CHAPTER- 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Identity of a Woman:

In our country for thousands of years our family life and our society have evolved and developed and we as a nation claim a strong presence of women in all walks of life. The very word 'Woman' is a symbol of eternal mystery and enchantment, as if it is not enough that she is flesh and blood, but that she must be something higher than what she is, and so she is never asked to take part in the incessant activity of this 'work a day' world.

"The woman has been the subject of study in all ages, from the ancient to the modern times. Comments on the nature of women, their ambitions and aspirations, desires and wishes, birth and upbringing, relation with husband, paramour, children and other relatives has been the subject of discussion and investigations throughout. If during one period of time and in one civilization, woman has been brought up as a prized possession of the parents, in some others she was completely neglected and was accepted only as a provider of sexual pleasure to man and as a producer of his offspring. As a provider of pleasure and producer of children, her education was completely neglected but whenever she was given high prestige in society, her education became the primary concern of the social order. Thus the education of the woman has been completely limited to her sociological status and psychological make up.

Every society differentiates between its men and women and prescribes separate sets of values, norms and role specification for the
two gender categories. Throughout human history the inferior status of women has been taken as a self evident fact of nature of life and this assumption was shared by both men and women.

In the process of educating girls, good emotional development and life satisfaction are two significant factors. School education puts more emphasis on the learning of knowledge rather than student’s frame of mind. Yet students feel nervous, anxious, depressed, frustrated and abased when instructors ignore their emotions. Education of girl child is a trajectory changing event that represents a convergence of physical, mental, social and familial developments. Educators of today underestimate the importance of developing the girl’s abilities to adapt and get along with other people. However a girl’s learning abilities depend on her experience of her capacity to adapt and cope with people.

The most important developmental task facing women today is the formation of identity, for it is in this realm of identity that a woman bases her sense of herself as well as her vision of life. Identity incorporates a women’s choice for herself, her priorities and the guiding principles by which she makes decisions. How does a woman come to form an identity? How does a woman determine what she most direly wants? Mascia (1966-80) defined four types of Identity formation based on the presence or absence of crisis and commitment in occupational and ideological areas.

a. Identity foreclosure:

This type of identity formation is primitive and rooted in earlier phases of development. Here a person makes commitment in the absence of a crises phase. The person carries forward either a personality derived
expectations or childhood beliefs without questioning or scrutinizing them. Such an identity can be viewed as loyal or rigid, cooperative or confirming.

b. Identity Achievement:

This identity describes a person who has undergone the process of testing options rather than testing themselves to the ways of being. People with such identity are independent and self directed.

c. Moratorium:

People with this identity are actively involved in a crisis or exploring options. They are struggling to make commitments but have not yet found the right ones for them. They are flexible or indecisive, philosophical or anxious.

d. Identity Diffusion :

These young people are experiencing neither crisis nor commitment. They have abandoned childhood resolutions but are not struggling for new ones. They are drifting, avoiding the identity formation task. They are carefree or irresponsible, creative or disaffected.

As per Erickson’s(1968) theory of psychosocial development, the adolescents are presumed to begin the identity formation period, as either foreclosures or diffusions i.e. either rooted in childhood identity or without a sense of coherence and purpose. The height of identity crisis occurs from ages 18-21, when they are granted a moratorium period to explore, test and rework identity possibilities. This period of seeking and grappling should result in personal investments that form the core of identity achievement. Not all young people are able to successfully
resolve the identity issues. Some are grappling by peripheral indecision, some in unreflective choices and some may permit themselves to be carried along by external forces.

The configuration of a woman’s identity at the close of adolescence forms the template of her adulthood. The notion of a separate identity or a separate sense of self is not quite the same in women as in men. Women never separate or individuate as much as men because of their early developmental history. Because mothers and daughters are of the same gender, the daughter’s primary priorities are the same as the person with whom she identifies. She identifies with the first person she loves. As a result girls experience themselves as being more continuous with others, not having to erect the barriers of differentiation that boys do. Boundaries of the self are never as rigid in girls as in boys and the basic female sense of self is connected with a good deal of fluidity to the world. This all the more emphasizes the girl’s greater capacity for empathy and their preoccupation with relationships with others.

During adolescence the girl’s experience of self as intertwined with the world continues. There are basically two main threads of human experience. One includes self assertion, mastery, individual distinction and separatedness, collectively called as agency. The other includes need for contact, union, cooperation and being together jointly, called as communion. We generally think of psychological development as leading towards increasing separation and selfhood. But communion is central to female development and women are likely to opt for preserving attachments before pursuing their agentic needs.

For women success in communion in relationship, is itself an expression of agentic needs for assertion and mastery. One of the greatest
challenges of human relationships is to be different and yet attached. For a developing girl being rooted in the family is a secure position of selfhood. When she expresses family values and priorities she knows that she is good in the eyes of those who matter most to her. The teenage girl although increasingly aware of options and possibilities, does not greet these choices as choices for herself.

At college age girls judge their distance from their families by whether and how much they carry on family religious traditions, whom they choose as friends, how they dress, whether and when and whom they plan to marry.

1.2 Developmental Psychology of the Girls:

Developing girls, particularly the adolescent who are undergoing the process of growth are usually thirteen to nineteen years of age. During this period of development, biological, emotional or psychological conflicts are evident. The girls of today are learning to cope with changes while concerned with self image, self esteem, social expectation and academic achievement. They are trying to find out:

a. Who they are, separating from their families.

b. What they are about, their interest and personalities and

c. Where they are going, in order to discover their place in adult life (Santrock, 2001)

Girls are also confused with career choices, romantic entanglements and responsibilities that are new experiences in which they make decisions or adjustments to attain their own identity or success. They
have to make choices, be successful academically and manage life to attain a healthy identity. Identity refers to the sense of self or a consistent unique character over a period of time. The additional responsibilities and social expectations girls or women face may create conflicts for them to resolve while defining their own identities.

*Erickson’s (1968)* fifth psychosocial stage of human development “Identity verses identity Confusion” states that if adolescents are not given the chance to explore their new roles and cannot follow a future positive path, they may remain confused over their identity. Erickson included socio-economic task into his developmental framework for each one of his stages. Girls need to be able to complete these tasks, find resolution to conflicts or adjustments and reach their unique identity.

*Santrock (2001)* cited a study stating that the adolescent girls self esteem is twice as low as boys. Resolving conflicts during this stage helps girls become how they will be, as unique individuals, progressing further into higher developmental stages.

For girls to become independent their self concept and self esteem have to be strong to overcome conflict. Conflict may manifest in discipline problems and an inability to focus on the present. Self esteem and self concept today play an integral part in the process of a girls development. Self esteem in this context refers to self worth, self respect or how one regards or feels about oneself. Self concept refers to perception about identity and achievement. The critical time for development of girls starts when they are separating from their female caretakers and forming their own personalities. This process is the start of forming a “self” or thinking of self as separate from the primary caretaker. The conflict for girls is to resolve this individuation or
separation process while still trying to stay close or connected to their mothers.

1.3 Emotional Intelligence:

Not education. Not Experience. Not Knowledge or intellectual horsepower. None of these serve as an adequate predictor as to why one person succeeds and another doesn’t. There is something else going on that society doesn’t seem to account for. We see examples of this in our workplaces, our homes, our places of worship, our schools and our neighborhood. We observe supposedly brilliant and well educated people struggle, while others with fewer obvious skills or attributes flourish. And we ask ourselves why? The answer almost always has to do with this concept called emotional intelligence. And while it is harder to identify and measure, it is even more difficult to capture it on a resume. Nevertheless its power cannot be denied.

And by now, it’s not exactly a secret. People have been talking about emotional intelligence for a while, but some how they haven’t been able to harness its power. After all, as a society we continue to focus most of our self-improvement energy in the pursuit of knowledge, experience, intelligence and education. This would be fine if we could honestly say we had a full understanding of our emotions, not to mention the emotions of others, and an understanding of how our emotions influence our lives so fundamentally every day.

There is a wide gap between the popularity of emotional intelligence as a concept and its application in society. People often mistake emotional intelligence for a form of charisma or gregariousness. They don’t see it as something that can be improved. They perceive it as,
“Either you have it or you don’t.” By understanding what emotional intelligence really is and how we can manage it in our lives; we can begin to leverage all of that intelligence, education and experience stored over a period of time.

The daily challenge of dealing effectively with emotions is critical to the human conditions because our brains are hard wired to give emotions the upper hand. Every thing that we see, smell, hear, taste and touch travels through our body in the form of electric signals. These signals pass from cell to cell until they reach, their ultimate destination - the brain.

We have two minds - one that thinks the rational mind and one that feels - the emotional mind. One acts according to one’s emotional and rational mind. The intellect is based solely on the working of the neocortex, the more recently evolved layer at the top of the brain. The emotional centers are lower in the brain. The signals enter the brain at the base near the spinal cord and travel to the frontal before reaching the place where rational or logical thinking takes place. They pass through the limbic system- the place where emotions are produced. This journey ensures that we experience things emotionally before our reason can kick into gear. The rational area of the brain cant stop the emotions ‘felt’ by our limbic system, but the two areas do influence each other and maintain constant communication.

Joseph Li Doux,(1996) a neuroscientist at the center for Neural Science at New York University made in the recent years, a landmark discovery about the relationship and interaction of the emotional and rational brains. He pinpointed that the neural pathways bring the information to the brain through the senses that goes first to the thalamus
which acts as a sort of mail sorter, deciding which parts of the brain to send the information to. For instance, if the informational is emotional the thalamus sends out two signals i.e. one to the amygdala which is the centre of the emotional mind, and the second to the neocortex. The emotional brain has the information first and can react even before the rational brain has received the information and has had a chance to react.

According to Goleman (1995) this emotional hijacking occurs, so fast that the thinking or rational brain has no opportunity to grasp what is occurring and decide on the best course of action. Hence amygdala is the alert sentry signaling danger and the neocortex the cool strategist which selects the prudent course of action. Amygdala and Neocortex are perfect partners representing the emotional brain and rational brain. This communication between our emotional and rational ‘brains’ is the physical source of emotional intelligence.

1.3.1 Historical Background:

When emotional intelligence was first discovered it’s served as a missing link in the following peculiar finding:

“People with the highest levels of intelligence (IQ) outperform those with average IQ’s just 20 percent of the time, while people with average IQs outperform these with high IQs 70 percent of the time.”

(Jack Mayer and Peter Salovey, “The intelligence of emotional intelligence.” Intelligence, 17 (1993))

This anomaly threw a massive wrench into what many people had always assumed was the source of success – IQ. Psychologists and scientists realized that there must be another variable that explained
success above and beyond one’s IQ. And subsequently years of research and countless studies pointed to emotional intelligence as the critical factor.

The earliest roots of emotional intelligence can be traced to Darwin’s work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and second adaptation. In the 1900’s the definitions of intelligence emphasized cognitive aspects such as memory and problems solving. However several influential researchers in the field of intelligence had also begun to realize and recognize the non-cognitive aspects of intelligence as well. For example as early as the 1920, E.L. Thorndike used the term social intelligence to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people. In 1940 David Weschler argued that our models of intelligence would not be complete until we can, adequately describe certain factors that influence intelligent behavior. And he opined that the influence of these non-intellective factors needs to be adequately described. In 1983, Howard Gardner’s Theory of Multiple Intelligences introduced the idea of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence. According to Gardner,(1983) traditional type of intelligence i.e. IQ fail to fully explain cognitive ability and performance outcomes. Later on Sternberg (1988) also through his Triarchic theory of intelligence introduced contextual intelligence relating one’s capacity of making adjustment to various contexts and being street smart. These people with high contextual intelligence capitalize on their strengths and compensate for their weaknesses. They adapt well to their environment and succeed in spite of hardship and adverse circumstances.

The first use of the term “emotional intelligence” is usually attributed to Wavne Payne’s doctoral thesis, “A study of Emotion;
Developing Emotional Intelligence.” from the year 1985. However prior to this the ‘emotional intelligence’ had appeared in work of Riener in 1966 and Greenspan in 1989 had put forward Emotional Intelligence model.

Yale University Psychologists Peter Salovey and John Mayer coined the phrase ‘Emotional Intelligence’ in 1990 in the Journal “Imagination, Cognition and Personality.” However the concept of emotional intelligence gained popularity through Daniel Goleman (1995) best seller titled, “Emotional Intelligence.” The distinction between trait emotional intelligence and ability emotional intelligence was introduced in 2000.

1.3.2. Definition of Emotional Intelligence:

There has been a substantial disagreement regarding the definition of Emotional Intelligence in terms of both terminology as well as operationalization. There has been much ambiguity as to the exact meaning of this construct. The field of Emotional Intelligence is growing so rapidly that the researchers are re-evaluating the definitions of this construct. Mayer and Peter Salovey (1997) defined Emotional Intelligence as.

“A type of Social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions.”

Based on extensive research Goleman (1995, 1998) has proposed five dimensions of Emotional Intelligence consisting of 25 competencies namely self awareness, self- regulation, self motivation, social awareness,
social skills. Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize and understand emotions in yourself and others, and your ability to use this awareness to manage your behavior and relationships. Emotional intelligence is the “something” in each of us that is a bit tangible. It affects how we manage behavior, navigate social complexities, and make personal decisions that achieve positive results.

1.3.3. Models of Emotional Intelligence:

Different models of Emotional Intelligence have led to development of various tests for the assessment of this construct. Some of these measures may overlap or they may tap different constructs. Currently the four main models of Emotional Intelligence are:

I. Ability Emotional Intelligence model

II. Mixed Emotional Intelligence model

III. Trait Emotional Intelligence model

IV. The Four branch Model of emotional Intelligence

I. Ability Emotional Intelligence Model:

Put forth by Salovey and Mayer (1990) this model strives to define emotional intelligence within the confines of standard criteria for a new intelligence. After continued research Salovey and Mayer have revised their initial definition of emotional intelligence as follows:

“The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotions to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth.”
The ability based model views emotions as useful sources of information that help to make sense of and navigate the social environment. The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is manifested in certain adaptive behaviors.

This model claims that Emotional intelligence includes four types of abilities:

1. **Perceiving emotions**: It is the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices and cultural artifacts. It also includes the ability to identify one’s own emotions. Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of emotional intelligence as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.

2. **Using emotions**: It is the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities such as thinking and problem solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.

3. **Understanding emotions**: It is the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate the complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotion encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.

4. **Managing emotions**: This is the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Therefore the emotionally
intelligent person can harness emotions even negative ones and manage them to achieve intended goals.

II. Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence:

This model introduced by Daniel Goleman (1995) focuses on emotional intelligence as a wide array of competences and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman’s model outlines four main Emotional Intelligence constructs.

1. **Self awareness**: the ability to read ones emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decisions.

2. **Self management**: involves controlling ones emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.

3. **Social awareness**: the ability to sense understands and react to others emotions while comprehending social networks.

4. **Relationship management**: the ability to inspire influence and develop others while managing conflict.

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence. Emotional competencies are not innate talents but rather learned capabilities that must be worked upon and can be developed to achieve outstanding performance.

Goleman opines that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.
III. The Trait Model of Emotional Intelligence:

This model proposes that Trait Emotional Intelligence is “A constellation of emotional self perceptions located at the lower levels of personality”

In other words trait emotional intelligence refers to an individual self perception of their emotional abilities. This definition of emotional intelligence encompasses behavioral dispositions and self-perceived abilities and is measured by self report.

Petridis and colleagues proposed a conceptual difference between the ability based models and trait based model of emotional intelligence. Trait emotional intelligence should be investigated within a personality framework.

The trait emotional intelligence model is general and subsumes the Goleman Model. The conceptualization of emotional intelligence as a personality trait leads to a construct that lies outside the taxonomy of human cognitive abilities.

This is an important distinction because it bears directly on the operationalisation of the construct. An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self–efficacy.

IV. The four branch model of emotional intelligence:

The four branch Model of Emotional intelligence describes four areas of capacities or skills that collectively describe many areas of emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997) More Specifically this model defines emotional intelligence as involving the abilities to:
- Accurately perceive emotions of oneself and others.
- Use emotions to facilitate thinking
- Understand emotional meanings.
- Manage emotions

1. **Perceiving Emotions**:

   The initial and most basic area has to do with the non verbal receptions and expression of emotions. Evolutionary biologists and psychologists have pointed out that emotional expressions evolved in animal species as a form of crucial social communication. The capacity to accurately perceive emotions in the face of voice of others provides a crucial starting point for more advanced understanding of emotions,

2. **Using emotions to facilitate thought**:

   This is the capacity of emotions to enter into and guide the cognitive systems and promote thinking. Something we respond to emotionally is something that grabs our attention. Having a good system of emotional input helps direct thinking towards matters that are truly important. Further a number of researchers have suggested that emotions are important for certain kind of creativity to emerge.

3. **Understanding Emotions**:

   Emotion conveys information. Each emotion conveys its own pattern of messages and actions associated with those messages.
Understanding emotional messages and the actions associated with them is one important area of this skill.

Once a person can identify such messages and potential action, the capacity to reason with those emotional messages and action becomes very important. Fully understanding emotions involves the comprehension of the meaning of emotions coupled with the capacity to reason about those meanings. It is central to this group of emotionally intelligent skills.

4. Managing emotions:

Emotions often can be managed. What we need to understand is that emotions convey information. Under voluntary control a person may remain open to emotional signals as long as they are not too painful and block out those that are too overwhelming. Hence it becomes possible to regulate and manage ones own and others emotions so as to promote ones own and others personal and social goals.

The insight that emotion and intelligence (cognition) can complement each other became the basis of formulation of the various current models of emotional intelligence. At the core of these various models is the understanding of emotional intelligence as a construct to recognize the meaning of various emotional patterns and to reason and problem solve on the basis of them (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). At present the following major models of emotional intelligence are available:


c. Emotional competence model by Saarni (1997)


1.3.4 What Emotional intelligence looks like?

To truly understand emotional intelligence, we need to understand each skill and what it looks like in action. The four emotional intelligence skills pair up under two primary competencies as follows.

I. Personal Competence

II. Social competence

Personal competence is made up of our self awareness and self managements skills which focus more on an individual than on one’s interactions with other people.

Personal competence is our ability to stay aware of our emotions and manage our behavior and tendencies.

Social competence is made up of our social awareness and relationship management skills. Social competence is our ability to understand other people’s moods, behavior and motives in order to improve the quality of our relationships.

I. Self Awareness:

Self awareness is our ability to accurately perceive our own emotions in the moment and understand our tendencies across situations. Self awareness includes staying on top of your typical reactions to
specific events challenges and people. A keen understanding of our
tendencies is important; it helps us make sense of our emotions. A high
degree of self awareness requires a willingness to tolerate the discomfort
of focusing on feelings that may be negative.

The only way to genuinely understand our emotions is to spend
enough time thinking through them to figure out where they come from
and why they are there emotions always serve a purpose. Since they are
reactions to our life experience, emotions always come from somewhere.
Many times emotions seem to arise out of thin air, and it is important to
understand why something gets a reaction out of you. People who do this
can cut to the core of a feeling quickly. Situations that create strong
emotions will always require more thought and those prolonged periods
of self reflection often keep us from doing something that we regret later.

Self awareness is not about discovering deep, dark secrets or
unconscious motivations, but rather it comes from developing a straight
forward and honest understanding of what makes you tick. People high in
self awareness are remarkably clear in their understanding of what they
do well, what motivates and satisfies them and which people and situation
push their buttons.

The surprising thing about self awareness is that, just thinking
about it helps us improve it although much of our focus initially tends to
be on what we do wrong. Having self awareness means that we aren’t
afraid of our emotional ‘mistakes’. They tell us what we should be doing
differently and provide the steady stream of information we need to
understand as our life unfolds.
Self awareness is a foundation skill. When we have it, self awareness makes the other emotional intelligence skills much easier to use. As self awareness increases, people’s satisfaction with life defined as their ability to reach their goals at work and at home sky rockets. Self awareness is so important for job performance that 83% of people high on self awareness are top performers and just 2% of bottom performers are high on self awareness. This is because when we are self aware we are more likely to pursue the right opportunities, put our strengths to work and most importantly keep our emotions from holding us back.

The need for self awareness has never been greater. We generally assume that they only have to learn about ourselves in the face of crisis. We tend to embrace those things with which we are comfortable and put the blinders on, the moment something makes us uncomfortable. But it is really the whole picture that serves us. The more we understand the beauty and the blemishes, the better we are able to achieve our full potential.

**Self Management:**

Self Management is what happens when we act or do not act. It is dependent on our self awareness and it is the second major part of personal competence. Self management is the ability to use our awareness of our emotions to stay flexible and direct our behavior positively. This means managing our emotional reactions to situations and people.

Some emotions create a paralyzing fear that makes our thinking so cloudy that the best course of action is nowhere to be found assuming that there is something we should be doing. In these cases self management is revealed by our ability to tolerate the uncertainty as we explore our
emotions and options. Once we understand and build comfort with what we are feeling that best course of action will show itself.

Self management is more than resisting explosive or problematic behavior. The biggest challenge that people face is managing their tendencies over time applying their skill in a variety of situations. Obvious and momentary opportunities for self-control are the easiest to spot and manage. Real results come from putting our momentary needs on hold to pursue larger more important goals. The realization of such goals is often delayed, meaning that our commitment to self-management will be tested over and over again. Those who manage themselves the best are able to see things through without cracking. Success comes to those who can put their needs on hold and continually manage their tendencies.

Social awareness:

As the first component of social competence, social awareness is the foundation skill. Social awareness is our ability to accurately pick up on emotions in other people and understand what is really on with them. This often means perceiving what other people are thinking and feeling even if you do not feel the same way. Its easy to get caught up in our own emotions and forget to consider the perspectives of the other party. Social awareness ensures us to stay focused and absorb critical information.

Listening and observing are the most important elements of social awareness. To listen well and observe what is going on around us, we have to stop doing many things we like to do. We have to stop talking, stop the monologue that may be running through our minds, stop anticipating the point the other person is about to make and stop thinking
ahead to what we are going to say next. It takes practice to really watch
people as you interact with them and get a good sense of what they are
thinking and feeling. Anthropologists make their living watching others
in their natural state without letting their own thoughts and feelings
disturb the observation.

This is social awareness in its purest form. The difference is you
won’t be 100 yards away watching events unfold through a pair of
binoculars. To be socially aware, you have to spot and understand
people’s emotions while you are right there in the middle of it,
contributing, yet astutely aware member of the interaction.

Relationship management:

Though relationship management is the second component of
social competence, this skill often taps into your abilities in the first three
emotional intelligence skills, self-awareness, self management and social
awareness. Relationship management is our ability to use the awareness
of our own emotions and those of others to manage interactions
successfully. This ensures clear communication and effective handling of
conflict. Relationship managements is also the bond we build with others
over time. People who manage relationships well are able to see the
benefit of connecting with many different people, even those they are not
fond of. Solid relationships are something that should be sought and
cherished. They are the result of how we understand people; how we treat
them and the history we share.

The weaker the connection we have with someone, the harder it is
to get your point across. If we want people to listen, we have to practice
relationship management and seek benefits from every relationship,
especially the challenging ones. The difference between an interaction and a relationship is a matter of frequency. It’s a product of the quality, depth and time we spend interacting with another person.

Relationship management poses the greatest challenge for most people during times of stress. When we consider that more than 70% of the people we have tested have difficulty handling stress, it’s easy to see why building quality relationships poses a challenge. Some of the most challenging and stressful situations people face are at work. Conflicts at work tend to persist when people passively avoid problems, because people lack the skills needed to initiate a direct, yet constructive conversation. Conflicts at work tend to explode when people don’t manage their anger or frustration and choose to take it out on other people. Relationship management gives you the skills we need to avoid both scenarios, and make out of every interaction we have with another person.

1.4 Locus of control

1.4.1. Etymological Meaning of Locus of Control

The word “Locus” is derived from the Latin word meaning “Place” or “Location”.

One's locus can either be internal or external. Internal means that the persons believe that they can control their lives whereas external means that the persons believe that their environment, some higher power, or other people control their decisions and their life.

Locus of control refers to an individual’s generalized expectations concerning where control over subsequent events resides. In other words,
who or what is responsible for what happens. It is analogous to, but distinct from attributions. According to Weiner(1970) the "attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do. This implies that people attribute causes to behavior."

There is a three stage process which underlies an attribution.

**Step one:** The person must perceive or possibly observe the behavior.

**Step two:** The person should try to figure out if the behavior was intentional

**Step three:** One should to determine if the person was forced to perform that behavior.

This aspect then becomes the explanations for events that have already happened. Expectancy, on the other hand concerns future events. And expectancy is a critical aspect of locus of control or we may say that locus of control is grounded in expectancy-value theory. This theory describes human behavior as determined by the perceived likelihood of an event or outcome occurring contingent upon the behavior in question, and the value placed on that event or outcome.

Expectancy-value theory states that if

(a) Someone values a particular outcome and

(b) Person believes that taking a particular action will produce that outcome.

(c) They are more likely to take that particular action.
1.4.2 Historical perspective of Locus of Control

Locus of control is the framework of Rotter's (1954) social learning theory of personality. Lefcourt (1976) defined perceived locus of control as follows:

"Perceived control is defined as a generalized expectancy for internal as opposed to external control of reinforcements" (Lefcourt 1976, p. 27).

Early work on the topic of expectancies about control of reinforcement had, as Lefcourt explains, been performed in the 1950s by James and Pharas prepared for unpublished doctoral dissertations supervised by Rotter at The Ohio State University.

Attempts have been made to trace the genesis of the concept to the work of Alfred Adler, but its immediate background lies in the work of Rotters students, such as William H. James who studied two types of expectancy shifts:

- typical expectancy shifts, believing that a success or failure would be followed by a similar outcome; and

- atypical expectancy shifts, believing that a success or failure would be followed by a dissimilar outcome.

Work in this field led psychologists to suppose that people who were more likely to display typical expectancy shifts were those who more likely to attribute their outcomes to ability, whereas those who displayed atypical expectancy would be more likely to attribute their outcomes to chance. This was interpreted as saying that people could be divided into those who attribute to ability (an internal cause) versus those who
attribute to luck (an external cause). However, after 1970, Bernard Weiner pointed out that attributions to ability versus luck also differ in that the former are an attribution to a stable cause, the latter an attribution to an unstable cause.

A revolutionary paper in this field was published in 1966, in the journal Psychological Monographs, by Rotter. In it, Rotter summarized over ten years of research by himself and his students, much of it previously unpublished. Early history of the concept can be found in Lefcourt (1976), who, early in his treatise on the topic, relates the concept to learned helplessness.

Julian Rotter's original (1966) locus of control formulation classified generalized beliefs concerning who or what influences things along a bipolar dimension from internal to external control:

Internal control : The term used to describe the belief that control of future outcomes resides primarily in oneself.

external control : Refers to the expectancy that control is outside of oneself, either in the hands of powerful other people or due to fate or chance.

Hannah Levenson (1973) offered an alternative model. While Rotter's conceptualization viewed locus of control as unidimensional (internal to external), Levenson's model asserts that there are three independent dimensions: Internality, Chance, and Powerful Others.

According to Levenson's model, one can endorse each of these dimensions of locus of control independently and at the same time. For
example, a person might simultaneously believe that both oneself and powerful others influence outcomes, but that chance does not.

1.4.3. Development of locus of control:

Since its introduction, the locus of control construct has undergone considerable elaboration and several context-specific instruments have been developed. Health researchers in particular have embraced locus of control as a concept for explaining behavior.

Generally, the development of locus of control stems from family, culture, and past experiences leading to rewards. Most internals have been shown to come from families that focused on effort, education, and responsibility. On the other hand, most externals come from families of a low socioeconomic status where there is a lack of life control.

Rotter (1975) cautioned that internality and externality represent two ends of a continuum, and not a typology. Internals tend to attribute outcomes of events to their own control. Externals attribute outcomes of events to external circumstances.

This has obvious implications for differences between internals and externals in terms of their achievement motivation, suggesting that internal locus is linked with higher levels of N-ach. Due to their locating control outside themselves, externals tend to feel they have less control over their fate. People with an external locus of control tend to be more stressed and prone to clinical depression.

Likewise individuals with a high internal locus of control believe that events result primarily from their own behavior and actions. Those with a
low internal locus of control believe that powerful others, fate, or chance primarily determine events.

Hence as a result of this those with high internal locus of control have better control of their behavior, tend to exhibit more political behaviors, and are more likely to attempt to influence other people than those with a high external locus of control. People high on internality are more likely to assume that their efforts will be successful. They are more active in seeking information and knowledge concerning their situation.

Internals were believed by Rotter (1966) to exhibit two essential characteristics: high achievement motivation and low outer-directedness. This was the basis of the locus of control scale proposed by Rotter in 1966; although this was actually based on Rotter's belief that locus of control is a unidimensional construct.

1.4.4 Locus of control and Family

The development of locus of control is associated with family style and resources, cultural stability and experiences with effort leading to reward. Many internals have grown up with families that modeled typical internal beliefs. These families emphasized effort, education, responsibility and thinking. Parents typically gave their children rewards they had promised them. In contrast, externals are typically associated with lower socioeconomic status. Societies experiencing social unrest increase the expectancy of being out-of-control, so people in such societies become more external.

A research of Schneewind suggests that, children in large single parent families headed by women are more likely to develop as external locus of
control. Children are more likely to attribute their successes and failures to unknown causes if their parents had an external locus of control. As children grow older, they gain skills that give them more control over their environment. Findings from early studies on familial origins of locus of control show that warmth, supportiveness and parental encouragement seem to be essential for development of an internal locus.

1.4.5. Locus of control and age

It is sometimes assumed that as people age, they will become less internal and more external. Longitudinal data collected by Gatz and Karel imply that internality may increase up to middle age, and thereafter decrease. There is evidence in research which shows that locus of control is ambiguous. Indeed, there is evidence here that changes in locus of control in later life relate more visibly to increased externality, rather than reduced internality, if the two concepts are taken to be orthogonal.

1.4.6 Gender based differences in locus of control

A research study by Schultz and Schultz (2005) pointed out that there is no significant difference in locus of control among the adults among the male and female adults in a U.S. population but however, these authors also note that there may be specific sex-based differences for specific categories of item to assess locus of control. For e.g. men may have a greater internal locus for questions related to academic achievement. (Strickland & Haley, 1980; cited in Schultz & Schultz, 2005).

1.4.7 Cross cultural issues in locus of control:

The question of whether people from different cultures vary in locus of control has long been of interest to social psychologists. Japanese
people tend to be more external in locus of control orientation then people in the United States. The difference in locus of control between different countries within Europe and between the U.S. and Europe tend to be small (Berry Portinga, Segall & Dasen, 1992) As Berry et.al point out, different ethnic groups within the United States have been compared on locus of control, with blacks in the U.S. being more external than whites even when socio economic status is controlled.

1.5. Life Satisfaction:

Life satisfaction is the ultimate goal that we as human beings are striving to achieve our entire lives. The label satisfaction is a concept that can mean many different things to different individuals. Although needs and wants are as diverse as the individuals. There are certain factors that are generally felt by every society to measure satisfaction.

Quality of life studies tend to divide sources of well being into two categories: External circumstances such as available community services or family life, and internal dispositions such as self esteem or the sense that one controls one’s own fate.

The success of a community or nation is frequently judged by objective standards. The quality of life of the individual is generally quantified in terms of greater income lower taxes, lower crime rates and improvement in education and health care. But this quantification is not always true. Indeed, objective measures of quality of life (i.e. income, education) are often weakly related to people’s subjective self-reports of the extent to which they are satisfied with their lives.
It is clear that a one to one relationship between observable life circumstances and selective judgments of life satisfaction does not always exist. A great deal of psychological research has explored the sources of peoples life satisfaction. These sources include one’s overall wealth, whether one is single or married, male or female or young or old.

Findings of many of the researchers investigating the predictors of life satisfaction focused on the experiences of women have shown that they are directly relevant to women’s lives. Life circumstances such as bearing and raising children, marriage, poverty and inequality all influence the life satisfaction of women.

1.5.1 Meaning of Life Satisfaction:

Satisfaction is a latin word that means “to make” or “do enough”. Satisfaction with one’s life implies a contentment with or acceptance of one’s life circumstances, or the fulfillment of one’s wants and needs for one’s life as a whole.

In essence “Life satisfaction is a subjective assessment of the quality of ones life.” Because it is inherently an evaluation, judgments of life satisfaction have a large cognitive component.

Webster’s dictionary defines satisfaction as “the fulfillment of a need or want.”

Life satisfaction is one of the oldest and most persistently investigated issues in the study of adulthood. It is generally referred to as “an assessment of the overall conditions of existence as derived from a comparison of ones aspirations to one’s actual achievements.”
Life Satisfaction vs. Subjective well Being:

According to Ed. Diener and his Collegues (1999), subjective well being, or happiness has both an affective i.e. emotional and a cognitive i.e. judgmental component. The affective component consists of how frequently an individual reports experiencing positive and negative affect. Life satisfaction is considered to be the cognitive component of this construct.

Life Satisfaction vs. Life Domain Satisfaction:

Researchers differentiate between life domain satisfaction and life as a whole or global life satisfaction. Life domain satisfaction refers to satisfaction with specific areas of an individuals life, such as work, marriage and income etc whereas judgments of global life satisfaction are much more broad consisting of an individual’s comprehensive judgment of life.

1.5.2 Judgment of Life Satisfaction among women:

Most people are fully capable of rating the level of their own life satisfaction. But we need to assess how exactly people make skills judgments. The conceptualizations of life satisfaction proposed by theorists in this areas offer a lot of clues.

Angus Campbell and his colleagues (1976) conceptualized life satisfaction as the difference between what one wants and what one has essentially a comparison between reality and the ideal. Thus a woman’s judgment of her life satisfaction involves drawing on her personal standards and expectations for herself and assessing the extent to which her life measures up.
Alan Michalos’s Multiple Discrepancy Theory (1986) also specifies how a woman might arrive at her personal level of satisfaction.

According to this theory, satisfactions are determined by one’s perceptions of “how things are” and “how they should be.” Comparisons between how things are and what one wants, what one had, what one expected, what others have and what one feels, one deserves combine to determine life satisfaction.

Small discrepancies in these areas result in greater life satisfaction. Large discrepancies in these areas results in greater life dissatisfaction.

Joeseph Sirgys, Theory (1998) similarly mentions several comparisons that women may consider before arriving at a judgment in their life satisfaction. He suggests that expectations of what one is capable of accomplishing, ones past circumstances, ones ideals, what one feels one deserves, what one minimally requires to be content and what one ultimately believes will occur as comparison that help determine overall life satisfaction.

Other researchers have investigated whether women determine their personal estimates of their life satisfaction through a ‘top-down’ approach or a ‘bottom up’ approach. If a woman were to use a top down procedure, she might reflect on the value of her life as a whole, probe her sense or intuition for how happy and satisfied she is and overall conclude that she must have a good life. Alternatively if she were to use a bottom up approach, she might think about the various domains of her life and arrive at her life satisfaction judgment based upon the average satisfaction she obtains from each of these domains. The question now is does a
women have a good life because she is satisfied or is she satisfied because she has a good life? The answer is both.

1.5.3 Determinates of Life Satisfaction:

One of the basic questions that one is faced with today is what causes life satisfaction? Why are some women more satisfied than others? Research done work in this area gives evidence of two types i.e. evidence implicating personality (i.e. genetics and inborn traits) and evidence implicating environment (i.e. life circumstances and life events). Many researchers have investigated whether life satisfaction is a stable, enduring that or whether it is a variable that is highly influenced by external events or life circumstances. Experiences of discrimination or harassment, child birth, divorce, purchasing a house, obtaining an advanced degree or the day to day hassles of balancing work and home life greatly influences a women’s satisfaction with her life. Alternatively too, a women’s stable characteristic patterns of responding to events, determine her life satisfaction such that she remains satisfied or dissatisfied despite changes in income, social relationships employment, or other significant life events. Research has shown that individuals tend to show similar levels of satisfaction across time and across many life domains. Women who are content with their marriages are also likely to be content with their work, their children, their financial situation and even daily weather. Another study found that the proportion of positive to negative life events experienced during the previous year predicted an individual’s life satisfaction during the following year. People adapt to significant life changes over long periods of time. Therefore personality or environmental explorations in isolation may not be sufficient to explain the source of people’s life satisfaction. Life satisfaction may have
both stable traits like components reflecting the effect of personality
dispositions as well as variable state like components reflecting
environmental influence.

However, it may be impossible to entirely discriminate between
these two because one’s personality may influence one’s life events.

Personality variables such as resilience, assertiveness, empathy, internal
locus of control, extraversion and openness to experience have been
found to be related to life satisfaction. Satisfied individuals tend to be
satisfied across several life domains. Personality plays a significant role
in whether a woman will judge her life to be satisfying. However
proximal environmental factors can influence life satisfaction judgments
in short terms. Hence one can infer that with many psychological
variables, both nature and nurture appear to be influential in determining
life satisfaction.

1.5.4 Demographic variables in life satisfaction:

The objective determinants of life satisfaction tell us the extent to
which satisfaction is related to the environment, both imposed (eg. culture) and relatively controllable (eg. Income, occupation, education, marriage) as well as to specific aspects of persons. (eg. gender, age.)

A. Culture: Satisfaction is a universal term. People from different
cultures are able to distinguish between such terms as ‘happiness’
‘satisfaction with life,’ best possible life’ and ‘worst possible life.’

Life satisfaction is not a uniquely western concept. Current research shows that members of individual cultures like U.S. England, Australia report greater satisfaction relative to members of collectivist
cultures like China, Japan India etc. Life satisfaction also varies with cultural dimension.

Citizens of wealthy industrialized nations have very high level of satisfaction overall and citizens of poor. Third world nations have low levels of satisfaction overall. Once a community of people reach a decent standard of living, differences in life satisfaction are less likely to be related to differences in wealth. Members of different cultures reach life satisfaction judgments in distinct ways. Members of collectivist cultures rely on cultural norms to determine their life satisfaction judgments, whereas members of individualistic cultures appear to rely on emotional experiences as their guide to life satisfaction judgments. Thus the life satisfaction judgment can be fluid subject to the changing social environment.

Life satisfaction is greatest among prosperous nations characterized by gender equality, care for human rights, political freedom and access to knowledge.

Women living in patriarchal cultures in which equal opportunities are unavailable and equal value is not afforded would experience greater life dissatisfaction with their lives, than women living in egalitarian cultures.

B. Gender:

A majority of studies show no gender differences in life satisfaction. However research findings show that women tend to experience greater joy and deeper sadness than do men. Social resources are predictive of life satisfaction for both man and women, but they are more predictive for women. Perhaps women’s roles as the conservators of
contact with friends and family lead to their greater reliance on social support. Greater the gender equality within a culture greater is the reported life satisfaction. This spans both equality in the broader cultural sense and equality within marriage.

Gloria Cawan and her colleagues (1998) found that married women report greater life satisfaction than single, widowed or divorced women.

John Haworth and his colleagues (1997) found that among American working women, those who had an internal locus were relatively more satisfied with their lives. For eg. A woman who perceives her success to be due to her hard work and determination would report greater satisfaction than women who perceives her success to be due to luck or chance. A belief in one’s own ability to effect changes and choose the course of ones life is more satisfying than believing that one has no control over life’s outcomes.

C. Age: Life satisfaction does not decline with age. It remains stable throughout the life span, showing just a slight increase in the trend between the ages 20 years to 80 years.

This could be attributed to the assumption that women have an extraordinary capacity to adapt to significant life changes. As women age they revise their ideal selves to accommodate their current circumstances.

D. Social Relationship:

High levels of social supports have been shown to be strongly associated with higher level of life satisfaction. Gender is a factor in the quality of relationships. Women tend to provide greater and more
meaningful support to men. Both men and woman report that their friendship with women are more intimate nurturing and supportive than friendship with men. This is perhaps due to the fact that conversations with women involve greater self disclosure and empathy.

E. Income:

The relationship between income and life satisfaction is a complex. Here life satisfaction differences across natures are smaller than within nations. Woman who live in poorer, less egalitarian nations tend to be less satisfied with their lives overall than women who live in wealthier nations. However longitudinal research has shown that rise in people’s incomes does not necessarily coincide with related increase in life satisfaction. Perhaps once a certain level of wealth is obtained life satisfaction is no longer anchored to increase in wealth and material goods.

F. Education:

Researchers have found a small correlation between education and Life Satisfaction. This may be due to the fact that higher levels of education are associated with higher incomes. Education is highly related with life satisfaction with women with lower incomes and poor nations. Poor women in some cultures have little access to education. So when they do gain access they valued and appreciate it much more than those who have easy access to education. Education also provides access to a greater occupational and income opportunities which have an additional influence on life satisfaction.

Thus, we may summarize the concept of life satisfaction in women who live in egalitarian nations characterized by greater gender equality
are relatively more satisfied. Also women who show an internal locus of control and less hostility towards other women are also more satisfied.

1.6 Demographic Variables affecting Emotional Intelligence and Locus of Control:

1.6.1 Family and Marital Status

Family as a unit of social organization serves as an effective agent of socialization where parent-child relationship happens to be a central factor in a girl’s social development and also influences the segments of her personality. Ordinarily the girl’s key models are her parents and their behavior can have beneficial or detrimental effect on the way she learns to perceive, think, feel and act. Loving and accepting parents provide healthy medium for the girl to grow her energies into proper channels and exercise her potentials to the maximum.

The foundation of development of individual lies in the womb of the family. The family refers to a group related to blood or marriage (English and English, 1958), constituted by a man, a woman and their socially recognized children in its nuclear and primary form (Harre and Lamb, 1983). It serves as an effective agent of socialization – a process of growing up and learning the norms of society, where a child acquires a few workable assumptions about the world and is apt to become a competent and useful member of the society. Researchers and theorists have increasingly recognized the role of parental involvement to the overall development of the children. Indeed, parent child system is related to child’s sociometric status (Barth and Parke, 1993; Putallaz and Heflin, 1990). The basic factor in child development is the social relationships and among all social relationships, the relationship between parents and

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child is very crucial one. In the developmental process of child, a majority of parents feel that the youth years are the most difficult ones for child rearing. Youth is a period of physical and psychological maturity, when an individual is expected to establish his or her own identity and to develop necessary skills for socially responsible behavior. It is also a period of heightened emotionality in that they feel the emotions, in a stronger and more persistent manner.

The youth’s transition to adulthood can be a smooth process facilitated by the guidance of securing, nurturing and understanding, parents in an emotionally conducive environment (Erickson, 1968). A family where emotional bonding and communication between youth and parents are adequate with clear behavioral standards, then youths can become emotionally competent, responsible, independent, confident and socially competent (Goleman, 1995).

Goleman (1998) considered family and school are the places which can develop emotional and social competence i.e., emotional intelligence. He ascertained reviewing hundred’s of studies that how parents treat their children—whether with harsh discipline or empathic understanding, with indifference or warmth and so on has deep and lasting consequences for the child’s emotional life. The way a couple handles the feelings between them in addition to their direct dealings with a child impart powerful lessons to their children, who are astute learners, attuned to the subtlest emotional recharges in the family. Therefore he considers family life is the first school for emotional learning, in this intimate cauldron. Children learn how to feel about themselves and how others will react to their feelings, how to think about these feelings and what choices they have in reacting, how to read and express hopes and fears. This emotional
schooling operates not just through the things that parents say and do directly to children but also in the models they offer for handling their own feelings and those that pass between husband and wife.

Children and adolescents perception about parent child relationships and parental relationships were more strongly linked to social and emotional outcomes. Parent child sharing healthy and warm relationships were found to develop social and emotional potentialities and get an advantage of getting parental suggestions, ideas and communication skills and critical sense of security, (Mehta, 1995). The relationship between affective and emotional aspects of parental behaviour and the childs’ emotional adjustment is family and culture specific (Nihara, Tomiyasu and Oshi, 1987). The emotional intelligence of the child depends on parental love and affection and depending on the child rearing practices, interactions with them, (Uma devi and Rayal, 2004).

**Parental Education :**

It is well known that education determines the level of prosperity, welfare and security of people. Education is also an instrument for individual freedom and social transformation.

Research has consistently shown that the family environment, parental education continues to be of crucial importance throughout the adolescence and young adult hood (eg. Daavies, Dumenci & Windler, 1999, Meaces, 1993 van wel, 2000). Psychological functioning plays an important role in the young girls daily life and their further social adaptation. Hence effect of parental education is of prime importance for the all round growth of the children. Educated parents provide a broad vision, wider perspective for thought and action a conducive atmosphere for development and propagation of healthy interpersonal relationships.
Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Life Satisfaction:

A large number of studies have employed the relationship between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction and forced evidence that emotional intelligence is an important predictor for real life outcomes. We way analyses the life satisfaction concept from difference approaches. For example.

1. Affective or emotional approach. This considers the concept of life satisfaction as a balance between positive and negative effect.

2. The cognitive approach processes the way an individual makes an appraisal about his general life and some specific aspects of his life.

3. The sociological approach has pointed out the influence of demographic factors like age, sex and marital status on life satisfaction to a small extent.

4. The psychological approach analyses the relationship between internal characteristics of an individual as the mean predictor for life satisfaction.

5. Many studies and that the relationship between personality characteristics like emotional stability and life satisfaction are very relevant. High scores obtained on emotional intelligence are related to low depressors, High life satisfaction and good test performance. An empirical study proved that emotional clarity significantly varies with life satisfaction.