalty, sympathy, shame, guilt, and embarrassment as they affect our characters. They resolved to find an aesthetic as well as moral basis of character.

Barbara Keogh's major contributions on temperament in childhood. to the temperamental area, have been a starting point to discuss some continuing
issues in temperament and education in a book by Rothbart and Jones (1999). They have argued that the shorter list of temperament dimensions makes it feasible for educator to consider temperament-related classroom strategies that will apply to groups of children rather than to single individuals. Finally, the book discussed the applicability of concepts of temperament to the schooling of children with developmental disabilities.

Calabrese and Roberts (2002) described character at the core of leadership. Leaders with virtuous character provide benefit to their schools and communities. Whereas, the leaders with character flaws create harm for themselves as well as for their community. The ethical lapses among teachers, principals and superintendents create an even larger issue when one considers the fiduciary trust placed in educators by the public. Character development requires behavioral change as well as knowledge acquisition. Incorporation behaviour changes into university administrator preparation programs require faculty to consider recent findings in neuroscience as how the brain learns and the incorporation of these findings into program design and instruction.

Harman and Doris (2003) are of the opinion that experimental studies of human behaviour give good grounds for denying the very existence of moral character. This research, according to the authors showed human behaviour to be dependent not on character but mainly on one’s “situation”. Harman and Doris developed a number of criticisms of this view, among
them that social science experiments are ill suited to study character, in so far as they do not estimate the role of character in continuously shaping the direction of one’s life including what situations one is apt to get into the first place.

Marteinsdottir et al. (2003) investigated personality dimensions by means of the Temperament and Character Inventory (TCI) in subjects with social phobia with or without a co-existing avoidant personality disorder. Thirty one individuals with social phobia were recruited through advertisement and diagnosed with the structured clinical interview for psychiatric disorder. The social phobia subjects as compared to healthy controls of the same age, scored significantly higher in the TCI dimension measuring harm avoidance but significantly lower in persistence, self directedness, cooperativeness and self-transcendence. Presence of avoidant personality disorders in the social phobia subjects was associated with significantly higher harm avoidance particularly on the subscale shyness with strangers. In conclusion, individuals with social phobia were characterized by high comorbidity of avoidant personality disorders and deviations in TCI personality dimensions. Enhanced harm avoidance was the most prominent personality trait. The observed deviations in TCI dimensions were primarily related to the social phobia itself and not to the presence of concurrent personality disorders.
Gillespie *et al.* (2003) determined whether Cloninger’s revised 7-factor model of personality showed incremental validity over his four dimensions of temperament. A sample of 2517 Australian twins aged over 50 between 1993 and 1995 returned completed self-reported measures of Self-directedness, Cooperativeness, and Self-transcendence from Cloninger’s Temperament and Character Inventory. Many of these twins had participated in a 1988 study containing Cloninger’s temperament measures of Harm Avoidance, Novelty Seeking, Reward Dependence and Persistence. Contrary to theoretical expectations, univariate analyses revealed that familial aggregation for the character dimensions could be entirely explained by additive gene action alone. Although temperament explained 26, 37 and 10% of additive genetic variance in Self-directedness, Cooperativeness and Self-transcendence, respectively, seven genetic factors were required to explain the genetic variance among the TPQ dimensions, and almost all of the non-shared environmental variance was unique to each dimension of character. The results indicated that the inclusion of all seven dimensions in a taxonomy of personality was warranted.

Vaidya (2004) studied the identification of the relative influence of temperament in choosing a specialty in medical profession. A Sociodemographic and personal experiences questionnaire along with 240 questions of temperament and character inventory was distributed to 682 medical students. The scores for 6 medical specialties were examined using
analyses of variance, multivariate of variance and discriminate analysis. And
the result revealed that the students choosing surgery, emergency medicine,
and obstetrics and Gynecology were higher on novelty seeking than other
students. Future surgeons were lower in harm avoidance and reward
dependence than the others students choosing primary care specialties,
emergency medicines and obstetrics/gynecology were all high on reward
dependence, with pediatrics being highest.

closeness and intimacy' discussed intimacy and closeness in the light of some
of the current research on adult temperament, which is defined as inborn
biological differences affecting style of behavior in a wide variety of
situations. In his book closeness is viewed as an emotional, cognitive and
behavioral phenomena and intimacy is conceptualized as a subset of closeness
that is the emotional experience of it. Aron discussed about adult
temperament, and then proceeded to research and theory regarding its
relationship to closeness by considering one such temperament trait, referred
to as sensory processing sensitivity and three types of effects that the
characteristics associated with this trait, or any trait, have no closeness. These
three effects are actor, partner, and relationships effects. Although the
chapters are predominately theory based and research oriented, it also
benefits from the author’s clinical experience when it has seemed useful in
predicting research hypotheses.
Carr (2004) discussed that it is a central to virtue ethics both that morally sound action follows from virtuous character, and that virtuous character is itself the product of habitual right judgment and choice that, in short, we choose our moral characters. However, any such view may appear to encounter difficulty in those cases of moral conflict where an agent cannot simultaneously act (e.g) honestly and sympathetically, and in which the choices of agents seem to favour the construction of different moral characters. Carr argued against counter arguments, for a view of virtue ethics which embraces the diversity of moral character.

Todd and Freier (2004) described a Gestalt model of character structure and function from the point of view of Gestalt process theory in coordination with E. Tulving’s (1985) concept of procedural memory from cognitive and development psychology. Most theories of behavior and therapy have tended to focus on why behaviors are present. By contrast, the theory and practice of Gestalt therapy has focused primarily on how behaviors are present. Current developmental research was used to clarify how character as an operating system is developed. This conceptual framework permits a description of how character functions and has implications for creating change in psychotherapy.

Rothbart (2004) suggested historically, developmental psychology has been split into the areas of social development and cognitive development with the cognitive area most recently dominating the field, nevertheless, basic
questions about development often require more integrative approaches, cutting across social and cognitive areas, while taking advantage of recent discoveries in psychobiology and our knowledge of general principles of development. Presenting recent advances in the study of temperament as an example, it is suggested that rather than emphasizing distinctions between areas, it may be preferable to offer general training in developmental psychology, with a student’s specializations organized around research questions rather than area boundaries. Advances in temperament research include refinement of our understanding of basic dimensions of temperament, identification of the construct of effortful control, and making links to the neuroscience of development.

Cloninger et al. (2004) studied the nature of the relationship between personality and bipolar affective disorders. They have studied personality in bipolar patients by using the Temperament Character Inventory (TCI). And it was found that bipolar patients were significantly higher in harm avoidance (HA) and lower in reward dependence (RD), self directedness (SD), and Cooperativeness (C) than controls. Bipolar patients are more fatigable, less sentimental, more independent, less purposeful, less resourceful less empathic, less helpful, less pure heated and have less impulse control than controls.

Blair et al. (2004) investigated the contribution of temperament styles and emotion coping strategies to the development of preschooler’s social
competence and behavior problems. The ability to cope with emotion was found to be more important than temperament alone in the development of prosocial behavior. The results indicated that the use of passive coping strategies may play a significant role in the development of maladaptive behaviors in young children. Specifically, the use of passive coping strategies was found to moderate the relationship between temperament dimensions in predicting externalizing and internalizing maladaptive behaviors. When combined with extremely negative temperamental dispositions, just facing the problems was discovered to be beneficial for preschoolers, which encourages the use of preventive or interventional strategies in the classroom to develop constructive emotion regulation skills in young children.

Richter et al. (2004) aimed to study a cross-cultural comparison of personality traits between individuals from two very different cultures and refugees who resettled several years before from one to the other. Four hundred forty four Swedish individuals of the normal population; and 100 Iranian refugees in Sweden, and a group of 335 individuals from Tehran, capital of Iran, were investigated by means of the Temperament and Character Inventory (TCI). Iranians are those that are most frequently correctly classified followed by the Swedish based on temperament scores by means of a Discriminance analyses. Iranian refugees in Sweden were classified to about 50 per cent as Swedish and to slightly more than one-third as Iranians. Especially concerning character, 4 per cent only could be
correctly classified as refugees. The results gave some perspective on the adaptation process and personality changes in refugees several years after resettlement in another country with a complete different culture.

Sarros et. al. (2005) examined self-assessed character among Australian managers in relation to selected demographic variables of these managers, and to establish the initial psychometric properties of the Virtuous Leadership Scale used to measure dimensions of character. Data were collected through a national online survey of managers utilizing the membership base of the Australian Institute of Management. The findings revealed that self-assessed character is multifaceted and varies across specific demographics (gender, age, level of seniority, years as an executive), and is subject to some degree of social desirability bias. Further research is warranted to explore these outcomes and relationships. The study was limited by national culture and management self-report data that need verification across different national cultures, work settings, and work groups. The findings indicated that integrity is a key character attribute reported by managers, but the results requires further validation across industry sectors and other organizational contexts. The findings suggested the need for further examination of character as an important component of leadership success, strategy, and impact. The study identified attributes of character linked to selected demographic (personal and professional) variables of practicing
managers, and points the way for further examination of the part character has to play in the leadership of organizations.

**Chang (2005)** explored the temperamental characteristics of Chinese youth, age 9-12, in Beijing, People's Republic of China [PRC] using the revised Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire (EATQR Ellis & Rothbart, 2001). An exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the complete responses from 687 children and 428 mothers. The factorial structure based on Chinese children’s self reports include seven first order and three second order factors, differing from Ellis & Rothbart’s structure (2001). Significant gender differences were found in both the children’s and mother’s reports. An analysis of reports by mothers indicated an interaction between gender and only child status affecting the temperamental in the formation of their respective children’s personalities, but rated it less important than non-individualistic factors such as parental discipline and school education.

**Lapstey and Power (2005)** in the title of their work gave the premise and structure. The central premise is that important insights about character and character education will be forthcoming only when there are adequate advances in character psychology. How one understanding the moral formation of persons must be conditioned on what we know about personality and development. How we manage the moral education of character must be conditioned on what we know about selfhood and identity. They examined
critical issues in character psychology, where character psychology is understood broadly to include not only psychological literatures that address moral functioning, but also recent trends in ethic that take these literatures seriously as a point of departure for ethic theory. They described the challenge of character education in several contexts, including schools, families and sports. And they also identified a number of unifying themes evident among the various chapter along with five prospects for productive interdisciplinary work in character psychology and education.

Kobori et al. (2005) studied the individuals temperament of two perfectionism traits in 428 Japanese undergraduate students using the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS) and Temperament and Character Inventory (TCI). The results showed that self oriented perfectionism is associated with the temperamental characteristics of low novelty seeking, high reward dependence, and high persistence. In contrast, socially prescribed perfectionism is associated with low novelty seeking and high harm avoidance. Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that these temperaments primarily predicted self oriented perfectionism, controlling for socially prescribed perfectionism. These temperamental characteristics did not predict socially prescribed perfectionism when self oriented perfectionism was controlled.

Chang and Burns (2005) examined how individual differences in children’s temperament and motivation were related to attention skills in
children from economically disadvantage families. A total of 73 mother-child dyads participated in this study. Children were the ages of 3 and 5, and all attended a Head Start analysis, the hypotheses that effortful control (an aspect of temperament) and motivation would individually and collectively relate to attention skills were supported. The study supported the importance of understanding attention as a multifaceted concept (Posner & Peterson, 1990) that relates to cognitive, socio emotional and motivational systems.

Puttonen et al. (2005) studied Cloninger’s psychobiological model of temperament and character postulates that each of the temperament dimensions is associated with a specific emotional experience, depending on the situational cues, in a variety of challenging experimental tasks. The participants were 91 healthy young adults whose temperament was assessed with the temperament and character inventory (TCI). The subjects rated their emotions during each tasks and rest period using an adjective checklist. Novelty seeking was associated with dullness during monotonous and aversive situations and with a higher level of pleasantness during the initial baseline period and the appetitive situation. Harm avoidance was associated with higher levels of fear and unpleasant emotions and lower levels of positively valenced emotions. The study provided support for the validity of Cloninger’s temperament dimensions as predictors of emotions responses during different challenges. Especially, novelty seeking and harm avoidance appear to have a significant influence on emotional experiences.
Ramos et al (2005) examined the child temperament as a moderator of the link between family conflict and child behavior problems. Temperament assessed in early childhood was used to predict the relation between family conflict and externalizing behavior problems measured during the early elementary school year. For children with difficult temperament, a strong association between subsequent family conflict and behavior adjustment was predicted; for children with easy or immediate temperaments, low to moderate associations were predicted. These hypotheses were tested across 3 temperament groups (easy, intermediate, and difficult). Data were collected from 108 children and families participating in the Fullerton Longitudinal Study of ages 3 though 10 yrs. Consistent with the hypotheses, the data provided support for the moderating role of temperament in predicting the association between family conflict and child externalizing behavior problems. These findings suggested that temperamental difficultness operates as a vulnerability factor with respect to the development of children’s behavior problems in families with high conflict.

Gleason et al. (2005) investigated the influence of three components of temperament [activity level, impulsivity and soothability] on children’s friendships. Children (40 girls, 35 boys) aged 43 to 69 months responded to a socio-metric interview and teachers provided temperament ratings. The probability of children choosing particular classmates as friends was evaluated based on the genders and temperaments of the dyed. A logistic choice model
revealed that the choice of friends highly soothability. Furthermore, the
gender of the chooser and the activity level of the friend interacted such that
girls whose low activity level friend and boys whose high activity level
friends. In addition, the likelihood of a child being chosen as a friend based
on gender and temperament was significantly corrected with popularity for
girls, but not for boys.

Slobodskaya et al. (2005) examined the predictive power of three
temperament/ personality measures—the EPQ which assessed dimensions of
Eysenck’s model, the Gray-Wilson Personality Questionnaire (GSUPQ) which assessed dimensions of Gray’s model, and the revised Dimensions of Temperament Survey (DOTS-R) - on adjustment measured by academic achievement and mental health with a sample of 255 Russian adolescents. Academic achievement in boys was predicted by parent’s education level and intact family; in girls, parent education, DOTS-R Flexibility and General Rhythmicity; together accounted for 31% of variance. Conduct problems in boys were predicted by GWPQ Behavior Activation and DOTS-R general Rhythmicity; in girls, the only significant predictor was flexibility. Emotional problems were influenced by living conditions and GWPQ Behavioral Inhibition. Total Difficulties were predicted by living conditions, flexibility and psychoticism.

Grazyna and Nazan (2006) focused on children’s conscience, an inner
guiding system responsible for the gradual emergence and maintenance of
self-regulation. They reviewed research on two major sets of influences that predict individual differences in moral emotions and moral conduct: biologically based temperament and socialization in the family. Two inhibitory systems of temperament—fearfulness and effortful control—and several features of socialization, including the style of parental discipline and the quality of the parent-child relationship was explained. Early conscience is an important early personality system, coherently organized, relatively stable over time, and subject to individual differences that emerges as a result of a complex interplay between children's temperamental individuality and socialization in the family.

Niklas et al. (2006) examined the relationship of Cloninger's temperament factors—Novelty Seeking, Harm Avoidance, Reward Dependence, and Persistence—to perceived threat and stress and performance appraisals during different challenges, i.e., mental arithmetic, the reaction time task, and three public speaking tasks, among 97 young adult men and women. Temperament was measured by the Temperament and Character Inventory. The results showed that, although some of the predictions made by Cloninger's model were confirmed, some were unsupported. The results revealed also some associations between temperament and cognitive appraisals that were intelligible, but not predicted by Cloninger's model. There were considerable domain specificity and gender differences in the associations found. Cloninger's temperament dimensions are related to threat,
stress, and performance appraisals, thereby influencing individual's stress vulnerability, adjustment, and personal functioning.

**Cuneyt and Bilge (2006)** studied to evaluate the prevalence of suicide in Turkish male substance dependents, and to investigate the relationship of suicide attempt history with childhood abuse and neglect, alexithymia, and temperament and character dimensions of personality. Rates of physical, emotional abuse and neglect, self-mutilation and being alexithymic were found to be higher and ages at first substance use and regular substance use were lower in the group with suicide attempt history (SAH). Mean scores of "difficulty in identifying feelings" (DIF) and "difficulty in describing feelings" (DDF), subscale EOT of Childhood Abuse and Neglect Questionnaire, Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20) TAS-20 were higher in the SAH group. Among temperament and character dimensions of the TCI, only "Self-directedness" and "Cooperativeness" were lower in (SAH) and there were no significant differences between groups in terms of other subscales. Age and Self-directedness score of TCI were determinants for suicide attempt. In particular, young drug users with low Self-directedness scores could be the target population in order to prevent suicidal behavior. The study also suggested that in substance-dependent patients, in the background of all suicidal behavior, childhood abuse and neglect must be evaluated.
Revell and Arthur (2007) explored student teacher’s attitudes to and experience of character and values education in schools and looks at their assessment of the opportunities provided by schools for the development of character. The data from over 1000 student teachers in two universities indicated that while they are overwhelmingly in favour of developing their skills in the area of moral development, their opportunities to do this are uneven and are dependent on their course and their teaching placement school. Whilst character education is seen as part of citizenship education in the school curriculum in England, the data indicated that it is not part of the formal curriculum of teacher education.

Greenway, A. P et. al. (2007) described that people use both positive and negative religious coping strategies, and do so in the context of how they perceive their relationship with God, which means that both require individuals to acquire some degree of self transcendence. The study attempted to show that self transcendence is incorporated in both positive and negative coping strategies. The sample consisted of 190 practising Anglicans and Catholics. They completed RCOPE from which two variables measuring positive coping and negative coping were then constructed, the Self Transcendence Scale (ST) the item content of which is largely positive and the Spiritual Transcendence Scale (STS) of the Temperament and Character Inventory, which acknowledges negative as well as positive experiences. They also completed a scale, God Cares, measuring a person's perception of
God as caring. In a series of hierarchical regression analyses, all three variables, the perception of God as caring, and both the positive and negative coping variables predicted ST and all of its subscales except one. The positive coping variable largely predicted STS, the perception of God as caring variable less so and the negative coping variable not at all. The findings were interpreted as suggesting that both perceiving God as caring and using positive coping strategies limit the problematic feelings associated with negative coping strategies, allowing the self transcendence implicit in them to appear.

Rudasill. K. M and Konold. T. R (2008) research findings indicate that children's social competence has been linked to successful transition to formal school. The purpose of this study was to examine the contributions of children's temperament to teacher's ratings of their social competence from kindergarten through 2nd grade. Children (N = 1,364) from the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Early Child Care Research Network participated in this study. Mothers rated children's shyness, attentional focusing, and inhibitory control with the Children's Behavior Questionnaire at 4½ years, and teachers rated children's social competence with three subscales (cooperation, assertion, and self-control) of the Social Skills Rating System at kindergarten, 1st, and 2nd grade. Latent growth curve analysis indicated that both shyness and effortful control contributed to children's social competence. Bolder children were likely to have higher
assertion ratings, and shyer children with greater attentional focusing were likely to have higher assertion ratings. Shyer children and children with greater inhibitory control and attentional focusing were likely to have higher teacher ratings of self-control and cooperation. **Practice or Policy:** Findings highlighted the importance of considering child temperament characteristics when understanding children's social competence and successful adjustment to kindergarten. Information might help parents, preschool teachers, and early elementary teachers to prepare children who may be at particular risk for lower social competence.

**Yagmurlu, B and Sanson, A (2008)** investigated the direct and indirect roles of parenting, child temperament and sociocultural context in predicting prosocial behaviour as identified by behavioural assessments and parent and teacher ratings. Comparisons of Australian children and Turkish children living in Australia allowed examination of cultural similarities and differences in levels of prosocial behaviours and in their predictors. Participants were 153 Australian 4-6-year-old children and 58 children with a Turkish background recruited from childcare centres serving low- and middle-class communities. Turkish and Australian children were similar in their levels of prosocial development, but the factors that predicted prosocial behaviour were somewhat different. Hierarchical multiple regression showed that maternal warmth and child persistence predicted prosocial behaviour for the Australian sample. For the Turkish sample, obedience-demanding
behaviour had a facilitating effect upon prosocial development. The results are discussed in relation to cultural norms and their impact on children through parenting practices.

Paulussen-Hoogeboom. M. C et. al. (2008) study focused on relations between preschool-aged children's perceived "difficult" temperament (defined as high negative emotionality) and observed maternal sensitive responsiveness in the context of maternal parenting stress. Design. Participants were fifty-nine 3-year-olds and their mothers. Mothers completed questionnaires for child temperament and parenting stress. Maternal sensitive responsiveness was observed during a structured play session in the home three to five months later. Results. The relation between higher levels of child negative emotionality and greater maternal sensitive responsiveness was qualified by an interaction between parenting stress and sex of the child. In boys, higher levels of negative emotionality were associated with greater maternal sensitive responsiveness, but only for mothers experiencing low parenting stress. In girls, higher levels of negative emotionality were associated with greater maternal sensitive responsiveness, but only for mothers experiencing high parenting stress. Conclusion. The degree to which mothers from middle to high socioeconomic backgrounds can adapt their behavior to the needs of their children depended on child negative emotionality, experienced parenting stress, and the sex of the child.
Li. I et. al (2008) collected data from 211 elementary school children in central Taiwan over four years, the role of temperament in science achievement was examined with multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) with repeated measures design. The results revealed that the student's science achievement is stable over time. The task orientation characteristics (i.e., distractibility, hyperactivity, and persistence) identified by previous research as important in mathematics and reading achievement are not consistent with the findings of this study that although the impacts of distractibility and persistence are significant, the simple effect of activity level on science achievement was not significant. However, the interaction effect of activity level and persistence is significant. Further break down analyses conducted to pursue the interaction effect revealed that: (1) persistence has a consistent significant positive effects on all children over the years, except for the ones with high activity level (the upper 25th percentile); and (2) activity level has significant negative effects on high persistence (the upper 25th percentile) children only, and the interaction effect of activity level increases over time—the older the child the more significant the influence. Also, the tendency of approach/withdraw has significant impact on science achievement.

The educational implications of the findings included: (1) teachers of high activity students with high persistence might need to consider the match between children's interests and contents of instruction; (2) a good match between children's individual differences in distractibility, persistence, and
approach needs to be considered in contents, expectations, and interactions of the instruction.

Wilhelm. G. M (2008) described character broadly by leading authorities, including concepts such as practicing apt behavior and teaching right from wrong. Virtue and moral undertones tend to pervade most experts use of character, although in secular settings, the notion of ethics is more prominent. Overall, developing in students a desire for the good is how most authorities understand the construct. Implementing character in the public and Christian schools, apart from a Judeo-Christian view of the construct, leaves schools open to values clarification, situational ethics, and other post-modern foundational options. Character development, at least at the conceptual level, is at the heart of all education—Christian or non-Christian.

Janoff-B. R.; Sheikh, S. and Hepp, S. (2009) made a distinction between two forms of morality on the basis of approach-avoidance differences in self-regulation. Prescriptive morality is sensitive to positive outcomes, activation-based, and focused on what we should do. Proscriptive morality is sensitive to negative outcomes, inhibition-based, and focused on what we should not do. Seven studies have profiled these two faces of morality, support their distinct motivational underpinnings, and provide evidence of moral asymmetry. Both are well-represented in individual’s moral repertoire and equivalent in terms of moral weight, but proscriptive morality is condemnatory and strict, whereas prescriptive morality is commendatory.
and not strict. More specifically, in these studies proscriptive morality was perceived as concrete, mandatory, and duty-based, whereas prescriptive morality was perceived as more abstract, discretionary, and based in duty or desire; proscriptive immorality resulted in greater blame, whereas prescriptive morality resulted in greater moral credit.

CONCLUSION ON THE BASIS OF THE SURVEY OF RELATED STUDIES REFLECTING THE IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

After collecting the related literature for all the four variables from different journals, books, encyclopedia and websites, the investigator has now come to a valid conclusion that as far as emotional intelligence is concerned it has earned its value and is now a hot topic of personality psychology for over a decade and there are researches of emotional intelligence with other personality variables except the ones under consideration. Temperament and character has been used together in almost all the researches of clinical type and only a few had been observed in the educational field with other variables. Need achievement, a very important variable in educational field has not been used recently in the last decade as much as it was expected. As compared to emotional intelligence, temperament and character, the studies of need achievement are fewer.

The several studies show the relationship between temperament and motivation system (Beauvale and Tokarz ,1996). Similarly Barbara Keogh's
research and thinking on temperament in childhood is paving way to the importance of temperament in education. Temperament related classroom strategies may prove to be helpful in learning. Puttonen et al. (2005) study provided support for the validity of Cloninger's temperament dimensions as predictors of emotions responses during different challenges. Especially, Novelty Seeking and Harm Avoidance appear to have a significant influence on emotional experiences.

Character has been a topic of discussion from time immemorial (Sabini and Silver, 1998) found an aesthetic and moral basis of character. Calabrese and Roberts (2002) described character at the core of leadership. Leaders with virtuous character provide benefit to their schools and communities. Mayer and Casey (2000) examined the scientific evidence for whether emotional intelligence underpins social and emotional learning and how emotional intelligence is related to success and whether it is central to character.

For Herbert Spencer "education has for its object the formation of character". The complex of all the attributes--behavioral, temperamental, emotional and mental--that characterize a unique individual. Cloninger deals with the psychobiological aspect of character. The question for the educators is how to understand character and what aspects of educative process can contribute to character formation.
Just like motives are central to any theory of personality and therefore has a strong education implication so are our emotions. Motives are emotions in actions. Temperament and character are both biological and psychological. We cannot disregard temperament and character from any understanding of human behaviour and therefore these implications to the field of education cannot be overlooked.

Therefore researcher has made a modest attempt to understand the relationship between all these variables emotional intelligence, temperament, character and need achievement. Also the researcher is concerned with finding out the factor structure i.e common factors, if any, among these variables. Moreover all the four variables are a part of personality so how far are they related with each other may prove to be a novel research according to the investigator.