CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
The major goal of formal education is to equip students with the intellectual tools, efficacy beliefs, and intrinsic interests needed to educate themselves in a variety of pursuits throughout their lifetime. It requires high intelligence, good personality traits, positive self-efficacy beliefs, and effective occupational choice.

A number of studies were conducted to find out the relation between self-efficacy, intelligence, personality, and occupational choice.

2.0.0. RESEARCH REVIEWS ON SELF-EFFICACY

Bandura (1986), emphasized that ones mastery experiences are the most influential sources of self-efficacy information, which has important implication for the self-enhancement model of academic achievement, which contends that, to increase students achievement in school, educational efforts should focus on altering students beliefs of their self-worth or competence.

Schunk (1981) study on persuasions involve exposure to the verbal judgement that others provide are a weaker source of efficacy information than mastery or vicarious experiences, but persuaders can play an important part in the development of an individuals self-beliefs.
Brown & Inouye (1978) observed that a model's failure has a more negative effect on the self-efficacy of observers when observers judge themselves as having comparable ability to the model. If, on the other hand, observers judge their capability as superior to the model's capability, failure of the model does not have a negative effect.

Zeldin & Pajares, (1997), individuals also develop self-efficacy beliefs as a result of verbal persuasions they receive from others.

Erikson (1959, 1980) caution that a weak ego is not strengthened by being persistently bolstered and that "children cannot be fooled by empty praise and condescending encouragement. Rather a strong ego, secured in its identity by a strong society, does not need and in fact is immune to any attempt at artificial inflation.

Hackett & Betz (1989) assessed self-efficacy beliefs by asking individuals to report the level generality, and strength of their confidence to accomplish a task in school setting.

Shell, Colvin, & Brunung (1989) assessed self-efficacy beliefs by asking to perform reading or writing tasks.


Meece, Wigfield & Eccles, (1990), assessed self-efficacy beliefs by asking students to report how well they expect to do in an academic subject.
Harter, (1982) assessed self-efficacy beliefs by asking whether they understand what they read i.e. perceptions of competence.

Marsh, (1992), assessed self-efficacy beliefs by asking whether they are good in academic subject i.e. academic domain specific self-concept.

Meece, (1990), assessed self-efficacy beliefs by ability perceptions.

Lent & Hackett (1987) rightly observed that specificity and precision can be purchased at the expense of external validity and practical relevance.

Bandura (1997) argued that efficacy beliefs are multifaceted and contextual but the level of generality of the efficacy items with in a given domain of functioning varies depending on the degree of situational resemblance and foresee ability of tasks demands.

Lent et al. (1993) showed how efficacy judgements can be tailored to varying levels of academic outcomes and still remain highly predictive. They compared student's confidence to succeed in math-related course with three career related outcomes intention to take the courses listed on the instrument, Grades obtained in math related course that students took during the subsequent term, and interest in the math course listed on the instrument. Self-efficacy beliefs were predictive on each account.

Harter, (1990), described the concept of self-concept as a generalized form of self-efficacy

Marsh et al. (1991) compared the direct effect of achievement on the math self-concept and self-efficacy of fifth graders and reported a stronger direct effect on self-concept than self-efficacy.

Chapmen and Tunmer (1995) found that the reading performance of beginning readers during their first year of schooling had a stronger effect on their subsequent self-efficacy than on their reading self-concept.

Relich (1983), cited in March (1990), assessed math self-concept and math achievement, performance on a mathematics task, and self-efficacy for the task. Achievement correlated equally strongly with domain-specific self-efficacy and self-concept. Specific performance on the math task was more strongly correlated with specifically assessed self-efficacy than with domain-specific self-concept.

Pajares and Miller (1994) used path analysis and found that item-specific math self-Efficacy beliefs were more predictive of a mathematics problem-solving than were domain-specific self-concept beliefs.
Mone, Baker, and Jeffries (1995) also reported that self-efficacy had greater predictive validity for academic performance than did self-esteem.


Bouffard-bouchard (1990) experimentally induced high or low self-efficacy in college students by providing positive or negative feedback and found that students whose self-efficacy had been raised used more efficient problem-solving strategies on a novel task and outperformed students whose self-efficacy had been lowered.

Skaalvik and Rankin (1996) subjected self-concept items and domain-specific self-efficacy items to confirmatory factor analysis and discovered that they loaded on the same factor, leading them to conjecture that the two may be different measures of the same construct. These findings led them to suggest that the traditional distinction between self-concept and self-efficacy may have been overstated in the literature.

Graham and Weiner (1995) observed, what cannot be disputed is Bandura argument that self-efficacy has been a much more consistent predictor of behaviour and behaviour change than any of the other closely related expectancy variables.
Collins (1982) identified children of low, middle, and high mathematics ability who had, within each ability level, either high or low mathematics.

Self-efficacy, After instruction the children were given new problems to solve and an opportunity to rework those they missed. Collins reported that ability is related to performance. But that regard less of ability level children with high self-efficacy level completed more problems correctly and reworked more of the ones they missed.

Bouffard-Bouchard, Parent and Larivee (1991), found that students with high self-efficacy engaged in more effective self-regulatory strategies at each level of ability.

Berry (1987) revealed that self-efficacy enhances student's memory performance by enhancing persistence.

Lent, Brown & Larkin (1984, 1986), in studies college students who pursue science and engineering courses, high self-efficacy has been demonstrated to influence the academic persistence necessary to maintain high academic achievement.

Zimmerman (1991) and his associates have been instrumental in tracing the relationships among self-efficacy perceptions, self-efficacy for self-regulation, academic self-regulatory process, and academic achievement.

Finding in this area suggest that students who believe they are capable of performing academic tasks use more cognitive and met cognitive strategies and persist longer than those who do not (Pintrich & Garcia, 1991). Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) reported a correlation between academic self-efficacy and both cognitive strategy use and self-regulation through use of Meta cognitive strategies. Academic self-efficacy also correlated with semester and final year grades. In class seat work and homework, exams, and quizzes, and essays, and reports. Pintrich and De Groot concluded that self-efficacy played a "facilitative" role in the process of cognitive engagement that raising self-efficacy beliefs might lead to increased use of cognitive strategies and, thereby higher performance. And that "students need to have both the will and the skill to be successful in classrooms".

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Some researchers have assessed judgments of self-efficacy in terms of particularized self-perceptions of competence highly consistent with their criteria task being assessed. This assessment requires that, if the criteria task involves solving specific mathematics problem, the efficacy assessment asks students to provide judgments of confidence to solve similar problems, if the task involves reading comprehension, students are asked to provide judgments of their perceived capability correctly answer various questions that tap comprehension of the main ideas in a Passage (Schunk, & rice 1993; Shell, Murphy, & Burning, 1989) if the task involves writing an essay, students are asked to provide judgments that they possess the various composition, grammar, and mechanical skill on which their writing performance is assessed. (Pajares & Johnson, 1994, 1996, Pajares & Valiant, 1997, in press, Shell et al. 1989, 1995.)

Schunk (1996) and his colleagues have reported on numerous studies that have examined the role of particularized self-efficacy beliefs in various academic contexts. Schunk (1981) used path analysis to show that modeling treatment increased persistent and accuracy on division problems by rising.

D.A. Adeyemo and Bolaogunyemi (1985) worked on study "emotional intelligence and self-efficacy as predictors of occupational stress among academic staff in a Nigerian university". The study seeks to explain the interactive and relative effects of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy on occupational stress of university academic staff.
The results indicated that the two independent variables, when taken together, were effective in predicting occupational stress. Each of the variables contributed significantly to the prediction of occupational stress with self-efficacy making higher contribution to the prediction of occupational stress. On the basis of this finding, it is suggested that emotional intelligence programming and self-efficacy intervention techniques will benefit teachers immensely in coping stress.

Hong, Traci (1990) in their study on "the influence of internet self-efficacy and search task on locating credible health related information online" explored the effect that internet self-efficacy and search task specificity have on the self-efficacy outcome and performance of finding online health related sites which contain attributes of web site accountability as established by the AMA. When search task specificity was taken into account, there was an internet self-efficacy and task specificity interaction where high internet self-efficacy participants locate sites higher in web site.

Accountability in the general search task (the more complex search task) than their low self-efficacy counterparts. There was no significant difference in credibility perceptions for the specific search task (the less complex task). High internet self-efficacy participants demonstrated better online performance than their low internet self-counterparts.
Valley, Hayashi, Garner-Holman, and Giacobbi (1998) studied on sport confidence, the athletes rated, first, achievement (includes self-mastery and demonstration of ability), second, self-regulation (includes physical/mental preparation and physical presentation), and third, climate (includes, social support, coaches leadership, vicarious experience, environmental comfort and situational favorableness) in order of perceived priority as the most important sources of improving sport confidence.

Nancy E. Betz & Karla L Klein the Ohio university Karen M Taylor (2000) study on decision making self-efficacy scale describes the development and evaluation of a short form of the widely used career decision-making self-efficacy scale (CDMSE Taylor & Betz 1983). The psychometric characteristics and relationship to the career decision scale (CDS Osipow 1987) and the vocational identity scale (Holland, Johnston, & Asama, 1993) the potential utility of a more efficient short form of the scale for use in career counseling interventions will be discussed.

Kang, Jeonghee (1998) in his study on memory self-efficacy and memory performance in older males reported secondary analysis of data on 157 males from a larger, study of predictors of memory performance in community-dwelling elders. Measures included depression, memory performance, Meta memory, and memory-self-
efficacy. An unusual finding was the multimodal distribution of memory self-efficacy strength scores. The high efficacy groups were significantly younger had larger scores on capacity (+ = high capacity and change (+ = greater stability) these findings provide new evidence that the memory self-efficacy of aging males influences their perceptions of cognitive performance related to memory.

Lent Brown & Hackett's (1999) The study of the effect of family environment, personality and self-efficacy on career indecision of college students is designed to investigate the utility of social cognitive theory to the understanding of career decision. The purpose of the study was to test a casual model of environment and person factors that incorporated key elements of social cognitive theory to career indecision of college students.

By means of a structural equation model, Hypothesis regarding specific direct and indirect influences among family Environment constructs. i.e., (Family relationship, family structure,), personality constructs (neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, conscientiousness), self-efficacy constructs (technical and scientific self-efficacy, aesthetic self-efficacy), and career indecision chronically indecision, developmental indecision, global indecision) were investigated.
G.V. Caprara, (1999) The study on the role of perceived cognitive and environmental barriers on the self-efficacy beliefs as shapes of children's aspirations and career trajectories is a structural model of the network of sociocognitive influences that shape children's career aspirations and trajectories. Familial. Socio-economic status is linked to children's career trajectories only indirectly through its effect on parent's perceived efficacy and academic aspirations. The impact of parental self-efficacy and aspirations on their children's perceived career efficacy and academic aspirations. Children's perceived academic, social, and self-regulatory efficacy influence the types of occupational activities for which they judge themselves to be efficacious both directly and through their impact on academic aspirations. Perceived occupational self-efficacy gives direction to the kinds of career pursuits children seriously consider for their life's work and those they disfavor. Children perceived efficacy rather than their actual academic achievement is the key determinants of their perceived occupational self-efficacy and preferred choice of work life. Analysis of gender difference reveals that perceived occupational self-efficacy predicts traditionality of career choice.

Don E Bradley and James A. Roberts (1987) worked on self-employment and job satisfaction: investigating the role of self-efficacy, depression, and seniority. They said first self-employed persons should enjoy higher job satisfaction than others. Second, a portion of the association between job satisfaction and self-employment should be
explained by higher levels of self-efficacy and by lower levels of depression among the self-employed compared to others. Third, self-employment veterans are a select group and should be different systematically from self-employment new comers with respect to reported job satisfaction. Findings offer support for the first and second arguments above but not the third. Post-hoc analysis suggests that among the newly self-employed, the association between job satisfaction and self-employment depends on both the quantity and quality of time invested in the business. Implications of these findings and directions for further research are needed.

Kristine Haertl (2002) worked on persons with mental illness often experience disruption in daily occupations. Routines and habits. This article presents results of two separate studies designed to explore time use and occupations of person's either mental illness living in Japan and America. Common themes emerged including the importance of engagement in normalizing occupations, the role of productive activities in contributing to life satisfaction, the need for structure amidst opportunities for personal occupational choice. And the relationship between a lack of daily routine and personal dissatisfaction. The literature is reviewed and the studies are summarized, compared, and discussed in relation to implications for occupational therapy.

Tricia prodaniuk, Ronald C Plotnikoff, John C Spence, Phillip M Wilson (2006) worked on the influence of self-efficacy and outcome expectations on the relationship between perceived environment and
physical activity in the workplace. Recent research contends that ecological approaches may be particularly useful for understanding and promoting physical activity participation in various settings including the workplace.

Yet within the physical activity domain there is a lack of understanding of how ecological environment factors influence behavior. Thus the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between perceived environments, social-cognitive variables, and physical activity behaviors.

Florida state university has worked on self-efficacy, vocational interests, and ability self(2007) the study investigated the relationships among self-efficacy, interests and ability self-estimates in career decision making as measured by the self-directed search and strong interest inventory participants were 239 colleges students enrolled in psychology course at a large public university. The RIASEC structure of interests and self-efficacy was found to be similar due to strong positive correlations among the constructs. Ability self-estimate and self-efficacy was also positively correlated. Features of the SII and the SDS in relation to career decision making and career counseling re analyzed and discussed.

Susan D. Phillips and Anne R. Inhofe (2007) worked on women and career development it reviews the vocational experiences of
women as they have been revealed in the literature during the past decade. The review considered primarily empirical literature findings are sampled relative to women's self-concept development, readiness for vocational choices, actual choices made, work-force entry, experiences at work, and retirement.

2.1.0 RESEARCH REVIEWS ON INTELLIGENCE

Cohen (1959) made an analysis of the factorial structure of the Wechsler intelligence scale for children (WISC) at ages 7.6, 10.6, and 13.6. Five Correlated factors were found consistently in three age groups verbal comprehension I and II, perceptual organization, Freedom from distractibility, and a quasispecific factor. These were essentially the same factors that were found in adults on the Wechsler adult intelligence scale. A second order general factor (originally British) accounted for about one-third of the total variance. And about a half of the 'true' variance of the WISC. This factor had a loading pattern very similar to its adult counterpart, being measured chiefly by the essentially verbal sub-tests. It was found that children exhibit a substantially smaller degree of generality of intellectual functioning than do adults, a finding that is directly counter to previously established research results.

Kaufman (1975) factor analysed WISC-R at ages 6 and half to 16 and half (n=200 per age group). The factor structure was remarkably consistent across the age range, with three factors emerging for each age group. Verbal comprehension, perceptual organization and freedom
from distractibility. These factors resemble the factors identified for the 1949 WISC, although the WISC-Structure was more stable and in closer agreement with Wechsler's verbal-performance dichotomy than was the structure of its predecessor. The results of the study are discussed in terms of their clinical applications, particularly interpretation of WISC-R profiles.

The results of the WISC-R factor analysis provide support for Wechsler's sub-division of the tests into verbal and performance scales and for his combination for the various verbal and non-verbal tests to obtain a full scale IQ. Support is also offered, in general, for the clinician's practice of interpreting the specificity of a test when evaluating a child's profile of scaled scores. The structure of the WISC-R is at the same time both consistent with, and a decided improvement over the structure of its highly successful predecessor.

Hagen and Kaufmen (1975) administered the WISC-R to 80 retarded youngsters ranging in age from 6 to 16 years. Scaled scores on the 12 tests were correlated, and the matrix was subjected to several factor-analytic techniques. The three factors identified for normal children in a previous study of the WISC-R (verbal comprehension, perceptual organization, and freedom from distractibility) also emerged for the retardates, although some differences were observed in distractibility factor.
The WISC-R factor structure for retardates was also similar to the structure of the 1949 WISC that was identified for several groups of institutionalized and non-institutionalized retardate. The results of the studies involving the 1949 WISC were reviewed critically to help understand the implications of this study.

The major finding of the above study was that the WISC-R factor for the retarded children was similar to the WISC-R factor identified for normal children (Kaufman, 1975) and also to the WISC factors identified for groups of institutionalized, non-institutionalized retardates (Baumeister and Bartlett, 1962). The similarity to the structure of the 1949 WISC for retarded individuals should provide clinicians with a sense of continuity in the interpretation of the WISC-R. The fairly close congruence of the WISC-R factors for different groups suggests that there may be no qualitative differences in the structure of intelligence for the normal and retarded children. Such a finding, which must first be replicated with other retarded samples before being accepted as a fact, has important theoretical implications. It was also of practical significance, since quantitative treatment of WISC-R score comparison of the IQs obtained by normal and retarded groups is contingent upon the assumption of a comparable underlying structure.
Finally, the factor analysis of the data obtained on retarded children and adolescents offered broad support for Wechsler’s IQ scale in the WISC-R. The emergence of the verbal comprehension and perceptual organization factors gave strong evidence for the construct validity of the WISC-R verbal and performance scales. The large unrated first factor in the principal factor analysis, feature loadings of .44 -.74 for the 12 tests supported Wechsler’s combination of the separate scales into a single full scale. IQ substantial correlations between the verbal comprehension and perceptual organization factors in the oblique rotated solutions (0.44 for oblimax and 0.35 for biquartimin) offered further support for the use of an overall IQ for retarded youngsters.

Silverstein (1969) in his first study analysed the standardization date for the WISC-WAIS and WPPSI, and obtained a two-factor solution that was much more stable than Cohen’s (1959) classic five factor solution. In the second study, Silverstein (1973) analysed the WISC and WAIS date of several groups of mentally retarded individuals and obtained both two-and three-factor solutions, again, the solution with fewer factors was more stable.

Silverstein (1977) studied the additional evidence on the relationship between descriptive efficiency and statistical invariance by analyzing the standardization data for the WISC-R the Wechsler
Intelligence e scale for children revised (Wechsler, 1974). Inter-
correlations among the 123 subtests of the WISC-R for 200 children
were found in each of 11 age groups, ranging from 6.5 through 16.5
years in the standardization sample using the principal-factor method.
Silverstein applied the same method for analyzing the data as he used
in his earlier studies. Both two- and three-factor solutions were obtained
for each age group, using the max plane method, and the stability of the
two solutions from one age group to another was assessed by
calculating coefficient of congruence. The two-factor solution proved
somewhat more stable. But the difference was relatively small and
some may actually prefer the three factor solution.

Silverstein (1980) also took up study on cluster analysis of the
Wechsler intelligence scale for children revised with hope that additional
insight into the structure of the WISC-R might be gained by turning from
factor analysis to cluster analysis. The inter-correlations among the 12
sub-tests of the WISC-R were analysed for each of the 11 age groups in
the standardization sample. Clusters were found that corresponded to
the verbal and performance scales, but there was also some evidence
of a third group of sub-tests, drawn from both scales. The results were
in general agreement with those of previous research in which factor
analysis was applied to the same data.
The results of other investigators factor analysis of the standardisation data are equally divided on this point. Wallbrown, Blaha and engine (1975) presented a hierarchical solution in which two group factors corresponded closely to the verbal and performance scales.

2.2.0. RESEARCH REVIEWS ON THE FACTORS RELATING TO INTELLIGENCE OF SCHOOL GOING CHILDREN

Minority group children represent the heterogeneous groups of children so that it becomes difficult to know that group or groups of children should be so classified. The label "minority group children" is used to designate individuals whose values, customs, patterns of thought, language or even interests are significantly different from the prevailing pattern of the society in which they live.

The use of such labels as culturally handicapped, culturally disadvantaged, or culturally deprived to designate minority group children has been unfortunate, because these terms have value implications. No one has the right to degrade a subculture that does not conform to the patterns of the minority group.

Although intelligence testing still constitutes one of the important links in the educational chain, some believe it must be discarded because it allegedly has become tool of the white majority – a tool that is being used to suppress the rights of ethnic minority children and in
particular, of negro children (Davis, 1971, Williams, 1970a) the issues concerning intelligence testing of minority group children are compels. For they are woven into the very fabric of society.

Kent and Davis (1957) administered four WISC performance scale sub-tests in the home and intellectual development. The only significant finding was that the children coming from normal homes obtain significantly higher IQs (MIQ=110) than those coming from overanxious homes (MIQ=101). Most children coming from unconcerned homes (8 out of 9) showed signs of emotional disturbance, such as apathy and lack of spontaneity. The less efficient WISC performance of the children from overanxious homes was attributed to their deficiency in practical abilities. Overall, the results indicated that discipline in the home significantly affected intellectual development.

Wender, Pedersen and Waldrop (1967) studied that boys who were socially dependent at age 2 tended as 6 year olds to have a less abstract cognitive style and lower WISC performance scale IQs, but not lower verbal scale IQs, than boys who were less dependent.

Belmont and Marolla (1973), with their large data set, were able to rule out socio-economic status as a significant factor in birth order effects, but they did not suggest factors or processes that might have explained their interesting results. Belmont and Marolla discovered a
strong relationship between birth order and intellectual performance. They correlated birth order data and Raven progressive matrices (culture fair intelligence test) scores of over 300,000 Dutch military inductees. They came from families ranging from a single child to 9 children. Belmont and Marolla found in general that the brightest children came from the smallest families, and within a given family size. The brightest children usually were the first born. There was a gradual decrement in which the 1st of a large group usually obtained the lowest scores in order to control possible hereditary and socio-economic influence, the subjects were separated into 3 groups according to their father's occupation, professional and white-collar, manual, and farm workers. While the scores were highest for the professional and white-collar group, followed next by manual group and lowest for the farm-workers, these differences were obliterated when birth order was the independent variable. The first born of all 3 groups had the highest IQ, followed by the second born and so on down, in general.

McCull, Appelbaum and Hogarth (1973), Mehrotra and Maxwell (1949), Thurston and Jenkins (1929) found that gaps between children affect their intellectual level leads to the prediction that IQ scores of twins and of triplets should be generally lower than the population average.
Record et al. (1970) made a study which compared IQs of children born singly with IQs of twins and triplets. The average IQs were 100 for the single born, 95.7 for over 2,000 twins and 91.6 for 35 triplets. One can therefore see that, on the whole, the order of birth seems to be related to intelligence.

Studies in India have focused their attention on caste differences and by large the results obtained by Rath, Singh, Sin ham, Das and others tended to show that the high caste pupils achieved better scholastically, than the low caste and the tribal pupils. The results of their studies also suggest that the low caste and the tribal pupils are intellectually inferior i.e obtain lower scores on intelligence tests.

Shuey (1958) referred to 72 studies in which a total of 36,000 Negro children were tested and the average IQ was determined to be 85, strongly suggesting a genetic difference. Shuey (1966) further reviewed 382 studies and concluded that the Negro children were one standard deviation or 15 IQ points lower to the whites. Even when SES was controlled, a difference of 11 points remained.

development. Hebb (1949) argues that the inner city child was immersed in an early impoverished environment which was marked by insufficient stimulation, thus producing retardation so that in effect the child's IQ remained relatively low throughout his life.

The work of Douglas (1964) on a sample of 5,000 children born in one week of 1946 proved that environmental handicaps continued to operate cumulatively in mile childhood. They did not merely affect test performance at 8 years but produced still more marked differences at 11 years. They correlated with actual increase or decrease in ability between 8-11 years.

Thorndike (1951) found that ecological correlations tended to be higher for intelligence scores than for scholastic achievement, demonstrating extreme sensitivity of the measures IQ to the total social environment. This research finding was confirmed by Dutch and Brown (1964), Roberts (1948), Robinson and Meenes (1947) and others emphasizing that socio-economic variable correlate highly and positively with IQ ranges in Negro samples. Das and Singh (1974) also found that besides poverty, social disadvantages suffered by the lower caste children have vital detrimental influence on their cognitive competence.

Having Hurst and Moor field (1967) hold that differences in intelligence test scores between the disadvantaged and the non-
disadvantaged groups were not due to differences in their capacities, but of experience, motivation, values and learning styles. Poorly educated and economically deprived parents failed to provide their children the necessary stimulation and experiences that were important in school environment. The limited verbal engagement in the home would restrict a significant aspect of mental growth as measured by intelligence tests. When certain non-verbal tests of intelligence were substituted, the lower class children, who were poor scholastically, displayed normal learning abilities.

Davis (1978) selected various intelligence test problems on which the deprived children did poorly and rewarded them in terms of familiar to the deprived children. Even though these changes produced a test was more attuned to them, inner-city children did not improve markedly.

Appelbaum and Tuma (1977) compared the validity of the Peabody with the WISC and WISC-R for two socio-economic groups. In their study, 40 normal 10 years old children (2- male and 20 female, half of whom were from high and half from low socio-economic status) were compared for performance on the Peabody, the WISC and the WISC-R. IQs obtained on form A and B of the Peabody correlate highly and thus the two Peabody forms are essentially parallel and equivalent forms. Large differences in IQ between children from low socio-economic background and those from high socio-economic background were
obtained on all four tests. The Peabody IQs were closer in magnitude to the WISC-R IQs than to the WISC in the low socio-economic group. The results support administering the Peabody to children for obtaining valid IQ estimates.

Covin (1977) found the relationship of Peabody and WISC-R IQs of candidates for special education (90 low achievers in southern elementary schools.). Correlations ranged from a low of .06 between Peabody Form B and WISC-R performance IQ to a high of .59 between the Peabody form-A and WISC-R verbal scale IQs.

Covin and hatch (1977) found the IQ differences in full scale WISC for 500 black and 300 white southern children from families of low income and aged 6 through 15 years, who were referred for psychometric assessment, are reported, and three distinct trends observed. The difference between IQs of these blacks and whites tended to increase from ages 6 through 15 years. The black children tended generally to decrease in IQ from ages 6 through 15, while the white children tended to increase in IQ from ages 6 to 12 and then decrease through age 15.

Covin (1977) compared WISC and WISC-R scores for thirty 8 and 9 years old institutionalized Caucasian children. This study compared WISC and WISC-R scores of a typical group of 30 third and fourth
grade school children. All 30 were Caucasian children who were in a private child care institution in south central Alabama. The 15 females and 15 males ranged in age from 98 months to 1210 months, the mean age being 102 months. They were from low socio-economic homes which had been or were being dissolved due to crisis. e.g. desertion by parents. Death of parents chills abuse. No significant differences between the WISC and WISC-R IQs were present. Thus for such children as these, IQs on the WISC can be expected to be about the same as those on the WISC-R.

Nicholson (1977) arrived at significant correlations between the quick test and the WISC-R when forms 1, 2, and 3 of the quick test and the WISC-R were administered to 62 subjects, ages ranging between 72 months and 195 months, mean age 138 months, 52 black and 10 white children. Correlations between all forms of the quick test, the three scales of the ISC-R and the sub-tests were all positive and significant. Correlations ranged from low of 0.394 to a high of 0.790.

Hatch and Covin (1977) compared WISC and Peabody IQs of three groups of young children from differing socio-economic status levels and or intellectual levels. For the total sample of 67, correlations of 0.88, 0.91 were obtained between the Peabody and WISC verbal, performance and full-scale IQs respectively. The Peabody IQs
correlated 0.74 with the WISC full scale for the middle-range of intelligence (kindergarten. Those of higher socio-economic status in a child study centre showed the highest correlations 0.57 between Peabody and WISC performance scale IQs. For more deprived children from head start IQs on their Peabody and WISC verbal scale correlated 0.63.

Horton and crump (1962) found that SES and educational level of the parents were more highly correlated with IQs of their children than with race. Ornstein (1965) observed that IQs derived from intelligence tests show inferior performance of lower class children. A high proportion of lower class children score in the slow learner or retarded learner category and there is no improvement in their IQs as they move through grades. In the upper grades and high school, the average IQ of low SES group is likely to be 20 or more points below that of higher status groups.

Metfessel (1965) explains that lower class children age generally slow and owing to this they have trouble with intelligence tests that require speed to follow a sequence of instructions. Then, these low SES subjects disregard the importance of completing the test in time. Jensen (1969) found that economic status was related positively to intelligence. He also observed that children from the middle to upper socio-economic classes used reasoning and abstraction much more than from the low socio-economic classes and were quite proficient in associative learning (Jensen, 1971).
Hammond and Cox (1967) confirmed the importance of social class, mental ability and inter-personal competence as factors in educational achievement. Dave et al. (1970) studying intelligence and academic achievement of children from different SES found that these variables were significantly related to SES. Simon and Simon (1975) obtained significant relationship between SES and academic achievement and SES and IQ.

Knife and Stroud (1959) found that when SES was controlled the correlation between intelligence and grades was not lowered and on the other hand, when intelligence was controlled, the correlation between SES and grades was lowered.

After partial ling out the influence of intelligence, Chopra (1964) and Mathur and Hundal (1972) found a positive correlation between academic achievement and socio-economic background. Intelligence and socio-economic background were found to determine to a great extent, the obtained achievement scores.

However the results of Barial's (1966) study showed no social class difference in scholastic achievement when the effect of intelligence was controlled. Chitterji, Mukherji and Benerji (1972) reported that economic condition of the family seemed to have no effect upon the scholastic achievement of the children in VI and VII classes from all three ability groups.
Explaining the relationship between intelligence, achievement and SES, McCleland (1958) suggested that mental ability may foundation as a threshold type of variable with respect to academic achievement. There is a certain minimal level of mental ability which may be required to achieve in school. Beyond this point, the obtained correlation between intelligence and achievement may be due to uncontrolled variability of factors such as socio-economic status.

Morris and clarisio (1977) found improvement in IQs of high-risk, disadvantaged preschool children enrolled in a developmental programme. 17 preschool children who had been previously identified as having notable delays or difficulties with development participated in a remedial nursery school programme. Each child spent on an average 9 months in the programme during which he received individualized instruction and treatment for specific problems. Parental involvement was encouraged and enrichment activities were emphasized throughout the course of the programme. Comparison of participant pre-and post programme was done. Stanford – Binet IQs showed a significant increase on completion of the remediation.

2.3.0. RESEARCH REVIEWS ON PERSONALITY AND MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS

Personality reflects the nature of a personal adjustment to the interpersonal and situational demands of an individual's environment. Personality measures seek to estimate a person's typical behaviour
pattern in adjusting to the interpersonal or social aspects of his work environment.

Personality has been defined either as the effect the person has on the other people, or as the total of his habits. Gibbs, 1955 and Vroom 1959 noted that subordinate personality characteristics, particularly authoritarian and need for independence, affected the relationships between participation on the one hand and satisfaction and effectiveness on the other. Subordinates with dependent authoritarian personality preferred production centered supervision to participation.

Cronbach (1960), classified tests according to their purpose as users to determine how well and how much a person can perform. Such tests do have correct and incorrect answers. For example personality tests useful for managers include, intelligence, verbal ability and numerical ability, in order to map taxonomies of human abilities measured by maximum performance tests Nash (1965) is less pessimistic about the usefulness of vocational interest measures to predict managerial effectiveness. He found that more effective managers have patterns of vocational interest distinguishing them from less effective managers.

Nash (1965), Guion and Gattier (1966), have reviewed the results obtained with personality and interest measures in measuring
managerial effectiveness, and found that these measures have not proved themselves as predictors of managerial effectiveness.

Jorgensen (1966), listed adjectives to describe the type of person most likely to succeed as key executive in top management. Most descriptive adjectives of successful executives are decisive, aggressive, self-starting, productive, well informed, determined, energetic, creative, intelligent, responsible, clear thinking, least descriptive adjectives of successful executives are cheerful, formal courteous, modest, amenable, conforming, neat, reserved, agreeable, conservative and kind minded.

Giselle (1966) classified tests into a few broad categories, and jobs into similar broad groupings based on gross estimate of relative similarity in jobs demand. Tests were classified according to 1. Intelligence, 2. spatial and mechanical aptitudes.3. perceptual accuracy, 4. motor abilities and 5. personality and interest. The summary of all studies of executive effectiveness is that measures of intelligence and of personality and interests may be "good bets" as potential predictors of managerial effectiveness.

Moss (1972) found that managerial success was related to initiative, communication skills, decisiveness, motivation and persistence.
Batilies (1979) examined the differences in personality attributes between supervisors who placed equal emphasis on the people and task dimensions of leadership and those who tend to be exclusively people or task oriented with leadership behaviour. Descriptive questionnaire and 16-personality factor measures on supervisors found that a preference for a balanced style tend to be more in tough minded, practical, conservative and group dependent than unbalanced leadership style.

Chakravarthi et al (1984), assessed personality variables related to the management role. To find a single personality profile for all managerial positions or different profiles for different categories considering the diverse activities performed by managers of various designations on three different groups, viz., formal, technical and finance background found that differences between the three groups were insignificant, and a single profile could be used as descriptive norms for the model personality patterns. This personality profile depicts management personnel as attentive, insightful, and intellectually adaptable. Emotionally mature, stable, and unfrustrated at average levels of anxiety.

Paul (1981) investigating the effect of personality on managerial effectiveness by using Giselle's personality inventory. they are supervisory ability, initiative, self-assurance and decisiveness and found
that these four dimensions of personality are significantly related to managerial effectiveness.

It is not possible for any manager to do all things, to all men. Each executive has a unique patterning of abilities, skills, attitudes, habits, etc. One manager gives his men a comfortable feeling when things are predictable and highly structured, whereas, that of another put his men at ease, when things are informal and free wheeling. One likes to be closely associated with subordinates and others maintain distance.

Rymarz, (1985) investigated the possibility of relationship between personality traits and levels of execution of professional tasks. Subjects were divided into two groups, effective and ineffective and California personality inventory (CPI) was administered to measure aspects of personality determining level of functioning. Delta questionnaire was administered to measure generalized expectations concerning locus of control. Depending on their degree of expression, personality traits were found to exert a positive or negative influence on professional effectiveness. Comparative analysis of test result revealed essential differences in the personality of structure of the two groups of subjects.

Smith et al. (1985), found that the use of 16-personality factor-form A, has general objective to the use of personality characteristics for personal selection.

Mohan et al, (1985) analysed managerial effectiveness in relation to occupational goal values of public and private educational institutions
and found that intrinsic goal values did not determine managerial effectiveness.

Prakash et al. (1986), investigated the nature of the relationship between personal values of employees and organizational outcome in banking organization and found that personal values such as personal enhancement, conformity and dharma had a low to moderate relationship with personal and organizational outcomes.

A manager's job effectiveness is determined not only by his personal attitude but also characteristics of his job, his situation and by his organizations motivational policies and practices. Managers are intended to success at work and personality appears to be an ingredient in such success. In order to understand person-job-personality fit, individuals at first are to be assured that organizations have model personalities.

Inderrieden et al. (1987), studied personality characteristics of work group managers and work group dimensions and found that personality characteristics of the managers were almost strongly related to work group characteristics assessing work responsibility.

Derr et al. (1987), discussed several of managerial styles, acknowledge the motives of underlying worker behavior and improving the match between the persons and jobs. Four basic personalities are described as 1.gettingahead, 2.getting secured, 3.getting free, and 4.and getting balanced. It is recommended that managers diagnose career orientation by examining an employee's motives, talents, values,
and personality constraints and with the employee try to achieve the optimum career orientation.

Beehar et al. (1987), explored the effects of managerial styles, keeping all variables common on two organizations and found that rank and file employees perceptions and found that rank and file employees perceptions and attitude behaviors were more favourable in the organization with the more democratic formal managerial styles than in the more traditional organizations, but there was a little difference in the response of the superiors between the two environments.

Sass kin, Marshall (1987), discussed what makes a leader successful in terms of revitalizing an organization and creating a place where employees want to contribute their best and to whether there is difference between effective leader and managers and revealed that it is an appropriate combination of individual personality, behavioral skills and situational factors that best describes the successful leaders.

Mathur (1987) examined the relationship between managerial effectiveness and leadership styles and self-actualization among Indian middle level managers of public sector and found that leadership effectiveness was not significantly related to self-actualization. It was suggested that lack of self-actualization was due to lack of self-control, over the environment and non-fulfillment of lower level need (physiological security and social esteem).

Using Giselle’s personality inventory (SDI) for middle level managers Bowin et al. (1987) found that all the traits in the inventory
are useful to measure personality characteristics of successful managers.

Bush et al. (1988) studied the personality profiles of marketing vs. research and development managers. They found that there were some similarities and significant differences between the two groups. Marketing managers were more effective, assertive, venturesome, spontaneous, happy go lucky, enthusiastic, self-opinionated and dominating than research and development managers. These differences could potentially, seriously impair the ability of managers from different areas of productivity interest with each other.

Singh and Satvir (1989) identified some variables affecting managerial success. The criteria for managerial success were number of promotions, career progress and length of service. The investigators found that successful managers tend to be intelligent, reserved, placid, radical, relaxed, power oriented, younger and better educated. The seven factors associated with managerial success are: 1. emotional stability, 2. intrinsic values, 3. anxiety, 4. introverts-extraverts. 5. Intellectual efficacy, 6. power vs. achievement and 7. Conservatism vs. radicalism.

Gable et al. (1990) studied managerial achievement on Machiavellianism and internality – externality on store managers and found that there was no significant correlation between locus of control and managerial achievement. There was a significant correlation
between locus of control and Machiavellianism for men but not for women. Men proposed a higher internal control orientation than women.

Yergoror et al. (1990) defined personality traits that were conductive to successful performance and psychological capability with their shipmates and psychological capability with their shipmates and three traits were identified: 1. business, 2. communicative, and 3. reflexive qualities. The specific characteristics of personality traits reflecting professional and the appraisal of motivation was analyzed and found that the appraisal of performance and professional motivation should take into account the specific character of competence and socio-psychological adaptability.

If managers are to be effective, they rank the roles they engage in within the contingencies of the situation. It must be recognized that the manager himself is an important variable to consider his approach to managerial effectiveness. An effective manager is one who is aware of the kinds of behaviour and actions which lead to organizational results and who then choose to engage in those appropriate to the environment, the particular managerial job, situation and his own personal preferences (Mintzburg, 1973, Campbell et al., 1970).

Radha Krishna, (1992) found that the personality characteristics of high, moderate and low managerial effectiveness groups (N=110) did not differ significantly on intelligence, cyclothymic, ego strength, surgency, super ego strength, but the sex and the age showed a significant difference on managerial effectiveness.
Okechuku (1994), studied the relationship of six managerial characteristics to the assessment of managerial effectiveness in Canada, Honkong, and China, and compared the influence of western conceptualized managerial abilities, traits and motivations to assess effectiveness. Managerial characteristics studied include supervisory ability, achievement motivation, intellectual ability, self-actualization, self-assurance and decisiveness. Several factors were significant predictors of managerial effectiveness in both Eastern cultures and Canada. Senior managers in China were quite similar to their counterparts in Canada but differed from those in Honkong in their use of these characteristics to infer the effectiveness of their subordinates. The most important predictor of managerial effectiveness ratings was self-actualization in Canada, self-assurance in Honkong.

2.4.0. PERSONALITY TRAITS OF TEACHERS

Charters and Waples (1966) studied the personality traits of teachers. They evolved a link of 15 personality traits of teachers for classroom effectiveness. They are buoyancy, considerateness, cooperativeness, dependency, emotional stability. Ethicalness, expressiveness, flexibility, forcefulness, judgment, mental alertness, objectivity, personal magnetism, physical energy, drive and scholarship.

Borg (1957) conducted a study on personality and interest measures related to criteria of instructor effectiveness. He found a correlation of $r_{71}$ between the rating of teachers and that of supervisors.
Ryan's (1960) research exemplified the transition from research paradigms that focused almost exclusively on teacher personality traits to those that directed inquiry towards the investigation of both teacher attitude and behavior.

The Mandsley personality inventory was given to first year University students over 3 years by Savage (1962) and the scores on this were related to academic performance at the end of their first year. The results showed that Australian University population had higher mean neuroticism and extroversion scores than the norms of the tests. Analysis of variance and correlation techniques showed that high scores on both factors were negatively related with academic performance.

Getzel's and Jackson's (1963) broad findings consistently revealed that good teachers possess positive personality characteristics and interpersonal skills. The influence of teacher's classroom personalities on children's behavior, particularly at the primary and elementary school levels was studied by Anderson and Brewer (1965). In order to obtain objective measurement of teacher's classroom personalities and concomitant children behavior, 26 teacher behaviour categories and 29 children behaviour categories were developed by which both teacher and pupil verbal and non-verbal behaviors might be categorized.
Anderson (1965) divided teacher behaviour into 2 main kinds, integrative and dominative. Integrative behaviour of the teacher expanded the children's opportunities for self-directions and for cooperative behaviour with the teacher and their peer dominative behaviour tended to restrict children’s activities and to lead to distracted aggressive, non-cooperative.

Levine (1971) analysed the intelligence, personality characteristics and motivation of pre-service and in-service teachers and compared them with persons working in the other fields. These two differ according to the sex, level of teaching area of specialty and perhaps more significant of, institutional affiliation.

Wayne and Blankenship (1972) in their study made a comparison between ideological orientation and personality characteristics of teacher acception and rejection of B.S.C.S. Biology. B.S.C.S biology programme possesses favourable attitude towards the content philosophy and teaching methods advocated in the programme. Teacher attending institutes were defined as acceptors and teachers who had unfavourable attitude programme were called ‘Rejectors’. They measured tolerance capacity for status, social presence achievement via independence intellectual efficiency, flexibility etc., by using the instruments California Psychologica I inventory (CPI) by Gough and Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI). They found that acceptors were more humanistic.
Barbara, Sherman, Robert and Blackburn (1975) analyzed the personal characteristics and teacher effectiveness of college faculty. Students in a co-educational liberal art college rated faculty on two typical teaching instruments and on a semantic differential form. Data were come from 1500 student judgments on 108 men and women faculty and found that there was significant relationship between Personal Characteristics and teacher effectiveness of college faculty.

Clapp (1977) listed out 10 qualities as the components of good teaching personality namely-dress, personal appearance, optimism, reserved ness, enthusiasm, fairness of mind, sincerity, sympathy, vitality ands scholarship.

Robinson and Michael (1987) investigated the personality traits of American secondary teachers and administrators who work in the association of American schools of South America (AASSA). Subjects were divided into 3 group's viz. 17 newly recruited teachers. 71 teachers already working in AASSA schools and 22 AASSA superintendents and principals. The 16PF questionnaire and personal data form were administered. The investigation showed that newly recruited males and females differed from U.S. norms on nine and seven factors. Secondary teachers who apply for overseas teaching jobs were already different from U.S. norms.

Guyton, John William (1988) made a study on "comparison of the personality traits of secondary school teachers in Mississippi public
schools" the main purpose of the study was to identify the personality differences between outstanding science teachers. Regulated certified science teachers and provisional certified teachers of science. They found no significant difference existed in the personality traits of the 3 groups as measured by each important factor of Cattle's 16PF questionnaire. The outstanding teachers group was more abstract in thinking self-reliant, independent, resourceful, preferred thinking their own decisions. Proper, moralistic. Aggressive and preferred hard-working people. Discriminate analysis was used to identify six personality factors that combined and differentiated the outstanding and regular groups on the factors B, Q2, O, H, G and I.

2.5.0. A FEW PERSONALITY STUDIES OF TEACHERS IN INDIA

Some researches have been conducted in India during the last few years on teacher's personality. In this study an attempt has been made to review some of the studies on the personality of teachers.

Saxena (1969) made an attempt to study the attitudes and personality of teachers. He used Cattell's contact personality factor (form 'A' Hindi version) a coefficient of correlation of +.60 with factor 'H' and +.42 and +.36 with factors 'A' and 'H' respectively were obtained. With high teaching competence. These correlations were +.60 and +.36 respectively. Which show a curvilinear relationship It shows that a very high scores on factor 'H' is typical of less component teachers and only a moderately high 'H' is characteristic of a more successful teacher.
Kaul (1972) made a factorial study of certain personality variables of popular teachers in secondary schools. His objective was to differentiate the personality traits of popular and unpopular teachers. He used Cattell's 16PF questionnaire. He came to the conclusion that the effectiveness of popular teachers was with respect to attitude toward teaching. Public examination results of their students and the appraisal of their work as teachers respectively.

Tripathi (1972) administered the 16-PF test (form-A) to 52 teachers-trainees and 52 experienced teachers to compare the personality profile of working teachers and teacher trainees. The technique of profile matching was employed for smooth comparisons between the two groups. Only eight factors (A, E, F, G, I, L, and Q4) out of 16 personality factors distinguished the experienced teachers easily. These teachers were conscientious, persistent, sensitive, effeminate, suspecting, jealous, sophisticated, and polished. The experienced teachers were significantly lower from the general population on factor-A, E, F, and Q4 and were aloof, stiff, submissive, soft hearted, glum and serious respectively.

Chhaya (1974) compared effective and ineffective teachers with respect to personality adjustment, teaching attitude and emotional stability. Eight effective and 100 ineffective teachers were selected from 20 randomly selected schools of Kanpur district. Effectiveness and
ineffectiveness were known on the basis of high school examination results (board of examinations of 1968, 1969, and 1970) she came to the conclusion that effective teachers had significantly better personality adjustment and favourable attitudes towards teaching. They were less interested in teaching than ineffective teachers, emotionally stable. More authoritarian and extrovert. She found that sex and age of a teacher were significantly related to her effectiveness.

Goyal (1974) studied some of the personality correlated of creativity in secondary school teachers under training. He was interested in knowing specially the personality differences in relation to sex and subject group as well as creativity differences in relation to sex and subject groups. He applied Cattelles’ 16-PF questionnaire and Torrance tests of creative thinking as the tools. His sample consisted of 500 student teachers (200 male and 300 female) in the age range of 10 years to 47 years. He found that the personality differences between high and low creative persons did not enter teacher training colleges. Intelligence was found to be the most consistent personality correlate of creativity. Highly flexible student-teacher was more guilt prone and less imaginative. Highly creative females were having more self-conflict. Were moralistic, socially precise and bold. Higher intelligence, emotional stability and tough mindedness were common personality traits found in science and mathematics groups at higher and lower levels of creativity.
Srivastava (1974) used 16-PF questionnaire for 52 pupil teachers and 52 experienced teachers to know the impact of professional experience on the modification of personality traits. He found that experienced teachers differed on factors A, E, F, H, Q1, Q2, from the pupil teachers.

Singh (1974) made a comparative study of the personality profiles of married and unmarried high school female teachers. He derived the personality profiles of these teachers with the help of Cattelle’s 16-PF questionnaire. The investigator found that the unmarried female teachers differed significantly on factors A, F, L, O, Q1, and Q4 while the married teachers differed significantly on factors A, C, F, L, and Q from the general population. Fewer score on factor O and Q4 were shown by the unmarried female teachers. Married female teachers were less stable and frustrated. Female teachers (married or unmarried) were found to be significantly higher on factors L Q1. It means that they were more suspicious and self-opinionated. These were significant on factors A and F from general population. Thus, they are reserved, critical, cool, detached, rigid, and aloof respectively.

Lokesh koul (1974) found that the attitude of school teachers towards teaching was positively related to factors A (reserved vs. outgoing) and H (shy vs. venturesome). On the other hand attitude scores of school teachers were found to be related negatively to factors F (sober vs. happy-go-luckey), O (placid vs., apprehensive) and Q4 (relaxed vs. tense).
The major objective of the study conducted by Singh (1974) was to examine the relationship between some personality variables and teaching effectiveness. He found that the needs of superior, average, and inferior teachers were clearly distinct from each other and superior teachers were distinct from the other two in the needs viz. cognition, dominance, autonomy and construction.

Sharma (1974) conducted an investigation into the relationship between personality factors and teaching effectiveness. The sample consisted of 175 B.Ed. students of both the sexes. Cattelle's 16-PF test was administered on the sample for the collection of data. The researcher found 6 factors out of 16 which are positively correlated with teaching effectiveness. These factors were intelligence, trusting, experimenting self-sufficiency, Happy-go-lucky nature and practical mildness. Intelligence came out to be a very important factor for teaching effectiveness. Total personality of the teacher played an important role in teaching effectiveness. Prominent sex differences were also found in the teaching effectiveness.

Gupta (1975) applied Cattelle's 16-PF test to predict teacher effectiveness through the use of a personality test. Three hundred male high school teachers having five to six years of teaching experience, 25 principles and 350 students formed the sample. Other tools used were teachers rating scale and pupils rating scale respectively. The
researcher notice that highly effective teachers were more effectothymic (A+), more intelligence (B+), having more ego-strength (C+), more sergeant (F+), more self-sentiment, (Q#+) and were less guilt prone, less suspicious (O) comparison to the general adult population. Less effective teachers were less intelligent (B_) with lower self-concept control (Q3_) as compared to the general population. Highly effective teachers were significantly more intelligent (B+), emotionally stable (C+) assertive (E+), conscientious (G-), adventurous (H+), tender minded (I+), with higher self-concept (Q3+) and were more warm hearted (A+) in comparison to the less effective teachers. The average effective teachers were more outgoing (A+) sergeant and happy-go-lucky (F+) controlled and socially precise in comparison to the less effective teachers.

Malhotra (1976) in his multistage randomized cluster design showed that poorly adjusted teachers were more direct in their classroom behavior than teachers who were well adjusted. Mathew George (1976) concluded that there was no significant relationship between creative teacher's personality and indirect/direct behavior of teachers. And there was positive correlation between creative teacher's personality and 'teacher talk' and negative correlation between creative teacher personality and other dimensions of teacher behavior.
Grewal (1976) reported that teacher effectiveness was significantly related to some of the personality traits of the teachers. Gupta (1976) reported that the high effective teachers differed significantly from the general population with respect to nine personality factors out of sixteen. They were A+, B+, C+, F+, Q+, Q3, L, O, and Q1.

Gupta (1977) conducted a study regarding the personality structure of primary upper primary school teachers. Eighty five teachers constituted the sample. The age range was 23 years to 38 years. Cattle's 16PF test was used. Means, standard deviations were calculated for each factor in terms of stens and raw scores. The study showed that the primary schools teachers were humble (E_), sober (F_), tender minded and forth righteousness are associated with submissiveness. Day dreaming and feminity, simple and sophisticated nature. They have control over emotions and general behavior. In fact the primary schools teachers who were facing the bare necessities of daily life cannot help but be submissive, day dreaming and unsophisticated in this materialistic age.

Gupta (1977) performed a study on the personality characteristics, adjustment level, academic achievement and professional attitudes of successful teachers. The study intended to find out the personality traits of successful teachers and differentiate them from less successful teachers. It was found that teaching success was
significantly related to the factors, A, B, C F, G, H, I, L, N, O, Q3, and Q4 of personality. The research also noticed that successful and less successful teachers were different in personality characteristics; adjustment and attitude towards teaching. The personality factor as a group was better indicators of teacher's success than individual factors.

Singh (1978) found out the relationship of teacher's personality. Success in teaching and impact on student's behavior. He took a sample of 135 male and female teachers with minimum of 3 years experience and 2879 boys of class IX. The tools administered were rating scales, information schedule, critical incidents blank, 16 personality questionnaire, and incomplete sentence blank and Rorschach ink blot test. His study revealed that the theoretical and social values were positively related to teaching success but the economic and aesthetic values were negatively related. Highly successful teachers were better adjusted than that of average and low teachers. Highly successful teachers possess better intellectual capacity and were able to induce learning, develop interest. Etc.

Singh (1978) worked on the leadership behaviour of the heads of secondary schools in Haryana. He compared the headmasters' leadership behaviour with that of some other professional leaders and noted the relationship of variables such as personality factors, sex, age, teaching and administrative experience with leadership. Five teachers from each of 100 schools of Haryana state were selected. Thus 100
heads as known by their 500 teachers constituted the sample. 7 factory managers, 7 army officers, 7 college principals and 7 municipal committee presidents were included in the sample for the study of leadership. The study tools were the leadership behaviour description questionnaire and Cattelles 16 personality factors inventory, it was found that the leadership behaviour was significantly related to the four personality factors i.e. outgoingness, intelligence, emotional stability, and assertiveness. Headmasters were on the 3rd position in the leadership scale out of 5 professional leaders. The head’s leadership behavior was not related to his age. Post-graduate heads were significantly better than graduate heads but total leadership behaviour was neither related to academic qualifications nor related to their teacher experience.

Mishra (1979) conducted a study to know the personality traits of fluent teachers. He measured the fluency of teacher’s through Mehdi’s test of verbal creativity. Subjects scoring more than 50 were labeled as HFT (highly fluent teachers). The LFT (low fluent teachers) had a score less than 34. These HFT and LFT groups were given Cattelles 16PF test form-A to measure the 16 independent variables of personality. Differences at .05 levels were observed on five personality dimensions. Those are affected by feeling vs. emotionally stable. Sober vs. happy go lucky, shy vs. venturesome, tough-minded vs.tenderminded and conservatives vs. experimenting respectively.
Sharma (1979) observed verbal classroom behaviour of high school science teachers of Uttar Pradesh using Flanders interaction analysis category system (FIACS). He found that structuring the learning had a significant positive relationship with some personality components like general activities, restraint, ascendance, emotional stability, objectivity, thoughtfulness and personal relations. Adaval (1979) observed that harmoniously developed and balanced personality was helpful for success in teaching.

Thakur (1980) made a study on personality characteristics of teachers showing direct and verbal behaviour. He found that there was no significant difference in the teaching behaviour of the direct/indirect teachers due to the variables of age, sex, and experience. Four personality factors namely, C, O, Q3, and Q4 differentiated the direct and indirect teachers significantly.

Singh (1980) investigated on sex role preference in children that is between boys and girls, upper caste and lower caste and role of personality of parents in the developments of sex-role preferences in their children by taking sample of 325 children and parents. The tools administrated were I.T.Scale, A.S.Sscale and A.S.Sscale. His study revealed that 5 year girls and boys are most feminine and masculine than 3 year old girls and boys. Upper caste children are more conscious
of their appropriate sex role than lower castes children. If father dominates, boys dominate, mother dominates, girls play masculine role. That means as variable showed significant effect upon the development of sex role preference in children.

The major aim of Bali's (1981) study was to investigate common personality factors of highly creative persons in different field's viz., poetry, painting, science music etc. the sample consisted of 20 persons who have been awarded or recognized in their fields. They were administrated Cattell's 16 PF test Form-A. The findings were scientists profiles consisted of common factors of ego-ideal, emotional introversion and social will.

Gupta (1981) made a comparative study of the scores of male and female teachers in the inventory of values, personality needs and moral judgement and scores of teachers belonging to different localities (rural and urban). The major findings were: 1. Male and female teachers expressed high preference for the theoretical value and affiliation. The teachers of both sexes expressed keen moral sense. 2. Urban male teachers were more moral than rural. 3. Urban female teacher's preferred economic and social values. 4. Teachers who were above 45 years preferred the needs of achievement, change and order. Teachers below 30 years had the need of affiliation. 5. Achievement and moral Judgment was the dominant factors in the personality of male and female teachers.
Suthar (1981) studied classroom behaviour of teacher trainees in the context of some personality variables. He reported that 1. There was no significant difference in the classroom behaviour of emotional and tough teacher-trainees except in the case of I/D which was found to be significant at 0.05 levels in favour of emotional teacher trainees, 2. The difference in the mean i/d ratio of extrovert and introvert teacher-trainees was significant at 0.05 levels and it was in favour of extrovert teacher-trainees 3. out of the twelve groups of teacher trainees, ten groups namely emotional, mature, sensitive, confident, insecure, experimenting, extravert, introvert, submissive and dominating showed indirect influence while the remaining two groups tough and conservative, showed direct influence.

Bhagoli (1982) made an extensive study on “personality characteristics associated with teaching effectiveness seen through Rorschach technique”. The sample was 264 teachers (120 males and 144 females). The finding of the study was 1. More effective teachers characterized by their superiority over less effective with respect to their overall intellectual level. 2. More effective teachers were characterized by having more of creative potential indicted by imaginable resources. Inner control was better in these teachers and these people were having fairly higher level of differentiation and integrating in their cognitive and perceptional functioning.
Patnaik and Panda (1982) made a research on the personality and attitude patterns of good and poor teachers working in secondary schools. 35 god male and 25 good females, 35 poor male and 25 poor female teachers were selected as the sample. The instrument administered were 16 PF -form-C and teacher attitude inventory developed by Ahluwalia (1976). Males have more favorable attitude towards teaching professions, classroom teaching, child centered practices etc. poor female teachers showed favourable attitude towards teaching profession than poor male teachers. Poor male teachers have significantly positive favourable attitude than the poor female teachers.

Rama Chandra Reddy (1982) used Guilford's STDCR personality inventory to measure social extraversion-introversion on the 116 high school science teachers. He selected 15 social extraverts and 17 social introverts for classroom observation. He found that there was highly significant difference at 0.01 levels between the total interaction patterns for the social extravert and social introvert teachers.

Kamala Chopra (1983) designed her study to identify the personality characteristics related to effective and ineffective teaching. 120 teachers were selected at random (49-effective, 19-average, 52-ineffective teachers) and measured with teacher effective scales used by Pramod Kumar and Mutta. 16PF questionnaire was also administered. The difference in personality traits of the teachers were significant incase of factors A, B, C, Q3, and Q4. However the difference
was not statistically significant in case of factors F, G, I, L, O, Q2. Results showed that effective teachers were significantly more warm hearted and good natured. Those results were in agreement with the findings of Chayya (19740 who observed that the effective teachers were emotionally more stable than the ineffective teachers and Gupta (19760 who observed that the effective teachers differed significantly from the general population on nine personality characteristics.

Rama Mishra (1984) found that the relationship between professional attitude and personality adjustment (r-0.49 of 200 secondary school teachers of Indore city was significant at 0.01 level. If a teacher had positive professional attitude then his personality adjustment was also good.

Peters and Williams (1985) observed that teacher's intellectual disposition did not interact with complexity in the student's performance and that neither student intellectual disposition nor the individual teacher had ad effect on student performance.

Verma and Sushilas Devi (1987) studied on personality traits and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers by using 16-PF Cattelles questionnaire and teacher job satisfaction questionnaire to 20 secondary school teachers. They found significant difference between more liked and disliked teachers in the” Y” value of fourth personality factor i.e. (subdued ness verses independence) most liked teachers appear to person the trait of independence.
Sundararaja, Sakthivel and Ponnalagappan (1988) showed that the women B.Ed. student-teachers had a more favourable attitude towards teaching than the men student teachers. Nellaippan (1988) reported that men and women teachers differed significantly in their perceptions of many components of effective teaching.

2.6.0. RESEARCH REVIEWS ON CAREER CHOICE AND OTHER WORKS

Eva Schmitt-Rodermund (1991) worked on adolescents career choices in east and west Germany after reunification found that a sample of East and West German adolescents who had made career decisions were drawn from the data collected in 1991, 1996 and in 1998 for the East only. Focusing on gender typicality of career choice. The level of East and West differences that were awaited in 1991, particularly for female adolescents, was expected to be lower in 1996. Overall, due to ongoing economic and social changes, male adolescents were expected to show increased interest in gender neutral occupations, such as trade and commerce. And female adolescents an increasing concentration into female typical occupational areas, such as health services. This trend found in the West but not in the East until 1998.
Yvette Aqui (1994) worked on cognitive and motivational characteristics of adolescents gifted in mathematics comparisons among students with different types of giftedness. Although numerous studies have compared cognitive and motional characteristics between gifted versus non-gifted students, research comparing those characteristics among different types of gifted students has not kept up with the theoretical development that saw a transition from one-dimensional to multidimensional conceptualization of giftedness. This study compares cognitive and motivational characteristics of high school students who are academically gifted in math, creatively talented in math, and non-gifted. Where as no differences were found among the three groups in their beliefs about ability, most of the other characteristics examined in the study distinguished the three groups. Academically gifted female students reported expending more effort than academically gifted male students. Creatively talented males put for the more effort cognitive strategies than the academically gifted. Overall, students who were either academically gifted or creatively talented in mathematics perceived that they were self-efficacious in general used cognitive strategies, perceived their math ability and math self-efficacy to be high, and valued learning math more so than their non-gifted age peers.

Philip M. Wilson (1999) A study on a job seeking self-efficacy scale for people with physical disabilities preliminary development and
psychometric testing reveals the both bivariate and multiple regression analysis indicated the global PWES scores had a limited association with leisure time physical activity. \((R_2 \text{ adj} = .01)\) sequential regression analysis supported a weak association between physical activity incorporated in the workplace and PWES \((R_2 \text{ adj} = .04)\) and the partial mediation of self-efficacy on the relationship between PWES and workplace physical activity (variance accounted for reduced to \(R_2 \text{ adj} = .02\) when self-efficacy was controlled).

Overall conclusion is the results of the present investigation indicated that self-efficacy acted as a partial mediator of the relationship between perceived environment and workplace physical activity participation. Implications of the findings for physical activity promoting using ecological-based approaches and future directions for research from this perceptive in working settings are discussed.


The results reveal that ecological approaches may be particularly useful for understanding and promoting physical activity participation in various settings including the workplace. Yet within the physical activity domain there is a lack of understanding if how ecological environment
factors influence behaviour. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between perceived environment, social-cognitive variable, and physical activity behaviour.

D.A Adeyemo and Bola Ogunyemi (2003) conducted research on emotional intelligence and self-efficacy predictors of occupational stress amusing academic staff in Nigerian university.

The study seeks to explain the interactive and relative effects of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy on occupational stress of university academic staff. The results indicated that the two independent variables when taken together were effective in predicting occupational stress with self-efficacy making higher contribution to the prediction of occupational stress. On the basis of this finding, it is suggested that emotional intelligence programming and self-efficacy intervention techniques will benefit teachers immensely in coping with stress.

Hartsfield, Michael Kirk (2003) conducted research on the internal dynamics of transformational leadership effects of spiritually, emotional intelligence, and self-efficacy. This research broadens the study of transformational leadership beyond the four l’s to determine the underlying internal driving forces at work in the transformational leader. The effect that three predictor variables- spirituality, emotional intelligence and self-efficacy have on transformational leadership. Analysis of this data showed emotional intelligence to be the strongest predictor variable followed by self-efficacy and then spirituality.

This study assessed multiple intelligences in a sample of 96 Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong, and explored the consistency between these teachers' multiple intelligences and their areas of responsibility. Teachers typically reported relative strengths in interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences and weaknesses in visual, spatial and bodily-kinesthetic intelligences. While there were no gender or age group differences, arts, music, sports teachers indicated greater in strengths in musical intelligence when compared with language and social studies teachers, and guidance teachers indicated greater strengths in both interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence than did non-guidance teachers. Using the eight intelligence as predictors, teacher's intrapersonal intelligence was the significant predictor of their self-efficacy in helping others. The implications of these findings are discussed in light of the current Hong Kong education reform movement and the inadequacy of teacher education.

Todd J. Maurer (2005) worked on career-relevant learning and development, worker age, and beliefs about self-efficacy for development. The study explores an important and under recognized factor that may contribute to this age effect. A decline in self-confidence (self-efficacy) for career relevant learning and skill development with age. The review explores various factors in an organizational setting.
which might lead to reduced self-confidence for learning. And subsequent lower participation in learning and developmental activities.

Lachman ME, Jelalian E (2006) worked on self-efficacy and attributions for intellectual performance in young and elderly adults. This study examined subjective assessments of intellectual performance in young (M age=19.46) and elderly (M age=75.13) adults. Male and female college students (n=37) and senior citizens (n=48) were asked to predict their performance before and after taking fluid and crystallized intelligence tests of two trials participants also made causal attributions for their test performance. Elderly participants scored significantly higher on the crystallized test and young participants scored higher on the fluids test. Men's and women's actual performance did not differ, but the elderly women made lower performance predictions on the fluid test than the elderly men. But both the young and elderly groups were more accurate in predicting their test performance for the test on which their performance was higher. Accuracy of performance predictions improved across the two trials. Both age groups were more likely to attribute successful performance to ability and unsuccessful performance to task difficulty.

From the above studies we can observe that a number of factors are responsible for the development of integrated personality among people.