CHAPTER -I

INTRODUCTION

In the educational process, the teacher occupies a very important place. A teacher is the medium through which objectives and plans can be actualized. For this, the teacher must have sound mental and physical health. There have been many studies stating that the person’s mental health has direct and significant relationship with his / her working efficiency. Teaching is a profession where every day radical changes occur in the educational system. These changes are likely to increase rather than reduce the level of stress in teachers. Secondary school teachers experience higher level of stress due to demanding situation, while dealing with adolescent students. Overcrowded classes, heavy syllabus and inadequate facilities make teachers’ work more complex. Researches in service industry like nursing, hotel and police have highlighted that working personnel experience varying degree of stress and burnout. Correlation between job satisfaction and performance has been proved in above mentioned professions.

Many teachers find the demands of being a professional educator in today's schools difficult and at times stressful. When work stress results in teacher burnout, it can have serious consequences for the health and happiness of teachers, and also the students, professionals, and families they interact with on a daily basis. Teachers may be at greater risk for depersonalization because their daily work life often includes large doses of isolation from their professional peers. While teachers do interact with others on a regular basis throughout the workday, the majority of such interactions are with students, and not with other teachers or professional staff members who might better understand the demands teachers face. Factors such as the physical layout of most campuses, with teachers working alone in their classrooms, and scheduling constraints that make finding time to meet with peers virtually impossible, can cause teachers to feel disconnected (Bennett & LeCompte, 1990). This depersonalization may act as a protective mechanism, as evidenced by the descriptions of "worn-out" teachers, whose cynical views towards students and teaching allowed them to continue to remain in the field, even in a diminished capacity (Farber, 1998). While depersonalization may act as some protection
for teachers, it also may encourage isolation, strengthening the risk for burnout. Burnout results from the chronic perception that one is unable to cope with daily life demands. Given that teachers must face a classroom full of students every day, negotiate potentially stressful interactions with parents, administrators, counselors, and other teachers, contend with relatively low pay and shrinking school budgets, and ensure students meet increasingly strict standards of accountability, it is no wonder many experience a form of burnout at some point in their careers. Efforts at primary prevention, in which teachers' jobs are modified to give them more control over their environment and more resources for coping with the demands of being an educator, are preferable over secondary or tertiary interventions that occur after burnout symptoms have surfaced. However, research reviewed here indicates each type of prevention can be useful in helping teachers contend with an occupation that puts them at risk for burnout.

**Burnout**

The burnout syndrome is a set of physical and mental symptoms including exhaustion, fatigue, headaches, depression, anxiety, sleep problems, non-specific pain and digestive problems, although many other symptoms can also occur. The symptoms of burnout and CFS are identical except in their severity, with the dividing line between the two diagnoses being set at the point where the symptoms become highly disabling.

A study on teachers suffering from burnout found that those teachers who scored highest on the "Maslach Burnout Inventory" had the lowest levels of cortisol throughout the day. The teachers who said they were under stress but not suffering from burnout had the highest levels of cortisol. The study also found that those teachers who were highest on the burnout scales had the highest levels of physical illness complaints. The stress level did not alter the number of physical complaints among the teachers who were low on the scale. The factors associated with high levels of burnout were low job satisfaction, low perceived levels of support, low perceived levels of being able to cope with stress and high levels of emotional exhaustion (although this last one could be a symptom rather than a cause).

This study highlights a number of important findings. First of all, that mental attitude has a large influence over the ability to handle stress without suffering from burnout. Second, that people suffering from burnout have higher levels of physical illness
complaints. And third, that low levels of cortisol (and a suppressed HPA axis) seem to be associated with low stress tolerance and high levels of burnout.

This particular study also found that stress and burnout are separate variables - people can suffer from burnout in the absence of stress, and vice-versa.

**Burnout** is a psychological term for the experience of long-term exhaustion and diminished interest. Research indicates general practitioners have the highest proportion of burnout cases; according to a recent Dutch study in *Psychological Reports*, no less than 40% of these experienced high levels of burnout.

Many theories of burnout include negative outcomes related to burnout, including job function (performance, output, etc.), health related outcomes (increases in stress hormones, coronary heart disease, circulatory issues) and mental health problems (depression, etc.).

The term *burnout* in psychology was coined by Herbert Freudenberger in his 1974 *Staff burnout*, presumably based on the 1960 novel *A Burnt-Out Case* by Graham Greene; this describes a protagonist suffering from burnout.

From the beginning of our work together, back in the Before You Embark section, we have noted that all teachers face a higher burnout risk than people in other professions. We will spell that out in more detail here, providing you with some terminology, some signs and symptoms, and some reminders about stages of burnout.

One very useful definition of burnout which we have adapted from the seminal work of Herbert Freudenberger (1980), who coined the term "burnout," Christina Maslach (1982) and Bob Veninga and Jim Spradley (1981):

**Definitions**

1. Feeling of physical and emotional exhaustion, due to stress from working with people under difficult or demanding conditions. Burn out is followed by signs such as chronic fatigue, quickness to anger and suspicion, and susceptibility to colds, headaches, and fevers.
2. Extraordinary dilution of an investor's stockholding position due to a massive issue of new shares by the firm.
A debilitating psychological condition brought about by unrelieved work stress, resulting in:

- Depleted energy and emotional exhaustion
- Lowered resistance to illness
- Increased depersonalization in interpersonal relationships
- Increased dissatisfaction and pessimism
- Increased absenteeism and work inefficiency

The key word in this definition is "unrelieved," not "stress." As we have said, stress in school is to be expected; it is a fact of life. The key is to personally and systemically ensure that the inevitable stresses are addressed, lest the burnout risks escalate if the stresses spiral up unabated and unchecked.

Before we go further, we want to go back to this notion of teachers being at greater burnout risk than people in other professions. Maslach's (1982) book title says it all: it is *Burnout: The Cost of Caring*. The very fact that you care about other people puts you at greater risk of burning out than if you did not care. It's another of those stress-related paradoxes we have mentioned throughout our work with you.

**Organizational burnout**

Tracy in her study aboard cruise ships describes this as "a general wearing out or alienation from the pressures of work" (Tracy, 2000 p. 6) "Understanding burnout to be personal and private is problematic when it functions to disregard the ways burnout is largely an organizational issue caused by long hours, little down time, and continual peer, customer, and superior surveillance".

How the stress is processed determines how much stress is felt and how close the person is to burnout. One individual can experience few stressors, but be unable to process the stress well and thus experience burnout. Another person, however, can experience a significant amount of stressors, but process each well, and avoid burnout. How close a person is to a state of burnout can be determined through various tests.

**Phases**

Psychologists Herbert Freudenberger and Gail North have theorized that the burnout process can be divided into 12 phases, which are not necessarily followed sequentially, nor necessarily in any sense be relevant or exist other than as an abstract construct.
• **The Compulsion to Prove Oneself**
  Often found at the beginning is excessive ambition. This is one's desire to prove themselves while at the workplace. This desire turns into determination and compulsion. This leads them to show off to their co-workers, proving that they are doing an amazing job, which they are doing better than all others.

• **Working Harder**
  Because they have to prove themselves to others, people establish high personal expectations. In order to meet these expectations, they tend to focus only on work while they take on more work than they usually would. With their main focus on work, they become obsessed with doing everything themselves. This will show that they are irreplaceable since they are able to do so much work without enlisting the help of others.

• **Neglecting Their Needs**
  Since they have devoted everything to work, they now have no time for anything else. Friends and family, eating, and sleeping start to become unnecessary or unimportant. In order to make themselves feel better about neglecting necessities, they tell themselves that these are just sacrifices that will prove that they are the best.

• **Displacement of Conflicts**
  Now, the person has become aware that what they are doing is not right, but they are unable to see the source of the problem. In order to deal with the root cause of this, they could lead to a crisis in themselves and become threatening. This is when the first physical symptoms are expressed.

• **Revision of Values**
  In this stage, people isolate themselves from others, they avoid conflicts, and fall into a state of denial towards their basic physical needs begin to change their perceptions. They also look at their value systems and friends/hobbies are no longer important. Their new value system is their job and starts to be emotionally blunt.
• **Denial of Emerging Problems**
  Now seeing their coworkers as dumb, lazy, and demanding of them, the person begins to become intolerant. They don't like being social, and if they were to have social contact, it would be merely unbearable. Outsiders tend to see more aggression and sarcasm. The person blames their increasing problems on time pressure and all the work that they have to do, but they do not blame their problems on the ways that they have changed themselves.

• **Withdrawal**
  Their Social contact is now a minimum, soon turning into isolation, a wall. Alcohol or drugs may be sought out for a release since they are obsessively working "by the book". Their feelings of that of being without hope and no direction.

• **Obvious Behavioral Changes**
  Coworkers, family, friends, and other people that are in their immediate social circles cannot overlook the behavioral changes of this person. The people in the social circles have become apathetic, fearful, and shy.

• **Depersonalization**
  Losing contact with themselves, they no longer see themselves or others as valuable. They no longer see personal needs. Their view of life narrows to only seeing in the present time, while their life turns to a series of mechanical functions.

• **Inner Emptiness**
  They are empty inside and to overcome this, they look for activity such as sex, alcohol, or drugs. These activities are exaggerated and overreacted. They start to think that their leisure time is dead time.

• **Depression**
  Burnout and depression easily correspond. The person is becoming exhausted, hopeless, indifferent, and believe that there is nothing for them in the future. To them, there is no meaning of life. Typical depression symptoms arise.
• **Burnout Syndrome**

Suicidal thoughts have passed through the minds of these people to use as an escape from their situation and only few people will actually commit suicide. They collapse physically and emotionally and should seek immediate medical attention.

**Causes of Burnout**

Popular belief is that burnout is the result of excessive stress. This is the view that Hans Selye took when he presented his General Adaptation Syndrome theory of stress, which has the following three stages:

[1] The alarm phase at the onset of the stress, which causes the adrenal cortex to discharge all of its supply of stored hormones into the blood.

[2] The stage of resistance, where the adrenal cortex enlarges due to continued stimulation by ACTH, which results in an enhanced ability to manufacture and secrete higher levels of cortisol. During this stage there is a greater ability to deal with stress.

[3] The stage of exhaustion, which eventually comes after continued stress, and results in symptoms similar to the alarm phase. During this phase the adrenal glands shrink and levels of cortisol fall, resulting in an inability to cope with stress.

From his results, Selye proposed that many illnesses in humans which are not obviously caused by an external pathogen, such as liver disease and heart disease, may be due to the psychological stresses of modern life. He proposed that the continual stresses of modern life result in the exhaustion phase of the GAS, which then leads to one of any number of physical illnesses. This notion has been mostly rejected today due to the advances in understanding about how the body works, with a greater concentration on the underlying mechanism of disease. In fact, most of Selye's work seems to have been forgotten today, and his GAS has largely been rejected. While it is true that he tried to apply his theories too broadly, there is one very important fact which he discovered and which is largely ignored today, and that is the exhaustion phase of the GAS, which appears to be the same state as burnout.

Recent research shows that burnout (in terms of reduced HPA axis response and low cortisol) can be caused by four factors:

[1] Excessive long-term stress
Preventing burnout

While individuals can cope with the symptoms of burnout, the only way to truly prevent burnout is through a combination of organizational change and education for the individual. Organizations address these issues through their own management development, but often they engage external consultants to assist them in establishing new policies and practices supporting a healthier worklife. Maslach and Leiter postulated that burnout occurs when there is a disconnect between the organization and the individual with regard to what they called the six areas of work life: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values. Resolving these discrepancies requires integrated action on the part of both the individual and the organization. A better connection on workload means assuring adequate resources to meet demands as well as work/life balances that encourage employees to revitalize their energy. A better connection on values means clear organizational values to which employees can feel committed. A better connection on community means supportive leadership and relationships with colleagues rather than discord.

One approach for addressing these discrepancies focuses specifically on the fairness area. In one study employees met weekly to discuss and attempt to resolve perceived inequities in their job. This study revealed decreases in the exhaustion component over time but did not affect cynicism or inefficacy indicating that a broader approach is required.

Coping with burnout

There are a variety of ways that both individuals and organizations can deal with burnout. In his book, Managing stress: Emotion and power at work (1995), Newton argues that many of the remedies related to burnout are motivated not from an employee's perspective, but from the organization's perspective. Despite that, if there are benefits to coping strategies, then it would follow that both organizations and individuals should attempt to adopt some burnout coping strategies. Below are some of the more common strategies for dealing with burnout.
Employee assistance programs (EAP)

Stemming from Mayo's Hawthorne Studies, Employee Assistance Programs were designed to assist employees in dealing with the primary causes of stress. Some programs included counseling and psychological services for employees. There are organizations that still utilize EAPs today, but the popularity has diminished substantially because of the advent of stress management training (SMT).

Stress management training

Stress Management Training (SMT) is employed by many organizations today as a way to get employees to either work through stress or to manage their stress levels; to maintain stress levels below that which might lead to higher instances of burnout.

Stress interventions

Research has been conducted that links certain interventions, such as narrative writing or topic-specific training to reductions in physiological and psychological stress.

Individual aspects

Problem-based coping

On an individual basis, employees can cope with the problems related to burnout and stress by focusing on the causes of their stress. This type of coping has successfully been linked to reductions in individual stress.

Appraisal-based coping

Appraisal-based coping strategies deal with individual interpretations of what is and is not a stress inducing activity. There have been mixed findings related to the effectiveness of appraisal-based coping strategies.

Social support

Social support has been seen as one of the largest predictors toward a reduction in burnout and stress for workers. Creating an organizationally-supportive environment as well as ensuring that employees have supportive work environments do mediate the negative aspects of burnout and stress.

Understanding and Preventing Teacher Burnout

Many teachers find the demands of being a professional educator in today's schools difficult and at times stressful. When work stress results in teacher burnout, it can
have serious consequences for the health and happiness of teachers, and also the students, professionals, and families they interact with on a daily basis.

The Nature of the Stress Response

When a potentially threatening event is encountered, a reflexive, cognitive balancing act ensues; weighing the perceived demands of the event against one's perceived ability to deal with them (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Events perceived as potential threats trigger the stress response, a series of physiological and psychological changes that occur when coping capacities are seriously challenged. The most typical trigger to the stress response is the perception that one's coping resources are inadequate for handling life demands. According to current models of stress, we are constantly taking the measure of the daily demands we experience in life and comparing this to the resources we possess for dealing with them. If our resources appear equal to the demands, we view them as mere challenges. If, however, demands are viewed as exceeding our resources, they become stressors and trigger the stress response. Accordingly, teacher stress may be seen as the perception of an imbalance between demands at school and the resources teachers have for coping with them (Esteve, 2000; Troman & Woods, 2001). Symptoms of stress in teachers can include anxiety and frustration, impaired performance, and ruptured interpersonal relationships at work and home (Kyriacou, 2001). Researchers (Lecompte & Dworkin, 1991; Farber, 1998; Troman & Woods, 2001) note that teachers who experience stress over long periods of time may experience what is known as burnout.

Development of the Burnout Construct

Matheny, Gfroerer, and Harris (2000) noted that earlier research into the phenomenon described burnout as a loss of idealism and enthusiasm for work. Freudenberger (1974), a psychiatrist, is largely credited with first using the term. Maslach and Jackson refined the meaning and measurement of the burnout construct in the 1980s (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993) to include three sub-domains: (1) depersonalization, in which one distances oneself from others and views others impersonally; (2) reduced personal accomplishment, in which one devalues one's work with others; and (3) emotional exhaustion, in which one feels emptied of personal emotional resources and becomes highly vulnerable to stressors. In particular,
depersonalization may be expressed through poor attitudes towards students and the work environment.

Teachers may be at greater risk for depersonalization because their daily work life often includes large doses of isolation from their professional peers. While teachers do interact with others on a regular basis throughout the workday, the majority of such interactions are with students, and not with other teachers or professional staff members who might better understand the demands teachers face. Factors such as the physical layout of most campuses, with teachers working alone in their classrooms, and scheduling constraints that make finding time to meet with peers virtually impossible, can cause teachers to feel disconnected (Bennett & LeCompte, 1990). This depersonalization may act as a protective mechanism, as evidenced by the descriptions of "worn-out" teachers, whose cynical views towards students and teaching allowed them to continue to remain in the field, even in a diminished capacity (Farber, 1998). While depersonalization may act as some protection for teachers, it also may encourage isolation, strengthening the risk for burnout.

An important finding from early studies was that teachers at risk for burnout came to see their work as futile and inconsistent with the ideals or goals they had set as beginning teachers (Bullough & Baughman, 1997). Other early studies cited role conflict and role ambiguity as significantly related to burnout (Dworkin, 1986). Role conflict occurs when a teacher is faced with conflicting expectations of the job. For example, role conflict may arise from discrepancies between ideals of what it means to be a good teacher. Role ambiguity relates more to a sense of confusion about one's goals as a teacher including a sense of uncertainty about the responsibilities related to teaching.

LeCompte and Dworkin (1991) developed a more extensive description of burnout as an extreme type of role-specific alienation with a focus on feelings of meaninglessness, especially as this applies to one's ability to successfully reach students, a finding also supported by Farber (1998). LeCompte and Dworkin (1991) identified powerlessness in defining professional roles as being instrumental in creating stress. Additionally, a sense of both physical and mental exhaustion exacerbated by the belief that expectations for teachers are constantly in flux, or in conflict with previously held beliefs, has been cited by numerous researchers as influencing teacher burnout (Bullough

**Prevention of Burnout**

Albee (2000), one of the pioneers of prevention research, points out that, "It is accepted public health doctrine that no disease or disorder has ever been treated out of existence". It is far better if the roots of teacher burnout are identified and eliminated before the syndrome develops, rather than treating it after it has already occurred. Across the various medical professions, a distinction has been made between three levels of prevention interventions: (a) Primary prevention, where the goal is to reduce the incidence of new cases of a disorder, (b) secondary prevention, where the goal is early identification and treatment of symptoms before they turn into a full-blown disorder, and (c) tertiary prevention, where persons who have recently suffered a disorder receive some type of intervention to prevent relapse (Conyne, 1991). Such preventative interventions may either be done at the organizational level, with changes in the school environment, or at the individual level, in which the goal is to strengthen teachers' resources for resisting stress.

**Primary Prevention of Teacher Burnout**

Organizational practices that prevent teacher burnout are generally those that allow teachers some control over their daily challenges. At the individual level, self-efficacy and the ability to maintain perspective with regard to daily events have been described as "anxiety-buffers" (Greenberg, 1999). At the institutional level, other factors may help mitigate teacher stress. Chris Kyriacou (2001), who draws from an Education Service Advisory Committee report (1998), offers the following advice for schools:

* Consult with teachers on matters, such as curriculum development or instructional planning, which directly impact their classrooms.
* Provide adequate resources and facilities to support teachers in instructional practice.
* Provide clear job descriptions and expectations in an effort to address role ambiguity and conflict.
* Establish and maintain open lines of communication between teachers and administrators to provide administrative support and performance feedback that may act as a buffer against stress.
* Allow for and encourage professional development activities such as mentoring and networking, which may engender a sense of accomplishment and a more fully developed professional identity for teachers.

**Secondary Prevention of Teacher Burnout**

Efforts at secondary prevention focus primarily on early detection of problems before they emerge as full-blown disorders. Symptoms of teacher stress as contributing to burnout may take many forms (Brown & Ralph, 1998). Studies by several researchers (c.f., Brown & Ralph, 1998; Hinton & Rotheiler, 1998; Kyriacou, 2001; Troman & Woods, 2001), report the following as early symptoms of teacher stress and burnout:

* Feeling like not going to work or actually missing days
* Having difficulty in concentrating on tasks
* Feeling overwhelmed by the workload and having a related sense of inadequacy to the tasks given to them
* Withdrawing from colleagues or engaging in conflictual relationships with co-workers
* Having a general feeling of irritation regarding school
* Experiencing insomnia, digestive disorders, headaches, and heart palpitations
* Incapacitation and an inability to function professionally in severe instances

**Tertiary Prevention--Ameliorating Burnout Symptoms**

Once teacher burnout has occurred, a decision must be made as to whether the teacher can or is willing to continue their work. Troman and Woods (2001) acknowledge that a series of stressful events or a single major event may lead teachers to make what they term 'pivotal decisions.' Although teachers go through many such events over the course of a career, the teachers interviewed by Troman and Woods rarely viewed decisions made in response to high levels of stress as transformative in the positive sense. Personal factors also figure into a teacher's decision to stay in a school, with the current labor market, personal financial and family obligations, and years in the field all being instrumental in the decision making process. In hard economic times, teachers may stay with the relatively stable profession of teaching due to a lack of outside possibilities for a career change. The promise of retirement benefits that increase with added years of service is a draw to teachers who have already accumulated more than a few years of service.
In looking at teachers and stress, Troman and Woods (2001) used interviews and observational data collected from teachers teaching at The Gladstone Primary School and from teachers who had left the school in the aftermath of Gladstone being designated as poorly performing during an accreditation inspection. Interviews were analyzed using theme analysis and the constant comparative method. Data gathered suggests that teachers generally fall into three categories when reacting to stress and burnout. Some teachers simply end their careers as professional educators. Others seek relief from stress by "downshifting:" taking a less prestigious or demanding role, redefining their job as a part time instructor, or by having previously held duties assigned to other teachers. Some teachers choose to reframe their sense of identity as educators; for these teachers, this may involve developing outside interests, placing more emphasis on family and friends or relocating to a more favorable school environment.

**Teacher burnout**

**Descriptions**

- When a teacher cannot perform the day-to-day duties of teaching due to a sense of tiredness, frustration, exhaustion, and/or hopelessness. The teacher either leaves the situation or stays in the same position and, in general, is unsuccessful or ineffective as a teacher.
- A teacher's loss of idealism and enthusiasm for work (Matheny, Gfroerer, and Harris 2000).
- "An extreme type of role-specific alienation with a focus on feelings of meaninglessness, especially as this applies to one's ability to successfully reach students" (Wood, McCarthy 2000).
- "Syndrome resulting from teachers' inability to protect themselves against threats to their self esteem and well being" (Haberman)

**Synonyms**

- suffer exhaustion
- be exhausted
- be used up, finished
History of the Term

- Freudenberger, a psychiatrist, is largely credited for first using the term "teacher burnout" (Wood, McCarthy 2000)

Teachers' syndrome caused by inability to cope with stressful occupational conditions -- characterized by low morale, low productivity, high absenteeism, and high job turnover.

**Definition:** Teacher Burnout is a phenomenon which affects many teachers either within a single school year or over the course of a number of years. Teaching is a very demanding job. Unlike many professions, success in teaching is hard to measure and varies by individual, by course, and by school. Further, teachers are often expected to fulfill many roles. Add in the effects of high stakes testing, and teachers have many pressures on them. This often leads to teachers "burning out." In the worst case, a teacher may leave the profession because of teacher burnout.

- Scholars define teacher burnout as a condition caused by depersonalization, exhaustion and a diminished sense of accomplishment (Schwab et al. 1986).
- One of the most down to earth definitions described teachers as no longer considering themselves professionals, rather just paid individuals.

Burnout is an occupational hazard to which all members of helping professions are exposed, including teachers. Carter (1994) defines teacher burnout as physical, emotional, and attitudinal exhaustion that begins with a feeling of uneasiness and mounts as the joy of teaching begins to gradually slip away. Although the symptoms of burnout may be very personal, they are generally "lack of" symptoms. The list includes lack of energy, joy, enthusiasm, satisfaction, motivation, interest, zest, dreams for life, ideas, concentration, self-confidence, or humor (McGee-Cooper, 1990).

Burnout was first defined by Freudenberger (1974) and involves feelings of failure and exhaustion resulting from excessive demands on a person's energy with insufficient reward for the effort. Other researchers have defined burnout as psychological distancing from work (Maslach, 1976). Block (1978) and Freudenberger (1983) have identified many of the symptoms associated with burnout, which can be categorized into three groups: physical (e.g., exhaustion, lingering cold, frequent headaches, gastrointestinal disturbances, weight loss, sleeplessness and shortness of breath), psychological (e.g., changeable mood, irritability, depression, loss of caring for
people, cynical attitude, increased frustration, feelings of helplessness, greater professional risk-taking [i.e., smoking, escapist drinking, drug use], and behavioral (e.g., deterioration in work performance and absenteeism). It is unlikely that any single isolated symptom can be viewed as an indication of burnout. Various combinations of the above and perhaps others represent the manifestations of burnout. If these issues are not addressed, eventually, the individual loses desire and motivation, and is unable to fight or flee what is perceived to be an impossible situation. On a more global scale, burnout can lead to serious consequences in the individual, the school, and students.

Teaching can be considered a high-stress occupation. The education system has all the elements associated with stress: a bureaucratic structure, continuous evaluation of its processes and outcomes, and increasingly intensive interpersonal interactions with students, parents, colleagues, principals and the community. In addition, increased student misconduct, student apathy, overcrowded classrooms, inadequate salaries, demanding or unsupportive parents, budgetary constraints, expanding administrative loads, lack of infrastructural support, and an increasingly negative public opinion have contributed to an embattled and embittered teacher force in America and throughout the world.

Burnout tends to be contagious. When dissatisfied and depressed teachers are present in a school, others can very easily become lethargic, cynical, and discontented and, before long, the entire organization becomes a dispirited and uninviting place. According to Van der Sijde (1988), the school climate influences both the student and the teacher. He reported a positive relationship between teachers' work conditions and the amount of support they gave to students. In addition, he noted, that teachers' behavior depended on their perceptions of how their school functioned. Thus, teachers play an important role in establishing the overall tone of a school. According to Purkey (1970), teachers need to feel successful and good about themselves and their abilities before they can empower their students to feel the same. If, however, teachers are experiencing feelings of failure and/or lacking in personal satisfaction, their relationship with students and the overall school will ultimately suffer.

Teachers can be burned out from:

- a specific school
• a specific subject or grade level
• K-12 teaching (moving to higher education, K-12 administration, state level positions)
• the field of education completely

Symptoms of each burnout include: anxiety and frustration, impaired performance, and ruptured interpersonal relationships at work and home (Wood, McCarthy 2000).

Are You Burnt Out?

Do work activities you once found enjoyable now feel like drudgery? Have you become more cynical or bitter about your job, your boss or the company? Are non-work relationships (marital, family, friendships) affected by your feelings about work?

Do you find yourself:

Dreading going to work in the morning? Easily annoyed or irritated by your co-workers? Envious of individuals who are happy in their work? Caring less now than you used to about doing a "good job" at work?

Are you:

Regularly experiencing fatigue and low energy levels at your job? Easily bored with your job? Depressed on Sunday afternoons thinking about Monday and the coming week?

If you answered yes to five or more of the above, you may be suffering from job burnout.

Causes for Teacher Burnout

Burnout is the result of a long period of stress. Stress comes from the perception of a teacher that the resources available to deal with the stress are not adequate. In other words, the stressors (demands from the job) outweigh the resources available to deal with the demands. Example: "Teachers must face a classroom full of students every day, negotiate potentially stressful interactions with parents, administrators, counselors, and other teachers, contend with relatively low pay and shrinking school budgets, and ensure students meet increasingly strict standards of accountability." (Wood, McCarthy 2000).

One interesting aspect of teacher burnout is the thought that younger teachers are experiencing burnout due to lack of mentoring. It is the hope that guidance from a more
experienced teacher will aide in the way prospective and novice teachers handle the stress of the job.

**Preventing Teacher Burnout**

Researchers point out that it is easier to prevent teacher burnout than it is to reverse it once teacher burnout has developed. Preventative measures can be taken at the organizational level (changes in school environment) or at the individual level (strengthen teachers’ resources for resisting stress).

Interventions the school system can take to prevent teacher burnout:

- Offer professional development activities
- Stress management workshops
- Relaxation training
- Time management workshops
- Nutrition, exercise and coping skills training.
- Improve working conditions
- Classroom environment
- Salary issues
- Accommodate cultural differences
  - Religious events/holidays

**Avoid Burnout?!? Is It Possible?**

Here are a handful of humble tips that may be easier said than done. But, these ideas could potentially kick your stress levels down a notch. It's worth a try!

- **Ask for Help** - This is a really hard one for me to do. Often, it seems far easier to just do it myself than to explain how something should be done. Parents, school volunteers, friends, and students can be a valuable time-saving resource in your classroom, but only if you take the time to ask them. With a little planning and time invested up front, you can set up routine times and duties for the people available around you. This is a big one that I am really going to work on myself next year.

- **Don't Sweat the Small Stuff** - This is a big piece of advice that applies in all areas of life. But, in teaching, we really need to put things in perspective. Is any one but you really going to care if the border on that bulletin board is crooked? Do you stage
a Broadway-style dramatic production each year for yourself more than anyone else? Let's face it, we're there to teach the children. Some things that don't fall into the teaching/imparting knowledge category just may not be worth a disproportionate amount of time and effort. So, put down those fancy scissors that make the cool edge designs and go back to the essentials. Just something to think about.

- **Don't Play the Teacher at Home** - When I first started student teaching, I was appalled to find that some of my new teacher habits were making their way into my home and marriage. For example, if my husband would do something annoying, I found myself giving him my evil "teacher look." You know which one I mean! Or, I would say something like, "Let's think about our choices." When you're at home, give it up! Don't scold, don't correct, and don't try to be the model of perfection. I've found that many people expect teachers to know everything and do everything perfectly. Don't fall for that trap. You're human so act like it at home. When I lock my classroom door at night, I drop the Mrs. Lewis act and become just plain "Beth."

- **Take Time for Yourself** - Watch a stupid sitcom, listen to "un-teachery" music, talk to an old friend on the phone, forget about the papers that need to be graded that evening. Obviously, we can't do these things all the time. But, try not to beat yourself up over it if you do something fun once in awhile. I try to do something purely for pleasure each day. It really does keep me sane. Some nights, I get into bed early so I can read a book for fun. On Thursday nights, I watch "Friends" and "Will and Grace," and I don't apologize for it. A little time invested in joyful activities can go a long way towards avoiding serious burnout.

- **Remember Why You Teach** - Look past all of the annoyances and hassles, both big and small, and remember why you became a teacher in the first place. I left a job in Human Resources at a Fortune 500 company to become a teacher. Some days, I do question my sanity. But, most of the time, I just have to think about how useless and uninspired I felt behind that desk, staring at a boring spreadsheet, and I can remember why I teach. I teach in order to make a difference for children and to share myself with the world. Keep your reasons for teaching close to your heart and you'll realize that all of the stress really can be worth it.
After writing all of these anti-burnout tips, I feel a little more relaxed already! I hope you do, too. Another way to beat the teacher blues is to communicate with other teachers. Teaching can be such a solitary profession. So, consider stopping by our K-6 Educators Message Board and see what everyone’s chatting about. You might be surprised how much a little chit chat with people who understand can help!

**How to Cope with Teacher Burnout**

*Accept it, then deal with it...*

Teacher burnout is often the result of too much to do, and too little time to do it. Here are some ideas to help you get back on track.

Firstly, burnout can be defined as feeling:

- Emotionally exhausted
- Frustrated
- Powerless
- Unappreciated
- Overworked
- Worn down
- Constantly tired
- Little or no motivation
- No sense of achievement

When you go through this list, do you suspect you could be experiencing teacher burnout?

Take two minutes to answer these questions to get a better idea…

- When I get up on a weekday I feel…
- When I walk into my classroom at the start of the day, I think…
- My 3 top reasons for going to work each day are…
- I believe my managers think I…
- My family think my work is making me…
- My progress towards my personal goals is…
- Most days, my students’ achievement and well being is…
- On Sunday evenings I feel…
• The pressure I feel most comes from…
• The recognition I get comes from…
• The recognition I want should come from…
• What wears me down most is…

Burnout can seem overwhelming. Whatever you do to fight it can seem just a drop in the ocean. That attitude is understandable, but it leaves you stuck in a situation that, at best, stagnates or, at worst, leads to a breakdown.

What’s the solution?

As with most things, prevention is better than cure. There’s no clear line to cross to define teacher burnout – it happens in degrees. So, whatever stage you feel you’re at, you have three choices:

Quit

Leave your position - how would your pride and finances handle downshifting to fewer days or responsibilities?

Change your school - is burnout caused by your current school? If so, are you in a position to move elsewhere?

Leave education – everyone loves the holidays (don’t they?), but do you love teaching enough? More accurately, do you love the minority (the teaching) enough to put up with the majority (everything else)?

Moan

Get it off your chest. Complain to people who will listen but won’t do anything. Will this make you feel better or improve the situation? If not…

Act

The hardest, but most effective way to beat burnout. You could say it includes ‘Quit’, but in this context, it assumes you stay in your current role.

• Ask someone to be your mentor or, better still, set up a coaching or mentoring service in your school. Is anything more effective than solution focused talking to affect change?
• Make an appointment to see whoever you believe will be most likely to raise awareness and actually tackle the issue.
• Subscribe to the TMS blog and improve your time management.
A final thought - you create or allow everything you experience...

Self-Efficacy

Self Efficacy: Self-Efficacy, coined by Albert Bandura is a person's belief in his or her ability to complete a future task or solve a future problem. For example, if a person believes he is a brilliant scientist and can complete any scientific experiment, he has a high self-efficacy in science because he believes in his competency to perform a future experiment. Whether it is true that he is brilliant in science or not doesn't really matter. It only matters what he believes.

Self-Efficacy can also influence your goals, actions, and successes (or failures) in life. If your self-efficacy in an area is much lower than your ability, you will never challenge yourself or improve. If your self-efficacy in an area is much higher than your ability, you will set goals that are too high, fail, and possibly quit. The ideal self-efficacy is slightly above a person's ability: high enough to be challenging while still being realistic.

History

Albert Bandura's concept of self-efficacy developed within his studies of human social cognition theories. Bandura's early research focused on the 'extraordinary symbolizing capacity of humans'. He theorizes that people draw on these symbolic capabilities to understand their environments by purposeful actions, cognitively solve problems, develop reflective thoughts and effectively communicate with others. Bandura argues that when people symbolize their experiences, it give structure, meaning, and continuity to their lives (Pajeres, 2002).

Another distinctive quality of social cognitive theory, and an important point in this theory, is that Bandura singles out the capacity for self directedness and forethought (that people plan a course of action, and set challenges and goals that guide their future activities). He argues that after we adopt some personal standard, our subsequent actions, behavior, and motivation are regulated by the positive and negative consequences of those standards. We all engage in things that provide some form of satisfaction and self worth, and tend to shy away from actions that devalue the 'self' (Pajeres, 2002).

Self-reflection capabilities concerning efficacy is featured prominently in social cognitive theory. Bandura argues that the system of self-efficacy is the very foundation of
human motivations and personal achievements. Bandura's rationale is like this: If people don't believe they can achieve a desired outcome from their actions, they have little to no incentive to act, or continue action when presented with difficulties. Bandura's research credits personal efficacy with motivation, perseverance, vulnerability, life decisions/choices, and even stress (Pajeres, 2002).

**What Is Self-Efficacy?**

According to Albert Bandura, self-efficacy is “the belief in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations” (1995, p. 2). In other words, self-efficacy is a person’s belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation. Bandura described these beliefs as determinants of how people think, behave, and feel (1994). Bandura also described as, a person’s attitudes, abilities, and cognitive skills comprise what is known as the self-system. This system plays a major role in how we perceive situations and how we behave in response to different situations. Self-efficacy plays an essential part of this self-system.

**Self-efficacy-The will to meaning**

One of the biggest challenges we face today is the understanding of socio-cultural differences. This diversity, without resorting to stereotypes, is likely to be the key to eliminating disparities with the understanding that in its purest form, there is no such thing as stereotypes; no one person is exactly like another person and no individual is a carbon copy of another member of a group. As such, when socio-cultural perspectives do not focus on the impact of social forces, family and cultural influences, and failures of society on individual mental health or failure of support systems: family friends, community in times of stress, for example poverty, gender, or racial discrimination or lack of opportunity, abnormal behavior can occur.

The most fundamental motivational force in man is the search for the meaning of his existence. Neo-Freudian psychoanalysts believe, the motivational theory is based on the pleasure principal or as one might call it, the *will to pleasure*. Alfred Alderian psychologists focus their theories of motivation on the *will to power*. In contrast to both theories, my belief is that man is motivated by a search for meaning to his existence, by the striving to fulfill this meaning and thereby, actualize as many value potentialities as possible. In short, man is motivated by the *will to meaning*. 
There are many different notions about self-efficacy and its influence upon people. Most would agree that intrinsic motivation in this scenario is far more important than perhaps extrinsic motivation. Self-efficacy is fostered by self-motivation, an input in an activity based on one’s own self-fulfillment or enjoyment, rather than for any concrete, tangible reward that it will bring.

An ongoing assessment of one’s ability and an understanding of one’s changing needs is indispensable. Self-motivation strikes as particularly central to this process. According to psychologist Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy theory, which observes that beyond the details of our psychological needs, such as air, water, food, and safety, self-actualization is understood as the highest state of self-fulfillment, and is achieved through pursuit in his or her own inimitable way.

Those who believe they can perform well, are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided. This high need for achievement is where the quest for self-actualization comes into play. This embodies what is considered a continual yearning and eagerness to learn, which includes an insatiable desire to achieve a higher state of self-actualization, thereby, self-fulfillment.

Beyond this, however, there is another component. There is a transitional stage I believe is worth investigating, that which lies beyond this theory of shifting and self-renewal, growth and self-discovery. Experientially, I envision a transformational stage, a total conversion, a synergy-gathering of all of life’s chapters. Rather than transition, transform from the inside out!

Self-efficacy is not restricted to the present. It includes past and future selves or possible selves, which represent an individual’s ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they may be afraid of becoming. They correspond to hopes, fears, standards, goals, and threats.

**Definition:**

By Lisa Fritscher, Self-efficacy is the degree to which a person believes that he or she can attain a goal. It is a frequently misunderstood but very important part of learning theory. It is also an important part of treatment for phobias and other mental health disorders, as a high degree of self-efficacy correlates with a higher chance for treatment success.
In phobia treatment, self-efficacy is the degree to which the sufferer believes that he or she can change feelings and behaviors. If you go into treatment expecting to fail, you decrease your chances of success.

Self-efficacy is different than self-esteem, which is a general regard for one’s overall worth. Someone with very high self-esteem may have low self-efficacy toward a specific situation, such as the ability to complete a marathon. The belief that one is able to solve problems and meet goals helps raise self-esteem. Still, the two concepts are separate and should be understood as such.

**Perceived Self-Efficacy:** People's beliefs about their capabilities to produce effects. Perceived self-efficacy is defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. Such beliefs produce these diverse effects through four major processes. They include cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes.

A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Such an efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities. They set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them. They heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. They quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks. They attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable. They approach threatening situations with assurance that they can exercise control over them. Such an efficacious outlook produces personal accomplishments, reduces stress and lowers vulnerability to depression.

In contrast, people who doubt their capabilities shy away from difficult tasks which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. When faced with difficult tasks, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter, and all kinds of adverse outcomes rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully. They slacken their efforts and give up quickly in the face of difficulties. They are slow to recover their sense of efficacy following failure or setbacks. Because they view insufficient performance as
deficient aptitude it does not require much failure for them to lose faith in their capabilities. They fall easy victim to stress and depression.

I. Sources of Self-Efficacy

People's beliefs about their efficacy can be developed by four main sources of influence. The most effective way of creating a strong sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences. Successes build a robust belief in one's personal efficacy. Failures undermine it, especially if failures occur before a sense of efficacy is firmly established.

If people experience only easy successes they come to expect quick results and are easily discouraged by failure. A resilient sense of efficacy requires experience in overcoming obstacles through perseverant effort. Some setbacks and difficulties in human pursuits serve a useful purpose in teaching that success usually requires sustained effort. After people become convinced they have what it takes to succeed, they persevere in the face of adversity and quickly rebound from setbacks. By sticking it out through tough times, they emerge stronger from adversity.

The second way of creating and strengthening self-beliefs of efficacy is through the vicarious experiences provided by social models. Seeing people similar to oneself succeed by sustained effort raises observers' beliefs that they too possess the capabilities to master comparable activities required to succeed. By the same token, observing others' fail despite high effort lowers observers' judgments of their own efficacy and undermines their efforts. The impact of modeling on perceived self-efficacy is strongly influenced by perceived similarity to the models. The greater the assumed similarities the more persuasive are the models' successes and failures. If people see the models as very different from themselves their perceived self-efficacy is not much influenced by the models' behavior and the results its produces.

Modeling influences do more than provide a social standard against which to judge one's own capabilities. People seek proficient models that possess the competencies to which they aspire. Through their behavior and expressed ways of thinking, competent models transmit knowledge and teach observers effective skills and strategies for managing environmental demands. Acquisition of better means raises perceived self-efficacy.
Social persuasion is a third way of strengthening people's beliefs that they have what it takes to succeed. People who are persuaded verbally that they possess the capabilities to master given activities are likely to mobilize greater effort and sustain it than if they harbor self-doubts and dwell on personal deficiencies when problems arise. To the extent that persuasive boosts in perceived self-efficacy lead people to try hard enough to succeed, they promote development of skills and a sense of personal efficacy.

It is more difficult to instill high beliefs of personal efficacy by social persuasion alone than to undermine it. Unrealistic boosts in efficacy are quickly disconfirmed by disappointing results of one's efforts. But people who have been persuaded that they lack capabilities tend to avoid challenging activities that cultivate potentialities and give up quickly in the face of difficulties. By constricting activities and undermining motivation, disbelief in one's capabilities creates its own behavioral validation.

Successful efficacy builders do more than convey positive appraisals. In addition to raising people's beliefs in their capabilities, they structure situations for them in ways that bring success and avoid placing people in situations prematurely where they are likely to fail often. They measure success in terms of self-improvement rather than by triumphs over others.

People also rely partly on their somatic and emotional states in judging their capabilities. They interpret their stress reactions and tension as signs of vulnerability to poor performance. In activities involving strength and stamina, people judge their fatigue, aches and pains as signs of physical debility. Mood also affects people's judgments of their personal efficacy. Positive mood enhances perceived self-efficacy, despondent mood diminishes it. The fourth way of modifying self-beliefs of efficacy is to reduce people's stress reactions and alter their negative emotional proclivities and misinterpretations of their physical states.

It is not the sheer intensity of emotional and physical reactions that is important but rather how they are perceived and interpreted. People who have a high sense of efficacy are likely to view their state of affective arousal as an energizing facilitator of performance, whereas those who are beset by self-doubts regard their arousal as a debilitator. Physiological indicators of efficacy play an especially influential role in health functioning and in athletic and other physical activities.
II. Efficacy-Activated Processes

Much research has been conducted on the four major psychological processes through which self-beliefs of efficacy affect human functioning.

A. Cognitive Processes

The effects of self-efficacy beliefs on cognitive processes take a variety of forms. Much human behavior, being purposive, is regulated by forethought embodying valued goals. Personal goal setting is influenced by self-appraisal of capabilities. The stronger the perceived self-efficacy, the higher the goal challenges people set for themselves and the firmer is their commitment to them.

Most courses of action are initially organized in thought. People’s beliefs in their efficacy shape the types of anticipatory scenarios they construct and rehearse. Those who have a high sense of efficacy, visualize success scenarios that provide positive guides and supports for performance. Those who doubt their efficacy visualize failure scenarios and dwell on the many things that can go wrong. It is difficult to achieve much while fighting self-doubt. A major function of thought is to enable people to predict events and to develop ways to control those that affect their lives. Such skills require effective cognitive processing of information that contains many ambiguities and uncertainties. In learning predictive and regulative rules people must draw on their knowledge to construct options, to weight and integrate predictive factors, to test and revise their judgments against the immediate and distal results of their actions, and to remember which factors they had tested and how well they had worked.

It requires a strong sense of efficacy to remain task oriented in the face of pressing situational demands, failures and setbacks that have significant repercussions. Indeed, when people are faced with the tasks of managing difficult environmental demands under taxing circumstances, those who are beset by self-doubts about their efficacy become more and more erratic in their analytic thinking, lower their aspirations and the quality of their performance deteriorates. In contrast, those who maintain a resilient sense of efficacy set themselves challenging goals and use good analytic thinking which pays off in performance accomplishments.
B. Motivational Processes

Self-beliefs of efficacy play a key role in the self-regulation of motivation. Most human motivation is cognitively generated. People motivate themselves and guide their actions anticipatorily by the exercise of forethought. They form beliefs about what they can do. They anticipate likely outcomes of prospective actions. They set goals for themselves and plan courses of action designed to realize valued futures.

There are three different forms of cognitive motivators around which different theories have been built. They include causal attributions, outcome expectancies, and cognized goals. The corresponding theories are attribution theory, expectancy-value theory and goal theory, respectively. Self-efficacy beliefs operate in each of these types of cognitive motivation. Self-efficacy beliefs influence causal attributions. People who regard themselves as highly efficacious attribute their failures to insufficient effort, those who regard themselves as inefficacious attribute their failures to low ability. Causal attributions affect motivation, performance and affective reactions mainly through beliefs of self-efficacy.

In expectancy-value theory, motivation is regulated by the expectation that a given course of behavior will produce certain outcomes and the value of those outcomes. But people act on their beliefs about what they can do, as well as on their beliefs about the likely outcomes of performance. The motivating influence of outcome expectancies is thus partly governed by self-beliefs of efficacy. There are countless attractive options people do not pursue because they judge they lack the capabilities for them. The predictiveness of expectancy-value theory is enhanced by including the influence of perceived self-efficacy.

The capacity to exercise self-influence by goal challenges and evaluative reaction to one's own attainments provides a major cognitive mechanism of motivation. A large body of evidence shows that explicit, challenging goals enhance and sustain motivation. Goals operate largely through self-influence processes rather than regulate motivation and action directly. Motivation based on goal setting involves a cognitive comparison process. By making self-satisfaction conditional on matching adopted goals, people give direction to their behavior and create incentives to persist in their efforts until they fulfill
their goals. They seek self-satisfaction from fulfilling valued goals and are prompted to intensify their efforts by discontent with substandard performances.

Motivation based on goals or personal standards is governed by three types of self influences. They include self-satisfying and self-dissatisfying reactions to one's performance, perceived self-efficacy for goal attainment, and readjustment of personal goals based on one's progress. Self-efficacy beliefs contribute to motivation in several ways: They determine the goals people set for themselves; how much effort they expend; how long they persevere in the face of difficulties; and their resilience to failures. When faced with obstacles and failures people who harbor self-doubts about their capabilities slacken their efforts or give up quickly. Those who have a strong belief in their capabilities exert greater effort when they fail to master the challenge. Strong perseverance contributes to performance accomplishments.

C. Affective Processes

People's beliefs in their coping capabilities affect how much stress and depression they experience in threatening or difficult situations, as well as their level of motivation. Perceived self-efficacy to exercise control over stressors plays a central role in anxiety arousal. People who believe they can exercise control over threats do not conjure up disturbing thought patterns. But those who believe they cannot manage threats experience high anxiety arousal. They dwell on their coping deficiencies. They view many aspects of their environment as fraught with danger. They magnify the severity of possible threats and worry about things that rarely happen. Through such inefficacious thinking they distress themselves and impair their level of functioning. Perceived coping self-efficacy regulates avoidance behavior as well as anxiety arousal. The stronger the senses of self-efficacy the bolder people are in taking on taxing and threatening activities.

Anxiety arousal is affected not only by perceived coping efficacy but by perceived efficacy to control disturbing thoughts. The exercise of control over one's own consciousness is summed up well in the proverb: "You cannot prevent the birds of worry and care from flying over your head. But you can stop them from building a nest in your head." Perceived self-efficacy to control thought processes is a key factor in regulating thought produced stress and depression. It is not the sheer frequency of disturbing thoughts but the perceived inability to turn them off that is the major source of distress.
Both perceived coping self-efficacy and thought control efficacy operate jointly to reduce anxiety and avoidant behavior.

Social cognitive theory prescribes mastery experiences as the principal means of personality change. Guided mastery is a powerful vehicle for instilling a robust sense of coping efficacy in people whose functioning is seriously impaired by intense apprehension and phobic self-protective reactions. Mastery experiences are structured in ways to build coping skills and instill beliefs that one can exercise control over potential threats. Intractable phobics, of course, are not about to do what they dread. One must, therefore, create an environment so that incapacitated phobics can perform successfully despite themselves. This is achieved by enlisting a variety of performance mastery aids. Feared activities are first modeled to show people how to cope with threats and to disconfirm their worst fears. Coping tasks are broken down into subtasks of easily mastered steps. Performing feared activities together with the therapist further enables phobics to do things they would resist doing by themselves. Another way of overcoming resistance is to use graduated time. Phobics will refuse threatening tasks if they will have to endure stress for a long time. But they will risk them for a short period. As their coping efficacy increases the time they perform the activity is extended. Protective aids and dosing the severity of threats also help to restore and develop a sense of coping efficacy.

After functioning is fully restored, the mastery aids are withdrawn to verify that coping successes stem from personal efficacy rather than from mastery aids. Self-directed mastery experiences, designed to provide varied confirmatory tests of coping capabilities, are then arranged to strengthen and generalize the sense of coping efficacy. Once people develop a resilient sense of efficacy they can withstand difficulties and adversities without adverse effects.

Guided mastery treatment achieves widespread psychological changes in a relatively short time. It eliminates phobic behavior and anxiety and biological stress reactions, creates positive attitudes and eradicates phobic ruminations and nightmares. Evidence that achievement of coping efficacy profoundly affects dream activity is a particularly striking generalized impact.

A low sense of efficacy to exercise control produces depression as well as anxiety. It does so in several different ways. One route to depression is through
unfulfilled aspiration. People who impose on themselves standards of self-worth they judge they cannot attain drive themselves to bouts of depression. A second efficacy route to depression is through a low sense of social efficacy. People who judge themselves to be socially efficacious seek out and cultivate social relationships that provide models on how to manage difficult situations, cushion the adverse effects of chronic stressors and bring satisfaction to people's lives. Perceived social inefficacy to develop satisfying and supportive relationships increases vulnerability to depression through social isolation. Much human depression is cognitively generated by dejecting ruminative thought. A low sense of efficacy to exercise control over ruminative thought also contributes to the occurrence, duration and recurrence of depressive episodes.

Other efficacy-activated processes in the affective domain concern the impact of perceived coping self-efficacy on biological systems that affect health functioning. Stress has been implicated as an important contributing factor to many physical dysfunctions. Controllability appears to be a key organizing principle regarding the nature of these stress effects. It is not stressful life conditions per se, but the perceived inability to manage them that is debilitating. Thus, exposure to stressors with ability to control them has no adverse biological effects. But exposure to the same stressors without the ability to control them impairs the immune system. The impairment of immune function increases susceptibility to infection, contributes to the development of physical disorders and accelerates the progression of disease.

Biological systems are highly interdependent. A weak sense of efficacy to exercise control over stressors activates autonomic reactions, catecholamine secretion and release of endogenous opioids. These biological systems are involved in the regulation of the immune system. Stress activated in the process of acquiring coping capabilities may have different effects than stress experienced in aversive situations with no prospect in sight of ever gaining any self-protective efficacy. There are substantial evolutionary benefits to experiencing enhanced immune function during development of coping capabilities vital for effective adaptation. It would not be evolutionarily advantageous if acute stressors invariably impaired immune function, because of their prevalence in everyday life. If this were the case, people would experience high vulnerability to infective agents that would quickly do them in. There is some evidence that providing
people with effective means for managing stressors may have a positive effect on immune function. Moreover, stress aroused while gaining coping mastery over stressors can enhance different components of the immune system.

There are other ways in which perceived self-efficacy serves to promote health. Lifestyle habits can enhance or impair health. This enables people to exert behavioral influence over their vitality and quality of health. Perceived self-efficacy affects every phase of personal change--whether people even consider changing their health habits; whether they enlist the motivation and perseverance needed to succeed should they choose to do so; and how well they maintain the habit changes they have achieved. The stronger the perceived self-regulatory efficacy the more successful people are in reducing health-impairing habits and adopting and integrating health-promoting habits into their regular lifestyle. Comprehensive community programs designed to prevent cardiovascular disease by altering risk-related habits reduce the rate of morbidity and mortality.

D. Selection Processes

The discussion so far has centered on efficacy-activated processes that enable people to create beneficial environments and to exercise some control over those they encounter day in and day out. People are partly the product of their environment. Therefore, beliefs of personal efficacy can shape the course lives take by influencing they types of activities and environments people choose. People avoid activities and situations they believe exceed their coping capabilities. But they readily undertake challenging activities and select situations they judge themselves capable of handling. By the choices they make, people cultivate different competencies, interests and social networks that determine life courses. Any factor that influences choice behavior can profoundly affect the direction of personal development. This is because the social influences operating in selected environments continue to promote certain competencies, values, and interests long after the efficacy decisional determinant has rendered its inaugurating effect.

Career choice and development is but one example of the power of self-efficacy beliefs to affect the course of life paths through choice-related processes. The higher the level of people's perceived self-efficacy the wider the range of career options they seriously consider, the greater their interest in them, and the better they prepare
themselves educationally for the occupational pursuits they choose and the greater is their success. Occupations structure a good part of people's lives and provide them with a major source of personal growth.

**III. Adaptive Benefits of Optimistic Self-Beliefs of Efficacy**

There is a growing body of evidence that human accomplishments and positive well-being require an optimistic sense of personal efficacy. This is because ordinary social realities are strewn with difficulties. They are full of impediments, adversities, setbacks, frustrations, and inequities. People must have a robust sense of personal efficacy to sustain the perseverant effort needed to succeed. In pursuits strewn with obstacles, realists either forego them, abort their efforts prematurely when difficulties arise or become cynical about the prospects of effecting significant changes.

It is widely believed that misjudgment breeds personal problems. Certainly, gross miscalculation can get one into trouble. However, the functional value of accurate self-appraisal depends on the nature of the activity. Activities in which mistakes can produce costly or injurious consequences call for accurate self-appraisal of capabilities. It is a different matter where difficult accomplishments can produce substantial personal and social benefits and the costs involve one's time, effort, and expendable resources. People with a high sense of efficacy have the staying power to endure the obstacles and setbacks that characterize difficult undertakings.

When people err in their self-appraisal they tend to overestimate their capabilities. This is a benefit rather than a cognitive failing to be eradicated. If efficacy beliefs always reflected only what people can do routinely they would rarely fail but they would not set aspirations beyond their immediate reach nor mount the extra effort needed to surpass their ordinary performances.

People who experience much distress have been compared in their skills and beliefs in their capabilities with those who do not suffer from such problems. The findings show that it is often the normal people who are distorters of reality. But they display self-enhancing biases and distort in the positive direction. People who are socially anxious or prone to depression are often just as socially skilled as those who do not suffer from such problems. But the normal ones believe they are much more adept than they
really are. The non-depressed people also have a stronger belief that they exercise some control over situations.

Social reformers strongly believe that they can mobilize the collective effort needed to bring social change. Although their beliefs are rarely fully realized they sustain reform efforts that achieve important gains. Were social reformers to be entirely realistic about the prospects of transforming social systems they would either forego the endeavor or fall easy victim to discouragement. Realists may adapt well to existing realities. But those with a tenacious self-efficacy are likely to change those realities.

Innovative achievements also require a resilient sense of efficacy. Innovations require heavy investment of effort over a long period with uncertain results. Moreover, innovations that clash with existing preferences and practices meet with negative social reactions. It is, therefore, not surprising that one rarely finds realists in the ranks of innovators and great achievers.

Many of the challenges of life are group problems requiring collective effort to produce significant change. The strength of groups, organizations, and even nations lies partly in people's sense of collective efficacy that they can solve the problems they face and improve their lives through unified effort. People's beliefs in their collective efficacy influence what they choose to do as a group, how much effort they put into it, their endurance when collective efforts fail to produce quick results, and their likelihood of success.

IV. Development and Exercise of Self-Efficacy over the Lifespan

Different periods of life present certain types of competency demands for successful functioning. These normative changes in required competencies with age do not represent lock-step stages through which everyone must inevitably pass. There are many pathways through life and, at any given period, people vary substantially in how efficaciously they manage their lives. The sections that follow provide a brief analysis of the characteristic developmental changes in the nature and scope of perceived self-efficacy over the course of the lifespan.

A. Origins of a Sense of Personal Agency

The newborn comes without any sense of self. Infant’s exploratory experiences in which they see themselves produce effects by their actions provide the initial basis for
developing a sense of efficacy. Shaking a rattle produces predictable sounds, energetic kicks shake their cribs, and screams bring adults. By repeatedly observing that environmental event occur with action, but not in its absence, infants learn that actions produce effects. Infants who experience success in controlling environmental events become more attentive to their own behavior and more competent in learning new efficacious responses, than are infants for whom the same environmental events occur regardless of how they behave.

Development of a sense of personal efficacy requires more than simply producing effects by actions. Those actions must be perceived as part of oneself. The self becomes differentiated from others through dissimilar experience. If feeding oneself brings comfort, whereas seeing others feed themselves has no similar effect, one's own activity becomes distinct from all other persons. As infants begin to mature those around them refer to them and treat them as distinct persons. Based on growing personal and social experiences they eventually form a symbolic representation of themselves as a distinct self.

**B. Familial Sources of Self-Efficacy**

Young children must gain self-knowledge of their capabilities in broadening areas of functioning. They have to develop, appraise and test their physical capabilities, their social competencies, their linguistic skills, and their cognitive skills for comprehending and managing the many situations they encounter daily. Development of sensory-motor capabilities greatly expands the infants' exploratory environment and the means for acting upon it. These early exploratory and play activities, which occupy much of children's waking hours, provide opportunities for enlarging their repertoire of basic skills and sense of efficacy.

Successful experiences in the exercise of personal control are central to the early development of social and cognitive competence. Parents who are responsive to their infants' behavior, and who create opportunities for efficacious actions by providing an enriched physical environment and permitting freedom of movement for exploration, have infants who are accelerated in their social and cognitive development. Parental responsiveness increases cognitive competence, and infants' expanded capabilities elicit greater parental responsiveness in a two-way influence. Development of language
provides children with the symbolic means to reflect on their experiences and what others tell them about their capabilities and, thus, to expand their self-knowledge of what they can and cannot do.

The initial efficacy experiences are centered in the family. But as the growing child's social world rapidly expands, peers become increasingly important in children's developing self-knowledge of their capabilities. It is in the context of peer relations that social comparison comes strongly into play. At first, the closest comparative age-mates are siblings. Families differ in number of siblings, how far apart in age they are, and in their sex distribution. Different family structures, as reflected in family size, birth order, and sibling constellation patterns, create different social comparisons for judging one's personal efficacy. Younger siblings find themselves in the unfavorable position of judging their capabilities in relation to older siblings who may be several years advanced in their development.

C. Broadening of Self-Efficacy through Peer Influences

Children's efficacy-testing experiences change substantially as they move increasingly into the larger community. It is in peer relationships that they broaden self-knowledge of their capabilities. Peers serve several important efficacy functions. Those who are most experienced and competent provide models of efficacious styles of thinking and behavior. A vast amount of social learning occurs among peers. In addition, age-mates provide highly informative comparisons for judging and verifying one's self-efficacy. Children are, therefore, especially sensitive to their relative standing among the peers in activities that determine prestige and popularity.

Peers are neither homogeneous nor selected indiscriminately. Children tend to choose peers who share similar interests and values. Selective peer association will promote self-efficacy in directions of mutual interest, leaving other potentialities underdeveloped. Because peers serve as a major influence in the development and validation of self-efficacy, disrupted or impoverished peer relationships can adversely affect the growth of personal efficacy. A low sense of social efficacy can, in turn, create internal obstacles to favorable peer relationships. Thus, children who regard themselves as socially inefficacious withdraw socially, perceive low acceptance by their peers and have a low sense of self-worth. There are some forms of behavior where a high sense of
efficacy may be socially alienating rather than socially affiliating. For example, children who readily resort to aggression perceive themselves as highly efficacious in getting things they want by aggressive means.

**D. School as an Agency for Cultivating Cognitive Self-Efficacy**

During the crucial formative period of children's lives, the school functions as the primary setting for the cultivation and social validation of cognitive competencies. School is the place where children develop the cognitive competencies and acquire the knowledge and problem-solving skills essential for participating effectively in the larger society. Here their knowledge and thinking skills are continually tested, evaluated, and socially compared. As children master cognitive skills, they develop a growing sense of their intellectual efficacy. Many social factors, apart from the formal instruction, such as peer modeling of cognitive skills, social comparison with the performances of other students, motivational enhancement through goals and positive incentives, and teachers interpretations of children's successes and failures in ways that reflect favorably or unfavorably on their ability also affect children's judgments of their intellectual efficacy.

The task of creating learning environments conducive to development of cognitive skills rests heavily on the talents and self-efficacy of teachers. Those who are having a high sense of efficacy about their teaching capabilities can motivate their students and enhance their cognitive development. Teachers who have a low sense of instructional efficacy favor a custodial orientation that relies heavily on negative sanctions to get students to study.

Teachers operate collectively within an interactive social system rather than as isolates. The belief systems of staffs create school cultures that can have vitalizing or demoralizing effects on how well schools function as a social system. Schools in which the staffs collectively judge themselves as powerless to get students to achieve academic success convey a group sense of academic futility that can pervade the entire life of the school. Schools in which staff members collectively judge themselves capable of promoting academic success imbue their schools with a positive atmosphere for development that promotes academic attainments regardless of whether they serve predominantly advantaged or disadvantaged students.
Students' belief in their capabilities to master academic activities affects their aspirations, their level of interest in academic activities, and their academic accomplishments. There are a number of school practices that, for the less talented or ill prepared, tend to convert instructional experiences into education in inefficacy. These include lock-step sequences of instruction, which lose many children along the way; ability groupings which further diminish the perceived self-efficacy of those cast in the lower ranks; and competitive practices where many are doomed to failure for the success of a relative few.

Classroom structures affect the development of intellectual self-efficacy, in large part, by the relative emphasis they place on social comparison versus self-comparison appraisal. Self-appraisals of less able students suffer most when the whole group studies the same material and teachers make frequent comparative evaluations. Under such a monolithic structure students rank themselves according to capability with high consensus. Once established, reputations are not easily changed. In a personalized classroom structure, individualized instruction tailored to students' knowledge and skills enables all of them to expand their competencies and provides fewer bases for demoralizing social comparison. As a result, students are more likely to compare their rate of progress to their personal standards than to the performance of others. Self-comparison of improvement in a personalized classroom structure raises perceived capability. Cooperative learning structures, in which students work together and help one another, also tend to promote more positive self-evaluations of capability and higher academic attainments than do individualistic or competitive ones.

E. Growth of Self-Efficacy through Transitional Experiences of Adolescence

Each period of development brings with it new challenges for coping efficacy. As adolescents approach the demands of adulthood, they must learn to assume full responsibility for themselves in almost every dimension of life. This requires mastering many new skills and the ways of adult society. Learning how to deal with pubertal changes, emotionally invested partnerships and sexuality becomes a matter of considerable importance. The task of choosing what lifework to pursue also looms large during this period. These are but a few of the areas in which new competencies and self-beliefs of efficacy have to be developed.
With growing independence during adolescence some experimentation with risky behavior is not all that uncommon. Adolescents expand and strengthen their sense of efficacy by learning how to deal successfully with potentially troublesome matters in which they are unpracticed as well as with advantageous life events. Insulation from problematic situations leaves one ill-prepared to cope with potential difficulties. Whether adolescents forsake risky activities or become chronically enmeshed in them is determined by the interplay of personal competencies, self-management efficacy and the prevailing influences in their lives.

Impoverished hazardous environments present especially harsh realities with minimal resources and social supports for culturally-valued pursuits, but extensive modeling, incentives and social supports for transgressive styles of behavior. Such environments severely tax the coping efficacy of youth enmeshed in them to make it through adolescence in ways that do not irreversibly foreclose many beneficial life paths.

Adolescence has often been characterized as a period of psychosocial turmoil. While no period of life is ever free of problems, contrary to the stereotype of "storm and stress," most adolescents negotiate the important transitions of this period without undue disturbance or discord. However, youngsters who enter adolescence beset by a disabling sense of inefficacy transport their vulnerability to distress and debility to the new environmental demands. The ease with which the transition from childhood to the demands of adulthood is made similarly depends on the strength of personal efficacy built up through prior mastery experiences.

F. Self-Efficacy Concerns of Adulthood

Young adulthood is a period when people have to learn to cope with many new demands arising from lasting partnerships, marital relationships, parenthood, and occupational careers. As in earlier mastery tasks, a firm sense of self-efficacy is an important contributor to the attainment of further competencies and success. Those who enter adulthood poorly equipped with skills and plagued by self-doubts find many aspects of their adult life stressful and depressing.

Beginning a productive vocational career poses a major transitional challenge in early adulthood. There are a number of ways in which self-efficacy beliefs contribute to career development and success in vocational pursuits. In preparatory phases, people's
perceived self-efficacy partly determines how well they develop the basic cognitive, self-management and interpersonal skills on which occupational careers are founded. As noted earlier, beliefs concerning one's capabilities are influential determinants of the vocational life paths that are chosen.

It is one thing to get started in an occupational pursuit, it is another thing to do well and advance in it. Psychosocial skills contribute more heavily to career success than do occupational technical skills. Development of coping capabilities and skills in managing one's motivation, emotional states and thought processes increases perceived self-regulatory efficacy. The higher the sense of self-regulatory efficacy the better the occupational functioning. Rapid technological changes in the modern workplace are placing an increasing premium on higher problem-solving skills and resilient self-efficacy to cope effectively with job displacements and restructuring of vocational activities.

The transition to parenthood suddenly thrusts young adults into the expanded role of both parent and spouse. They now not only have to deal with the ever-changing challenges of raising children but to manage interdependent relationships within a family system and social links to many extra familial social systems including educational, recreational, medical, and care giving facilities. Parents who are secure in their parenting efficacy shepherd their children adequately through the various phases of development without serious problems or severe strain on the marital relationship. But it can be a trying period for those who lack a sense of efficacy to manage the expanded familial demands. They are highly vulnerable to stress and depression.

Increasing numbers of mothers are joining the work force either by economic necessity or personal preference. Combining family and career has now become the normative pattern. This requires management of the demands of both familial and occupational roles. Because of the cultural lag between societal practices and the changing status of women, they continue to bear the major share of the homemaking responsibility. Women who have a strong sense of efficacy to manage the multiple demands of family and work and to enlist their husbands' aid with childcare experience a positive sense of well-being. But those who are beset by self-doubts in their ability to combine the dual roles suffer physical and emotional strain.
By the middle years, people settle into established routines that stabilize their sense of personal efficacy in the major areas of functioning. However, the stability is a shaky one because life does not remain static. Rapid technological and social changes constantly require adaptations calling for self-reappraisals of capabilities. In their occupations, the middle-aged find themselves pressured by younger challengers. Situations in which people must compete for promotions, status, and even work itself, force constant self-appraisals of capabilities by means of social comparison with younger competitors.

G. Reappraisals of Self-Efficacy with Advancing Age

The self-efficacy issues of the elderly center on reappraisals and misappraisals of their capabilities. Biological conceptions of aging focus extensively on declining abilities. Many physical capacities do decrease as people grow older, thus, requiring reappraisals of self-efficacy for activities in which the biological functions have been significantly affected. However, gains in knowledge, skills, and expertise compensate some loss in physical reserve capacity. When the elderly are taught to use their intellectual capabilities, their improvement in cognitive functioning more than offsets the average decrement in performance over two decades. Because people rarely exploit their full potential, elderly persons who invest the necessary effort can function at the higher levels of younger adults. By affecting level of involvement in activities, perceived self-efficacy can contribute to the maintenance of social, physical and intellectual functioning over the adult life span.

Older people tend to judge changes in their intellectual capabilities largely in terms of their memory performance. Lapses and difficulties in memory that young adults dismiss are inclined to be interpreted by older adults as indicators of declining cognitive capabilities. Those who regard memory as a biologically shrinking capacity with aging have low faith in their memory capabilities and enlist little effort to remember things. Older adults who have a stronger sense of memory efficacy exert greater cognitive effort to aid their recall and, as a result, achieve better memory.

Much variability exists across behavioral domains and educational and socioeconomic levels, and there is no uniform decline in beliefs in personal efficacy in old age. The persons against whom the elderly compare themselves contribute much to
the variability in perceived self-efficacy. Those who measure their capabilities against people their age are less likely to view themselves as declining in capabilities than if younger cohorts are used in comparative self-appraisal. Perceived cognitive inefficacy is accompanied by lowered intellectual performances. A declining sense of self-efficacy, which often may stem more from disuse and negative cultural expectations than from biological aging, can thus set in motion self-perpetuating processes that result in declining cognitive and behavioral functioning. People who are beset with uncertainties about their personal efficacy not only curtail the range of their activities but undermine their efforts in those they undertake. The result is a progressive loss of interest and skill.

Major life changes in later years are brought about by retirement, relocation, and loss of friends or spouses. Such changes place demands on interpersonal skills to cultivate new social relationships that can contribute to positive functioning and personal well-being. Perceived social inefficacy increases older person's vulnerability to stress and depression both directly and indirectly by impeding development of social supports which serve as a buffer against life stressors.

The roles into which older adults are cast impose socio-cultural constraints on the cultivation and maintenance of perceived self-efficacy. As people move to older-age phases most suffer losses of resources, productive roles, and access to opportunities and challenging activities. Monotonous environments that require little thought or independent judgment diminishes the quality of functioning, intellectually challenging ones enhance it. Some of the declines in functioning with age result from socio-cultural dispossession of the environmental support for it. It requires a strong sense of personal efficacy to reshape and maintain a productive life in cultures that cast their elderly in powerless roles devoid of purpose. In societies that emphasize the potential for self-development throughout the lifespan, rather than psychophysical decline with aging, the elderly tend to lead productive and purposeful lives.

**The Role of Self-Efficacy**

Virtually all people can identify goals they want to accomplish, things they would like to change, and things they would like to achieve. However, most people also realize that putting these plans into action is not quite so simple. Bandura and others have found
that an individual’s self-efficacy plays a major role in how goals, tasks, and challenges are approached.

People with a strong sense of self-efficacy:
- View challenging problems as tasks to be mastered.
- Develop deeper interest in the activities in which they participate.
- Form a stronger sense of commitment to their interests and activities.
- Recover quickly from setbacks and disappointments.

People with a weak sense of self-efficacy:
- Avoid challenging tasks.
- Believe that difficult tasks and situations are beyond their capabilities.
- Focus on personal failings and negative outcomes.
- Quickly lose confidence in personal abilities (Bandura, 1994).

Sources of Self-Efficacy

How does self-efficacy develop? These beliefs begin to form in early childhood as children deal with a wide variety of experiences, tasks, and situations. However, the growth of self-efficacy does not end during youth, but continues to evolve throughout life as people acquire new skills, experiences, and understanding (Bandura, 1992).

According to Bandura, there are four major sources of self-efficacy.

1. Mastery Experiences

"The most effective way of developing a strong sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences," Bandura explained (1994). Performing a task successfully strengthens our sense of self-efficacy. However, failing to adequately deal with a task or challenge can undermine and weaken self-efficacy.

2. Social Modeling

Witnessing other people successfully completing a task is another important source of self-efficacy. According to Bandura, “Seeing people similar to oneself succeed by sustained effort raises observers' beliefs that they too possess the capabilities master comparable activities to succeed” (1994).

3. Social Persuasion

Bandura also asserted that people could be persuaded to belief that they have the skills and capabilities to succeed. Consider a time when someone said something positive
and encouraging that helped you achieve a goal. Getting verbal encouragement from others helps people overcome self-doubt and instead focus on giving their best effort to the task at hand.

4. Psychological Responses

Our own responses and emotional reactions to situations also play an important role in self-efficacy. Moods, emotional states, physical reactions, and stress levels can all impact how a person feels about their personal abilities in a particular situation. A person who becomes extremely nervous before speaking in public may develop a weak sense of self-efficacy in these situations. However, Bandura also notes "it is not the sheer intensity of emotional and physical reactions that is important but rather how they are perceived and interpreted" (1994). By learning how to minimize stress and elevate mood when facing difficult or challenging tasks, people can improve their sense of self-efficacy.

Self Efficacy in the Classroom

To help struggling learners with low self-efficacy, and get them to invest sufficient effort and persist on challenging tasks, teachers must systematically develop high self-efficacy within these students. Fortunately, research suggests that teachers can help strengthen the self-efficacy of struggling learners by:

1. **Linking new work to recent successes**
2. **Reinforcing effort and persistence**
3. **Stressing peer modeling**
4. **Teaching struggling learners to make facilitative attributions**
5. **Helping struggling learners identify or create personally important goals**

However, for these strategies to be effective, struggling learners with low self-efficacy must succeed on the tasks in which they expect they will fail. Implications from research suggests that it is extremely important that class work be at the instructional level of the student, and that assigned homework should also be at a level that students can complete their homework independently, yet remain challenged (not frustrated). Class work should increase expectations of success instead of promoting failure. To do this, teachers need to (a) give struggling learners work at their proper instructional and independent levels, and (b) adhere to instructional principles likely to improve self-efficacy (Margolis & McCabe 2004).
Criticisms

- Some critics argue that self-efficacy is a cause of behavior, not merely a predictor as Bandura argues (Hawkins, 1995).
- Interest theory predicts that it is student interest in a subject, which predicts student achievement.
- Attribution theory predicts that students, who believe that success or failure depends on the effort exerted on a particular task, will work harder than students who believe that success or failure depends on ability.

Building Self Efficacy in students today is highly important. Teachers can do this by conveying high expectations of students and praising good work. If we can build up the self efficacy factor in students, we are likely to see higher performances from them in their coursework. ~LWoods

Self-Efficacy: Helping Students Believe in Themselves

Self efficacy is commonly defined as the belief in one's capabilities to achieve a goal or an outcome. Students with a strong sense of efficacy are more likely to challenge themselves with difficult tasks and be intrinsically motivated. These students will put forth a high degree of effort in order to meet their commitments, and attribute failure to things which are in their control, rather than blaming external factors. Self-efficacious students also recover quickly from setbacks, and ultimately are likely to achieve their personal goals. Students with low self-efficacy, on the other hand, believe they cannot be successful and thus are less likely to make a concerted, extended effort and may consider challenging tasks as threats that are to be avoided. Thus, students with poor self-efficacy have low aspirations which may result in disappointing academic performances becoming part of a self-fulfilling feedback cycle.

How can students gain self-efficacy?

There are four sources of self-efficacy. Teachers can use strategies to build self-efficacy in various ways.

**Mastery experiences** - Students' successful experiences boost self-efficacy, while failures erode it. This is the most robust source of self-efficacy.

**Vicarious experience** - Observing a peer succeed at a task can strengthen beliefs in one's own abilities.
Verbal persuasion - Teachers can boost self-efficacy with credible communication and feedback to guide the student through the task or motivate them to make their best effort. Emotional state - A positive mood can boost one's beliefs in self-efficacy, while anxiety can undermine it. A certain level of emotional stimulation can create an energizing feeling that can contribute to strong performances. Teachers can help by reducing stressful situations and lowering anxiety surrounding events like exams or presentations.

Tips to improve self-efficacy for struggling students

- **Use moderately-difficult tasks**
  If the task is too easy will be boring or embarrassing and may communicate the feeling that the teacher doubts their abilities; a too-difficult task will re-enforce low self-efficacy. The target for difficulty is slightly above the students' current ability level.

- **Use peer models** Students can learn by watching a peer succeed at a task. Peers may be drawn from groups as defined by gender, ethnicity, social circles, interests, achievement level, clothing, or age.

- **Teach specific learning strategies**
  Give students a concrete plan of attack for working on an assignment, rather than simply turning them loose. This may apply to overall study skills, such as preparing for an exam, or to a specific assignment or project.

- **Capitalize on students' interests**
  Tie the course material or concepts to student interests such as sports, pop culture, movies or technology.

- **Allow students to make their own choices**
  Set up some areas of the course that allow students to make their own decisions, such as with flexible grading, assignment options or self-determined due dates.

- **Encourage students to try**
  Give them consistent, credible and specific encouragement, such as, "You can do this. We've set up an outline for how to write a lab report and a schedule for what to do each week - now follow the plan and you will be successful."
• **Give frequent, focused feedback**
  Giving praise and encouragement is very important, however it must be credible. Use praise when earned and avoid hyperbole. When giving feedback on student performance, compare to past performances by the same student, don't make comparisons between students.

• **Encourage accurate attributions**
  Help students understand that they don't fail because they're dumb, they fail because they didn't follow instructions, they didn't spend enough time on the task, or they didn't follow through on the learning strategy.

**Teachers need high self-efficacy too**

Teachers with a high sense of efficacy about their teaching capabilities may have an easier time motivating their students and enhancing their cognitive development. These teachers may also be able to rebound from setbacks and more willing to experiment with new ideas or techniques. Low efficacious teachers may rely more on a controlling teaching style and may be more critical of students.

"Schools in which staff members collectively judge themselves capable of promoting academic success imbue their schools with a positive atmosphere for development that promotes academic attainments regardless of whether they serve predominantly advantaged or disadvantaged students."

**Self-efficacy Beliefs**

Of all the thoughts that affect human functioning, and standing at the very core of social cognitive theory, are *self-efficacy* beliefs, "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required attaining designated types of performances". Self-efficacy beliefs provide the foundation for human motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment. This is because unless people believe that their actions can produce the outcomes they desire, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties. Much empirical evidence now supports Bandura's contention that self-efficacy beliefs touch virtually every aspect of people's lives—whether they think productively, self-debilitatively, pessimistically or optimistically; how well they motivate themselves and persevere in the face of adversities; their vulnerability
to stress and depression, and the life choices they make. Self-efficacy is also a critical determinant of self-regulation.

Of course, human functioning is influenced by many factors. The success or failure that people experience as they engage the myriad tasks that comprise their life naturally influence the many decisions they must make. Also, the knowledge and skills they possess will certainly play critical roles in what they choose to do and not do. Individuals interpret the results of their attainments, however, just as they make judgments about the quality of the knowledge and skills they possess. Imagine, for example, a student who has just received a grade of B on a term paper. In and of itself, attaining a grade of B has no inherent causal properties. What can we predict about how receiving such a grade will affect a student? An "A student" who worked hard on that assignment will view that B in ways quite dissimilar from that of a "C student" who worked equally hard. For the former, the B will be received with disappointment; for the latter, the B is likely to be received with elation. The student accustomed to A's is likely to have his writing confidence bruised; the C-acquainted student is sure to have his confidence boosted.

Bandura's (1997) key contentions as regards the role of self-efficacy beliefs in human functioning is that "people's level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively true". For this reason, how people behave can often be better predicted by the beliefs they hold about their capabilities than by what they are actually capable of accomplishing, for these self-efficacy perceptions help determine what individuals do with the knowledge and skills they have. This helps explain why people's behaviors are sometimes disjoined from their actual capabilities and why their behavior may differ widely even when they have similar knowledge and skills. For example, many talented people suffer frequent (and sometimes debilitating) bouts of self-doubt about capabilities they clearly possess, just as many individuals are confident about what they can accomplish despite possessing a modest repertoire of skills. Belief and reality are seldom perfectly matched, and individuals are typically guided by their beliefs when they engage the world. As a consequence, people's accomplishments are generally better predicted by their self-efficacy beliefs than by their
previous attainments, knowledge, or skills. Of course, no amount of confidence or self-appreciation can produce success when requisite skills and knowledge are absent.

It bears noting that self-efficacy beliefs are themselves critical determinants of how well knowledge and skill are acquired in the first place. The contention that self-efficacy beliefs are a critical ingredient in human functioning is consistent with the view of many theorists and philosophers who have argued that the potent affective, evaluative, and episodic nature of beliefs make them a filter through which new phenomena are interpreted (e.g., Aristotle, James, Dewey, Kant, Maslow, Nisbett and Ross, Rokeach).

People's self-efficacy beliefs should not be confused with their judgments of the consequences that their behavior will produce. Typically, of course, self-efficacy beliefs help determine the outcomes one expects. Confident individuals anticipate successful outcomes. Students confident in their social skills anticipate successful social encounters. Those confident in their academic skills expect high marks on exams and expect the quality of their work to reap personal and professional benefits. The opposite is true of those who lack confidence. Students who doubt their social skills often envision rejection or ridicule even before they establish social contact. Those who lack confidence in their academic skills envision a low grade before they begin an examination or enroll in a course. The expected results of these imagined performances will be differently envisioned: social success or greater career options for the former, social isolation or curtailed academic possibilities for the latter.

**How Self-Efficacy Beliefs Influence Human Functioning**

Self-efficacy beliefs can enhance human accomplishment and well-being in countless ways. They influence the *choices* people make and the courses of action they pursue. Individuals tend to select tasks and activities in which they feel competent and confident and avoid those in which they do not. Unless people believe that their actions will have the desired consequences, they have little incentive to engage in those actions. How far will an interest in architecture take a student who feels hopeless in geometry? Whatever factors operate to influence behavior, they are rooted in the core belief that one has the capability to accomplish that behavior.

Self-efficacy beliefs also help determine how much *effort* people will expend on an activity, how long they will *persevere* when confronting obstacles, and how *resilient*
they will be in the face of adverse situations. The higher the sense of efficacy, the greater
the effort, persistence, and resilience. People with a strong sense of personal competence
approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided.
They have greater intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities, set themselves
challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them, and heighten and sustain
their efforts in the face of failure. Moreover, they more quickly recover their sense of
efficacy after failures or setbacks, and attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient
knowledge and skills that are acquirable.

Self-efficacy beliefs also influence an individual's thought patterns and emotional
reactions. High self-efficacy helps create feelings of serenity in approaching difficult
tasks and activities. Conversely, people with low self-efficacy may believe that things are
tougher than they really are, a belief that fosters anxiety, stress, depression, and a narrow
vision of how best to solve a problem. As a consequence, self-efficacy beliefs can
powerfully influence the level of accomplishment that one ultimately achieves. This
function of self-beliefs can also create the type of self-fulfilling prophecy in which one
accomplishes what one believes one can accomplish. That is, the perseverance associated
with high self-efficacy is likely to lead to increased performance, which, in turn, raises
one's sense of efficacy and spirit, whereas the giving-in associated with low self-efficacy
helps ensure the very failure that further lowers confidence and morale.

The mediational role that judgments of self-efficacy play in human behavior is
affected by a number of factors. There may be disincentives and performance constraints;
that is, even highly self-efficacious and well-skilled people may choose not to behave in
concert with their beliefs and abilities because they simply lack the incentive to do so,
because they lack the necessary resources, or because they perceive social constraints in
their envisioned path or outcome. In such cases, efficacy will fail to predict performance.
An individual may feel capable but do nothing because he feels impeded by these real or
imaginary constraints.

It is not unusual for individuals to over- or underestimate their abilities and
suffers the consequences of such errors of judgment. These consequences of misjudgment
play a part in the continual process of efficacy self-appraisals. When consequences are
slight, individuals may not feel the need to reappraise their abilities and may continue to
engage in tasks beyond their competence. In such situations, the relationship between efficacy judgments and subsequent behavior will be muddled by the misjudgment of skills. Self-efficacy must also be checked periodically to assess the effect of experiences on competence, for the degree of relationship between self-efficacy and action is affected by temporal disparities. Bandura argued that because strong self-efficacy beliefs are generally the product of time and multiple experiences, they are highly resistant and predictable. Weak self-efficacy beliefs, however, require constant reappraisal if they are to serve as predictors. Both, of course, are susceptible to a powerful experience or consequence.

Although self-efficacy beliefs exercise a powerful influence on human action, a number of factors can affect the strength of the relationship. It cannot be overemphasized that, when exploring the relationship between efficacy and behavior, we must be certain to measure the self-efficacy beliefs relevant to the behavior in question, and vice-versa. Faulty assessment of self-percepts or performance will create an ambiguous relationship.

Bandura (1986) has argued that "measures of self-precept must be tailored to the domain of psychological functioning being explored". It is important to know the precise nature of the skills required to successfully perform a particular behavior, for misweighting requisite sub-skills results in discrepancies between self-efficacy and behavior, and the problem is worsened when individuals are called on to make efficacy judgments about their own cognitive skills. Similarly, when individuals are uncertain about the nature of their task, their efficacy judgments can mislead them. Tasks perceived as more difficult or demanding than they really are result in inaccurate low efficacy readings, whereas those perceived as less difficult may result in overconfidence. Individuals often perceive their abilities as only partially mastered, feeling more competent about some components than about others. How they focus on and appraise these components will strongly affect their sense of efficacy about the task to be undertaken.

If obscure aims and performance ambiguity are perceived, sense of efficacy is of little use in predicting behavioral outcomes, for individuals do not have a clear idea of how much effort to expend, how long to sustain it, and how to correct missteps and misjudgments. The aims of a task and the performance levels required for successful
execution must be accurately appraised for self-efficacy judgments to serve as useful regulators and predictors of performance. This factor is especially relevant in situations where an individual's "accomplishment is socially judged by ill-defined criteria so that one has to rely on others to find out how one is doing" (Bandura, 1986, p. 398). In such situations, people lack the experience to accurately assess their sense of efficacy and have no option but to gauge their abilities from knowledge of other experiences, often a very poor indicator and predictor of the required performance. This faulty self-knowledge can have unpredictable results.

**How Self-Efficacy Beliefs Are Created**

Individuals form their self-efficacy beliefs by interpreting information primarily from four sources. The most influential source is the interpreted result of one's previous performance, or *mastery experience*. Individuals engage in tasks and activities, interpret the results of their actions, use the interpretations to develop beliefs about their capability to engage in subsequent tasks or activities, and act in concert with the beliefs created. Typically, outcomes interpreted as successful raise self-efficacy; those interpreted as failures lower it. Of course, people who possess a low sense of efficacy often discount their successes rather than change their self-belief. Even after individuals achieve success through dogged effort, some continue to doubt their efficacy to mount a similar effort. Consequently, mastery experiences are only raw data, and many factors influence how such information is cognitively processed and affects an individual's self-appraisal.

In addition to interpreting the results of their actions, people form their self-efficacy beliefs through the *vicarious experience* of observing others perform tasks. This source of information is weaker than mastery experience in helping create self-efficacy beliefs, but when people are uncertain about their own abilities or when they have limited prior experience, they become more sensitive to it. The effects of *modeling* are particularly relevant in this context. Especially when the individual has little prior experience with the task. Even experienced and self-efficacious individuals, however, will raise their self-efficacy even higher if models teach them better ways of doing things. Vicarious experience is particularly powerful when observers see similarities in some attribute and then assume that the model's performance is diagnostic of their own capability. For example, a girl will raise her perceived physical efficacy on seeing a
A woman model exhibit physical strength but not after seeing a male model do so. In this case, gender is the attribute for assumed similarity. Observing the successes of such models contributes to the observers' beliefs about their own capabilities ("If they can do it, so can I!"). Conversely, watching models with perceived similar attributes fail can undermine the observers' beliefs about their own capability to succeed. When people perceive the model's attributes as highly divergent from their own, the influence of vicarious experience is greatly minimized. It bears noting that people seek out models who possess qualities they admire and capabilities to which they aspire. A significant model in one's life can help instill self-beliefs that will influence the course and direction that life will take.

Individuals also create and develop self-efficacy beliefs as a result of the social persuasions they receive from others. These persuasions can involve exposure to the verbal judgments that others provide. Persuaders play an important part in the development of an individual's self-beliefs. But social persuasions should not be confused with knee-jerk praise or empty inspirational homilies. Effective persuaders must cultivate people's beliefs in their capabilities while at the same time ensuring that the envisioned success is attainable. And, just as positive persuasions may work to encourage and empower, negative persuasions can work to defeat and weaken self-efficacy beliefs. In fact, it is usually easier to weaken self-efficacy beliefs through negative appraisals than to strengthen such beliefs through positive encouragement.

Somatic and emotional states such as anxiety, stress, arousal, and mood states also provide information about efficacy beliefs. People can gauge their degree of confidence by the emotional state they experience as they contemplate an action. Strong emotional reactions to a task provide cues about the anticipated success or failure of the outcome. When they experience negative thoughts and fears about their capabilities, those affective reactions can themselves lower self-efficacy perceptions and trigger additional stress and agitation that help ensure the inadequate performance they fear. Of course, judgments of self-efficacy from somatic and emotional states are not necessarily linked to task cues. Individuals in a depressed mood lower their efficacy independent of task cues. One way to raise self-efficacy beliefs is to improve physical and emotional well-being and reduce negative emotional states. Because individuals have the capability
to alter their own thinking and feeling, enhanced self-efficacy beliefs can, in turn, powerfully influence the physiological states themselves. As Bandura (1997) has observed, people live in psychic environments that are primarily of their own making.

The sources of self-efficacy information are not directly translated into judgments of competence. Individuals interpret the results of events, and these interpretations provide the information on which judgments are based. The types of information people attend to and use to make efficacy judgments, and the rules they employ for weighting and integrating them, form the basis for such interpretations. Thus, the selection, integration, interpretation, and recollection of information influence judgments of self-efficacy.

**Self-Efficacy and Human Attainment**

The Roman poet Virgil observed that "they are able who think they are able." The French novelist Alexander Dumas wrote that, when people doubt themselves, they make their own failure certain by themselves being the first to be convinced of it. There is now ample evidence to suggest that Virgil and Dumas were absolutely correct.

Since Bandura first introduced the construct of self-efficacy in 1977, researchers have been very successful in demonstrating that individuals' self-efficacy beliefs powerfully influence their attainments in diverse fields (see Stajkovic and Luthans 1998, for meta-analysis of research on the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and achievement outcomes). In his 1997 book, *Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*, Bandura set forth the tenets of his theory of self-efficacy and its applications to fields as diverse as life-course development, education, health, psychopathology, athletics, business, and international affairs. In this volume, Bandura also further situated self-efficacy within a social cognitive theory of personal and collective agency that operates in concert with other socio-cognitive factors in regulating human well-being and attainment. He also addressed the major facets of agency—the nature and structure of self-efficacy beliefs, their origins and effects, the processes through which such self-beliefs operate, and the modes by which they can be created and strengthened. In addition, Bandura reviewed a vast body of research on each of these aspects of agency in diverse applications of the theory. A search for the term "self-efficacy" in most academic
databases reveals that, by the year 2000, over 2500 articles had been written on this important psychological construct.

Self-efficacy has generated research in areas as diverse as medicine, athletics, media studies, business, social and political change, psychology, psychiatry, and education. In psychology, it has been the focus of studies on clinical problems such as phobias, depression, social skills, assertiveness, smoking behavior, and moral development. Self-efficacy has been especially prominent in studies of educational constructs such as academic achievement, attributions of success and failure, goal setting, social comparisons, memory, problem solving, career development, and teaching and teacher education. In general, researchers have established that self-efficacy beliefs and behavior changes and outcomes are highly correlated and that self-efficacy is an excellent predictor of behavior. The depth of this support prompted Graham and Weiner (1996) to conclude that, particularly in psychology and education, self-efficacy has proven to be a more consistent predictor of behavioral outcomes than have any other motivational constructs. Clearly, it is not simply a matter of how capable one is, but of how capable one believes oneself to be.

**How self-efficacy affects human function**

**Choices regarding behavior**

People will be more inclined to take on a task if they believe they can succeed. People generally avoid tasks where their self-efficacy is low, but will engage in tasks where their self-efficacy is high. People with a self-efficacy significantly beyond their actual ability often overestimate their ability to complete tasks, which can lead to difficulties. On the other hand, people with a self-efficacy significantly lower than their ability are unlikely to grow and expand their skills. Research shows that the ‘optimum’ level of self-efficacy is a little above ability, which encourages people to tackle challenging tasks and gain valuable experience.

**Motivation**

People with high self-efficacy in a task are more likely to make more of an effort, and persist longer, than those with low efficacy. The stronger the self-efficacy or mastery expectations, the more active the efforts. On the other hand, low self-efficacy provides an
incentive to learn more about the subject. As a result, someone with a high self-efficacy may not prepare sufficiently for a task.

**Thought patterns & responses**

Low self-efficacy can lead people to believe tasks are harder than they actually are.

This often results in poor task planning, as well as increased stress. Observational evidence shows that people become erratic and unpredictable when engaging in a task in which they have low self-efficacy. On the other hand, people with high self-efficacy often take a wider overview of a task in order to take the best route of action. People with high self-efficacy are shown to be encouraged by obstacles to make a greater effort. Self-efficacy also affects how people respond to failure. A person with a high self-efficacy will attribute the failure to external factors, where a person with low self-efficacy will attribute failure to low ability. For example; a person with high self-efficacy in regards to mathematics may attribute a poor result to a harder than usual test, feeling sick, lack of effort or insufficient preparation. A person with a low self-efficacy will attribute the result to poor ability in mathematics.

**Health Behaviours**

Health behaviors such as non-smoking, physical exercise, dieting, condom use, dental hygiene, seat belt use, or breast self-examination are, among others, dependent on one’s level of perceived self-efficacy (Conner & Norman, 2005). Self-efficacy beliefs are cognitions that determine whether health behavior change will be initiated, how much effort will be expended, and how long it will be sustained in the face of obstacles and failures. Self-efficacy influences the effort one puts forth to change risk behavior and the persistence to continue striving despite barriers and setbacks that may undermine motivation. Self-efficacy is directly related to health behavior, but it also affects health behaviors indirectly through its impact on goals. Self-efficacy influences the challenges that people take on as well as how high they set their goals (e.g., "I intend to reduce my smoking," or "I intend to quit smoking altogether"). A number of studies on the adoption of health practices have measured self-efficacy to assess its potential influences in initiating behavior change (Luszczynska, & Schwarzer, 2005). Often single-item measures or very brief scales (e.g., 4 items) have been used. It is actually not necessary to
use larger scales if a specific behavior is to be predicted. More important is rigorous theory-based item wording. A rule of thumb is to use the following semantic structure: "I am certain that I can do xx, even if yy (barrier)" (Schwarzer, 2008). If the target behavior is less specific, one can either use more items that jointly cover the area of interest, or develop a few specific sub-scales. Whereas general self-efficacy measures refer to the ability to deal with a variety of stressful situations, measures of self-efficacy for health behaviors refer to beliefs about the ability to perform certain health behaviors. These behaviors may be defined broadly (i.e., healthy food consumption) or in a narrow way (i.e., consumption of high-fibre food).

**Academic Productivity**

Research done by Sharon Andrew and Wilma Vialle also show the connection between personalized self-efficacy and productivity. They studied the academic achievements of students involved in science classes in Australia and found that students with high levels of self-efficacy show a boost in academic performance compared to those who reported low self-efficacy. The researchers found that confident individuals typically took control over their own learning experience and were more likely to participate in class and preferred hands-on learning experiences. Those individuals reporting low self-efficacy typically shied away from academic interactions and isolated themselves in their studies.

**Factors affecting self-efficacy**

Bandura points to four sources affecting self-efficacy;

1. Experience

"Mastery experience" is the most important factor deciding a person's self-efficacy. Simply put, success raises self-efficacy, failure lowers it.

"Children cannot be fooled by empty praise and condescending encouragement. They may have to accept artificial bolstering of their self-esteem in lieu of something better, but what I call their accruing ego identity gains real strength only from wholehearted and consistent recognition of real accomplishment, that is, achievement that has meaning in their culture." (Erik Erikson)
2. Modeling

“If they can do it, I can do it as well.” This is a process of comparison between oneself and someone else. When people see someone succeeding at something, their self-efficacy will increase; and where they see people failing, their self-efficacy will decrease. This process is more effectual when a person sees him- or herself as similar to his or her own model. If a peer who is perceived as having similar ability succeeds, this will usually increase an observer's self-efficacy. Although not as influential as experience, modeling is a powerful influence when a person is particularly unsure of him- or herself.

3. Social Persuasions

Social persuasions relate to encouragements/discouragements. These can have a strong influence – most people remember times where something said to them significantly altered their confidence. While positive persuasions increase self-efficacy, negative persuasions decrease it. It is generally easier to decrease someone's self-efficacy than it is to increase it.

4. Physiological Factors

In unusual, stressful situations, people commonly exhibit signs of distress; shakes, aches and pains, fatigue, fear, nausea, etc. A person's perceptions of these responses can markedly alter a person's self-efficacy. If a person gets 'butterflies in the stomach' before public speaking, those with low self-efficacy may take this as a sign of their own inability, thus decreasing their self-efficacy further, while those with high self-efficacy are likely to interpret such physiological signs as normal and unrelated to his or her actual ability. Thus, it is the person's belief in the implications of their physiological response that alters their self-efficacy, rather than the sheer power of the response.

**Emotional Intelligence**

**Terms used in Emotional Intelligence**

Before going to discuss the wider concept of emotional intelligence it is necessary to understand the concept of emotion and the intelligence first. Our emotions play quite a significant role in guiding and directing our behavior. Many a times they are seen to dominate our behavior in such a way that we have no solution other then behaving as per
their wish. On the other hand, if a person has no emotional current in him then he becomes crippled in terms of living his life in a normal way. Hence, emotions play a key role in providing a particular direction to our behavior and thus shaping our personality according to their development. In this study we would like to throw light on the emotional aspect of our behavior.

**Emotions**

The word emotion is basically derived from the Latin word ‘emovere’ which means ‘to stir up’ or ‘to excite’. Therefore, emotion may be understood as an agitated or excited state of our mind and body. Taking clue from such derivation, various psychologists have tried to provide the definition of the term ‘emotions’ in their own ways. Let us reproduce a few of such definitions.

- **According to Woodworth;** “Emotion is a ‘moved’ or ‘stirred-up’ state of an organism. It is a stirred-up state of feeling, which is the way it appears to the individual himself. It is a disturbed muscular and glandular activity, which is the way it appears to an external observer.”

- **According to Crow and Crow;** “Emotion is an affective experience that accompanies generalized inner adjustment and mental and physiological stirred-up states in the individual and that shows itself in his overt behavior.”

- **According to Charles G. Morris;** “Emotion is a complex affective experience that involves diffuse physiological changes and can be expressed overtly in characteristic behavior patterns.”

- **According to Ross;** “Emotions are the modes of being conscious in which the feeling element is predominant.” In other words, these are certain “well-defined states of consciousness” or the “feeling-tone of a particular quality,” the “affective coloring of the experience.”

- **According to Arthur Gersfield;** “Emotion as a state of being moved and stirred up or aroused in one way or the other.”

- **According to C.W.Vallintine;** “when feelings become intense we have emotions.”

- **According to C.S.Myers;** “I look upon emotions fundamentally a pre-cognitive response to a situation, a-priori thalamic reaction, and the instinct as the root of all this.”
According to McDougall; “Emotions are central, essential and unchanging affective aspect of instinct.”

According to McDougall; considering instincts as an innate tendency, he maintains that emotion is an affective experience that one undergoes during an instinctive excitement. For example, when a child perceives a bull coming towards him (cognition) he experiences an affective experience in the form of the arousal of accompanied emotion of fear and consequently fries to run away (conative aspect of one’s behavior). McDougall discovered 14 basic instincts and concluded that each and every emotion, whatever it may be, is the product of some instinctive behavior. These instincts with their associated emotions can be listed as given in table below:

**Table I: Instincts with associated Emotions.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Instincts</th>
<th>Emotions accompanying it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Flight or escape</td>
<td>Fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Pugnacity or combat</td>
<td>Anger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Repulsion</td>
<td>Disgust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>Wonder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Parental</td>
<td>Tender emotion, Love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Appeal</td>
<td>Distress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>Feeling of creativeness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Acquisition</td>
<td>Feeling of ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Gregariousness</td>
<td>Feeling of Loveliness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Sex and mating</td>
<td>Lust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Self-assertion</td>
<td>Positive self-feeling or Elation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Submission</td>
<td>Negative self-feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Food-seeking</td>
<td>Appetite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Laughter</td>
<td>Amusement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the basis of these definitions we can say that emotion as some sort of feelings or affective experiences which are characterized by some physiological changes that generally lead them to perform some or the other type of behavioral acts. Emotions exist
in all the individuals but the degree of their occurrence varies in all. The behavioural acts in an individual are correlated with their emotions.

**Evolution of emotion**

What has made this theory possible is a relatively recent boom in brain imaging technologies, which has allowed for the gradual mapping in the last few decades of the brain’s circuitry. Scientists have known for some time for instance, that the prefrontal lobes are involved in the processing of emotion. This is why in the 1940s someone had the idea of disconnecting the prefrontal cortex from the lower brain (or altogether removing the prefrontal lobes) in mental patients, a procedure we know as a prefrontal lobotomy, and one we also know was eventually abandoned because it left patients with no emotional life at all. But not until recently have scientists understood the precise role of the prefrontal cortex; it is not, it turns out, the place emotion is formed, but where it is reasoned and processed.

The prefrontal cortex, which is part of the neocortex, what Goleman calls the “thinking brain,” interacts with an evolutionarily older part of the brain called the limbic system—what Goleman calls the “emotional brain.” A part of limbic system called the amygdale is, in Goleman’s words, “the seats of all passions,” and it has been in the identification of the function of this region that scientists have begun to understand the paths that emotions take in forming.

Joseph LeDoux, a neuroscientist at the Center for Neural Science at New York University, made in recent years a landmark discovery about the relationship and interaction of the emotional and thinking brains. He pinpointed the neural pathways bringing information to the brain through the senses, and discovered that information entering through the eyes or ears goes first to the thalamus, which acts as a sort of mail sorter, deciding which parts of the brain to send the information to. If the incoming information, for instance, is emotional, the thalamus sends out two signals—the first to the amygdale and the second to the neocortex. What this means is that the emotional brain has the information first, and in the event of a crisis can react before the thinking brain has even received the information and had a chance to weigh the options. Goleman calls this an emotional hijacking, and it is apparently a quite common phenomenon.
The amygdala and the rest of the limbic system is in a way a remnant of a day when emotions like anger, lust of anxiety were much more useful to the survival of the species. Now such dominance by the emotional brain can result in a felony, or may be something a little severe and a little more common, like a blue slip.

**Features of Emotions**

1. **Emotional experiences are associated with instincts or biological drives.** When the basic need is satisfied or challenged (the satisfaction is in danger), the emotions play their part.

2. **Emotions are the product of perception.** The perception of a proper stimulus (object or situation) is needed to start an emotional experience. Organic changes within the body may then intensify the emotional experiences.

3. **The core of an emotion is feeling.** Actually every emotional experience, whatever it may be, involves feelings—matter of the heart. Feelings and emotions both are affective experiences. There is only the difference of degrees. After perceiving a thing or a situation, feelings like pleasure or displeasure can be aroused. There may be some intensity or degree of strength in these feelings. When the feelings are so strong that they are able to disturb the mind and excite an individual to act immediately—they are turned into emotions. Therefore, the urge to do or act (conative aspect) is the most important emotional experience.

4. **Emotions bring psychological changes.** Every emotional experience involves many physical and physiological changes in an organism. Some of the changes which express themselves in overt behavior are easily observable. Examples of such changes are – bulge of eyes, flush of the face, flow of tears, pulse rate, beating of the heart, choke in the voice, fleeing from the situation or attack on the emotion arousing stimulus. In addition to these easily observable changes, there are internal physiological changes as well. Examples of such changes in the circulation of the blood, impact of digestive system and changes in the functioning of some glands like adrenal glands etc.

In addition to the above characteristics, emotions have some more specific features that need to be mentioned. These are:-

   i. **Emotions exist in every living organism.**
ii. They are present at all stages of development and can be aroused in young as well as in old.

iii. Emotions are extremely individualistic and they differ from person to person.

iv. Same emotion can be aroused by a number of different stimuli-objects or situations.

v. Emotions rise abruptly but die down slowly. An emotion once aroused tends to persist and leaves behind emotional mood.

vi. Emotions have the quality of displacement. The anger aroused on account of the rebuking by boss is transferred in beating the children at home.

vii. One emotion can give birth to a number of likewise emotions.

There is a negative correlation between the upsurge of emotions and intelligence. While reasoning and sharp intellect provides a careful check on the sudden upsurge of emotions, under emotional experiences, the reasoning and thinking powers are decreased.

Control of Emotions

If emotions are of so great a value, it becomes imperative that they should be guided properly to achieve the desired goals. Control of emotions is needed for:

1) Integration and development of personality.
2) To ensure full and proper development of the child.
3) To avoid mental conflicts.
4) To remove dissatisfaction and unhappiness.
5) To build up character and ensure higher evolution of life.

How to Control Emotions

Following are the chief ways of controlling emotions:

1) By keeping good health.
2) By avoiding highly exciting events and situations.
3) By change of environment.
4) By repeating the stimulus again and again.
5) By putting the individual in the society.
6) By conditioning substitution and sublimation.
7) By rationalizing the situation.
Repression of emotion is harmful and so should be avoided as far as possible. Controlling of emotions does not mean inhibition or refusing them to be released. If the emotional energy is completely blocked, the psychic re-vibrations will continue which may produce personality disturbances. The children, therefore, should be put more and more on their own responsibility and self-direction. The teacher should not interfere too much. Moreover, emotions give zest and spice to life and add important qualities to personality.

**Types of Emotions**

If we try to analyze the impact of various emotional experiences upon the well-being of an individual, we can come to the conclusion that emotions have both positive as well as negative effects. Whether an emotion will prove to be helpful or an individual depends upon the following factors:

i. Frequency and intensity of emotional experience.

ii. Situation, occasion and nature of the stimulus which arouses the emotion.

iii. Kind of emotional experience or emotions.

The last factor—the kind of emotional experience—counts much in this direction. Emotions, in general, can be categorized in two kinds—Positive and Negative emotions. Unpleasant emotions like fear, anger, jealousy which are harmful to an individual’s development are termed as negative emotions while pleasant emotions like affection (love), amusement, curiosity, joy and happiness which are very helpful and essential in the normal development of an individual are termed as positive emotions.

By their nature of positiveness and negativity, it should not be assumed that all the positive emotions are always good and the negative emotions are bad. While weighing their impact, other factors like the frequency and intensity, situations and the nature of stimuli should also be considered. Excess of everything is bad. Emotions with too much intensity and frequency, whether positive or negative, bring harmful effects. On the other hand, the so called negative emotions are also very essential for the human welfare. The emotion of fear prepares an individual to face the danger ahead. A child who has no emotion of fear is sure to get injured because he has not learnt to save himself against a possible danger.
**Emotional Disturbances**

There are certain symptoms which are evidence of emotional disturbances in adolescents. The teacher can locate these adolescents in his class and can provide them individual guidance.

Symptoms: Excessive nail biting, thumb sucking, biting the lips, scratching the nose, pulling or twisting the hair, scratching the head, picking the face, touching the face with the hand, leaning the face on the hands and rocking legs etc.

Use of other mechanisms as aggression, in-attention, shyness, withdrawal and hyperactivity, also indicate emotional disturbance.

**Features of Emotions in Adolescence**

1) **Complexity.** By the age a child reaches in adolescence, he experiences a number of emotional upheavals and storms. His emotional development becomes complex by the experiences he gets in his environment. We can not understand an adolescent by the overt emotional expression, but we have to fathom deep to understand him, the adolescent learns to conceal his true emotional experience.

2) **Development of abstract emotions.** Generally children show emotional expression in relation to concrete objects but adolescents can express their emotional feelings in relation to objects which are abstract or which are not present in concrete form.

3) **Emotional feelings are widened.** As the child grows he starts taking account of past and imagines of future and thus we can expect him to become more patient and able to tolerate delay. He gets pleasures from what he expects in future. There is great shift in his social sphere. Now he starts making friendship with his classmates. The sphere of his social relation increases. He starts appreciating elder and younger people. Some times he is emotionally attached with a hero of his choice who may be a historical figure, politicians, heroine or hero and other leader according to whose principles he wants to shape his life.

4) **Bearing of tensions.** Adolescents develop competencies to bear the tensions in different social situations. The emphasis is on self-control. The adolescents feel a kind of inner freedom, freedom to feel and experience, in an intimate personal way.
5) Capacity of sharing emotions. The adolescents develop the concern about the feelings of others and an increased capacity for sharing emotional experiences with others. In childhood, children are not able to control their emotions. Sharing of emotional experiences reaches its fullest development when an adolescent is able to relate himself to another person in such a way that the satisfaction of the person is just as important as his own. It means he begins to love his neighbors as much as himself.

6) Loyalties expand. Emotional development begins from the home environment of the infant and during adolescence it is expanded beyond home and neighborhood. These loyalties are identified with peers and leaders of various fields.

7) Realism in emotional experiences. Now the child enters the period of reality. An adolescent can perceive and appreciate people around him. He recognizes the weakness and strength of one’s character.

8) Reviewing of hopes and aspirations. Adolescence is the period of life when one has high hopes and aspirations for his future life. Some adolescents work realistically to achieve their expectations and others do little to realize their hopes, they remain in illusion, and in the world of day dreams and flights of fancy which make them unrealistic.

9) Toleration of aloneness. The adolescents develop a feeling of aloneness. Sometimes they like to be alone in their homes.

**Common Emotional Patterns in Adolescents**

Emotions develop out of feeling of excitement in two channels from the early childhood: delight and distress as love, affection and fear, anger and hostility. We will examine development of emotions during adolescence.

Love and Affection: The emotion of love is very important in adolescents and is related to sexual impulse. It is the result of consequences of physiological disturbances, the emotion of love and affection develops from the very infancy in the life of the organism. In infancy love and affection develops from the very infancy in the life of the organism. In infancy love and affection develop in concrete objects of his environment, inanimate and animate but in adolescence emotion of love and affection is associated with people and only occasionally with pets. The adolescent is able to discriminate
people with whom he likes to associate and build up an affectionate association. Gilliland reports that childhood loves are not sexual in nature but in adolescence love becomes a source of pleasure. The circle of persons becomes narrow. The adolescents become very closely attached with one another because of intense feeling of love. The associations made in this period are lasting. The maturation of sex is the chief source of newness in the lives of adolescents. Most of his conversation centers round the sex and its problems.

Joy, Pleasure and Delight. During adolescence, physical condition is one of the sources of joy and pleasure.

The first cause of the joy is one in which the individual fits, or to which, by virtue of his capacities and abilities, he is well-adjusted.

The second situation which calls forth joy in the adolescent is the release of pent-up energy, the more intense the pent-up energy and the longer it has been bottled up in the individual, the stronger will be the release when it finally does take place.

The third common cause of happiness in adolescent is the feeling of superiority. Every adolescent feels insecure and uncertain in life, any situation that is opposite to these feelings, gives happiness. Passing the examination in first division, being elected to students union, and being declared first in athlete, sports or contest, gives feelings of superiority to adolescents.

Worry. Worry is an imaginary fear. It is caused by a repeated rehearsal of the situation feared. It is referred by some psychologists as ‘anxiety’ an emotional state in which the disturbing situations does not accompany the state, but is anticipated in the future. The adolescents have the following types of worries:

1) School work.
2) Examination and test.
3) School problems as favoritism by the teacher, unreasonable homework, lack of ability to concentrate, not knowing how to study, worry of failure, and inadequacies related to ‘their sex role.’
4) Home worries. Lack of understanding between adolescents and parents, illness of parent s, difficulty in marriage, friends’ health, problem of money, personality weakness.
Fear: Fear is an important negative emotion. No systematic work has been done on fears of adolescents in Indian conditions. Fear is learned from the environment in which a child moves. No generalized conclusions can be drawn as the objects of fear during adolescence. Some categories of objects are listed below which may cause fear.

1) Fear of material objects. Snakes, dogs, strange noise, lions, elephants, aero planes.
2) Social relationships.
   a) Meeting with people in high offices.
   b) Being with elders.
   c) Reciting in the class or speaking from the platform.
   d) Being alone in a room.
   e) Meeting with the members of the opposite sex.

Fear decreases with the advancing age of the child in number and intensity.

Anger: Anger is also a learned response to environment stimuli. It is social in nature. Hebb writing about the nature and source of anger and fear, says, “The fundamental source of either emotion is of the same kind, a disruption of coordinated cerebral activity. Fight and aggression are two different modes of reaction tending to restore the dynamic equilibrium, or stability; of cerebral process……..each of these modes of response tends to restore integrated cerebral action.”

   a) Failure of material object.
   b) Teasing by teacher, parents, elders, peers.
   c) Being unfairly treated.
   d) Sarcastic remarks, encroachment of his rights by brothers or sisters.
   e) Thwarting of self-assertions, insulting remarks, unwelcome advice, not being invited to a party and failure in activities undertaken.

The Effect of Emotions

Emotions have profound effects of the life of an individual. There are two types of effects of emotions which are described below.

A. Good effects of emotions

1. Source of motivation. Emotions work as motives which drives the organism for an action. Love, fear, anger and curiosity may help us to achieve our goal. Classical stories are evidences when young men sacrificed their lives for their
beloved. Fear of failure motivates one to study hard for the examination. Emotions prove a motivating agent to further our action towards goal.

2. Source of enjoyment. Pent-up emotional feelings and routine activities create monotony in the individual. Emotions particularly positive add enjoyment in our life. They add excitement. Adolescents read novels, see movies, theatres and T.V. etc., which overcome the deficiency of emotional excitement.

3. Source of strength and endurance to body. Emotions give strength to our body. An individual can do unusual work under emotional excitement which appears difficult in normal conditions. As an illustration: An individual chased by a dog can jump a 5 ft. high wall which he can not jump in normal conditions. Emotions give strength and endurance to our body. Fatigue does not set in during the emotional state. If a child loves his subject, he can work hours together without any sign of fatigue.

B. Bad effects of Emotions.

The emotions also have damaging effects on the behavior of the individual. The most damaging effect of emotions is on the physique of the individual. Constant emotional tension may cause lack of sleep, restlessness, headache, chronic fatigue, insomnia and lack of appetite.

Kuhlen in 1952 conducted research on the effects of continuous emotional tension. He reported that emotional tensions affect the efficiency of the individual, shifts of moods and inconsistency in behavior. It also affects the memory. Forgetting increases the emotional state. The individual can not reason, think and concentrate on a problem. Constant emotional pressure disturbs learning ability. Fear, and anger etc, cause the most powerful effect on thought process—moodiness, and irritability etc. They bring change in our attitudes towards life. Negative emotional experiences for a long period disturb the total personality of an individual and may lead to neuroticism.

Educational significance

1. Emotions are of great value for the teacher. Out of emotional appeals develop sentiments, ideals, purposes and interests. They relieve of the monotony of a highly perfect machine, making life uninteresting and a dead affair. A teacher,
therefore, can achieve greater success in his work by arousing emotions of the children. Without emotional appeal the lesson can not be interesting and an uninteresting lesson will remain ineffective. Thus, emotions are a good medium of arousing interest in the school work.

2. Sometimes, they make greater achievements possible. When emotionally excited, children can do extra-ordinary things. The teacher should utilize this fact in school work.

3. Strong emotions may help to break up some other crude and undesirable emotions.

4. They give a quality to personality and form its emotional basis. Temperaments of the pupils are largely controlled by the degree of emotionality and adjust his teaching and behavior accordingly.

5. Emotions are strong motivating forces of actions. The teacher should arouse right type of emotions in children, preparing subjective conditions of the pupils for the learning.

6. Taste regarding things, desirable values, virtues and subjects of learning is possible to be cultivated through emotional training and their proper stimulation and control. Transfer value of the teaching depends upon successful emotional appeal.

7. The finest flower of character which is the fundamental aim of education is the product of fine growth of emotions. The teacher should begin well with the emotions in order to achieve success in this direction.

**Intelligence**

It is acknowledged by all teachers that one of the most important single variable which affects schooling is the quality of behavior called intelligence. The term intelligence is vague and ambiguous in its meaning. Psychologists have been interpreting the term in different ways and are in disagreement on the meaning of the term intelligence. During the last fifty years, much research has been done on the nature of intelligence and its measurement. Vast literature is available on this topic. In psychological literature, intelligence has been treated as a construct; no one knows what intelligence is. Due to the vagueness, in recent years concept of intelligence has become
less acceptable and, or exposed to criticism by psychologists. Several definitions have been advanced by psychologists but no two psychologists agree on a single definition of the term.

There is one preconception in the minds of the people regarding the meaning of the term which creates difficulty in understanding the concept of intelligence. The preconception is that people think that intelligence is a noun which refers to things or concrete objects which can be directly perceived but actually it is an abstraction from the behavior of the individual. It is therefore; better to use the adjective “intelligent” instead of intelligence.

In contrast to animals, man is considered to be endowed with certain cognitive abilities that make him a rational being. He can reason, understand, adjust and face new situations. He is definitely superior to animals in all such aspects of behavior. But human beings themselves are not alike. There are wide individual differences. A teacher easily discovers these differences among his pupils. Some learn with a good speed while others remain lingering for long. There are some who need only one demonstration for handling the tools properly while for others even the repeated individual guidance brings no fruitful results.

What is it that causes one individual to be more effective in his response to a particular situation than another? No doubt, interest, attitude, desired knowledge and skill etc., count towards this achievement. But still there is something that contributes significantly towards these varying differences. In psychology, it is termed as ‘Intelligence’. In ancient India, our great Rishis named it ‘Viveka’.

**Meaning of Intelligence and Defining Intelligence**

In our day to day conversation we often comment that particular child or individual is very intelligent or is not intelligent. All such comments are based on our observation of the performance or the performance or behavior of the individual concerned in comparison to others of his group. What makes and individual behave or perform well or not well in his group? Interest, attitude, the desire for knowledge communicative skill and similar other attributes contribute towards his performance or behavior. However, there is something else is also responsible to a large degree. In psychology this is termed as intelligence.
Intelligence, the dictionary says, is “the capacity to acquire and apply knowledge.” A number of definitions have been evolved by psychologists according to their own concept of the term intelligence. Being dissatisfied by the number of definitions and their interpretation, Boring defined “Intelligence is what intelligence tests test.” All the definitions have been systematized by Vernon and Freeman. Let us examine the classification of the definitions of intelligence done by these psychologists. Some of the definitions of intelligence are:-

According to Woodworth and Marquis; “Intelligence means intellect put to use of intellectual abilities for handling a situation or accomplishing any task.”

According to Stern; “Intelligence is a general capacity of an individual consciously to adjust his thinking to new requirements. It is general mental adaptability to new problems and conditions of life.”

According to Terman; “An individual is proportion as he is able to carry on abstract thinking.”

According to Wagnon; “Intelligence is the capacity to learn and adjust to relatively new and changing conditions.”

According to Wechsler; “Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of an individual to act purposeful to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment.”

According to Sandiford; “Intelligence is the capacity of the individual to adjust him to new situations, to solve new problems or carry on higher processes of thought-abstract thinking and to them.”

According to Stoddard; “Intelligence is the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by difficulty, complexity, abstractness, economy (rate of work), adaptive to a goal, social value (group acceptability), emergence of originals and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and a resistance to emotional forces.”

According to Munn; “Intelligence is the global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his environment.”

According to Thorndike; Speaks of three kinds of intelligence:
Mechanical—ability to deal with concrete material;
Social—ability to deal with people;
Abstract—ability to deal with ideas and concepts.
All these definitions when taken separately, give an incomplete picture because they partly emphasize that intelligence is the ability—

i. To learn

ii. To deal with abstraction

iii. To make adjustment or to adapt to new situations.

The definition given by Wechsler seems to combine all the three viewpoints but this definition too has come under criticism due to difference of opinion among psychologists. Several attempts have been made to reach at some general agreement but in vain. However, British psychologists are said to have reached some measures or agreement regarding a suitable definition of intelligence. To them intelligence consists of the ability—

(i) To see relevant relationships between objects or ideas; and

(ii) To apply these relationships to novel situations.

These definitions include the ability to learn and to utilize what has been learnt is adjusting to new situations and solving new problems. It leads to the conclusion that intelligent behavior can be divided into two categories—theoretical and practical, abstract and concrete. The theoretical operations make an individual capable to face and solve the actual life problems and make adjustment to the environmental situations. If we try to analyze the factor which determines the success of individuals’ activities, we can by all means say that cognitive or mental abilities have a dominant role to play in the success or failure. “Intelligence,” as Rex and Margeret Knight have put it, “is the factor that is common to all mental abilities” (1952, p.124) and therefore, the judgment about intelligence can ever be taken with the evaluation of the task one performs, how he reacts and responds to a situation. In this way, if we try to come to the practical ground, we can define intelligence as follows:

Intelligence consists of an individual’s those mental or cognitive abilities which helps him in solving his actual life-problems and leading a happy and well-contented life.
Piaget’s studies of development of intelligence from 1957 to 1981 (when he died) need to be mentioned. He described four definite stages of intellectual growth, the first two years regarded merely as sensory—motor activity.

**First stage:**

**Preconceptual thinking:** (Between two and four years). He referred to it as ‘symbolic activity’ stage—the use of signs and symbols to represent such things as external objects, situations and relationships e.g. ‘doggie’ meant all creatures and so on.

**Second stage:**

**Preoperational thought:** (Between four and seven years) called ‘intuitive stage’. At this stage, thinking is determining by the prominent features of what he observes and reasons in terms of dominant perpetual experiences, he describes this in terms of ‘conservation experiment’. If two jars of equal capacity are presented to the child, but different in shape, one taller than the other, the child would say that the tall jar contains more water. Till this stage, he associates tallness to increased capacity of contents.

**Third stage:**

**Concrete operations:** (Between seven to eleven years), At this stage, the child understand the operations of classification, relations, numbers, temporal and spatial order and has mastered may of the thought-processes (operations) required in solving concrete problems.

**Fourth stage:**

**Formal operations:** (Between eleven to fifteen years). At this stage, thinking has developed to an extent that he can reason apart from concrete situations. He can now engage in abstract thinking, imagine the possibilities inherent in a problem, deduce what should occur if given possibility is true, perform experiments to test his deductions, draw valid conclusions from experiments and think about these conclusions in a practical way. It has been proved that growth of intelligence is not due to any addition of new cells to the central nervous system after birth but because of the growth of cells which continues and their interconnections become complex. If this development is arrested it leads to mental deficiency.
Vernon’s classification

1) Biological approach. This category of definition emphasizes the adaptive nature of human beings. Man is one kind of organism among a million on earth who adapts to his environment. If we interpret psychology as a biological science then there is little doubt that we must also interpret intelligence as adaptation to environment. Any other view of intelligence is superficial. This is the most far reaching and general view of intelligence. According to Vernon, this idea of intelligence is the most fundamental of all. Intelligence according to this approach is the capacity to adapt relatively in new situations of life. But if we critically examine the biological concept of intelligence we find that many great men to whom one could hardly deny an assessment of exceptional intelligence (Pascal, Kafka and numerous academic experts) have been spectacularly ill-adapted in their social and physical environment. The biological concept of intelligence is not of great use from practical point of view in the study of individual differences within a culture.

2) Psychological approach. The second category of definitions, according to Vernon, is psychological. Few of the definitions advanced by experts contained a clear commitment about the relative effects of hereditary and environmental influences in the development of intelligence. C. Butt, an English psychologist, defined intelligence as innate general cognitive ability. Since scores on existing mental influence tests have often been shown to be susceptible to environmental influences, a consequence of this definition is that intelligence as defined differs from intelligence as measured by tests. Psychologists have attempted to escape from this dilemma in two ways: D.O. Hebb and R.B. Cattel have distinguished two kinds of intelligence, calling them intelligence ‘A’ and intelligence ‘B’ or fluid and crystallized intelligence. The distinctions made by Hebb and Cattel are more or less the same. In each case fluid intelligence or ‘A’ is thought of as genetic potentiality, or the basic innate qualities of the individuals’ nervous system and the crystallized intelligence ‘B’ is mainly the result of experience, learning and environmental factors. Psychologists have specified two types of intelligence which will, in normal circumstances, overlap so much as to be in practice
indistinguishable. Further, it is impossible to assess genetic potential uncontaminated by the effects of training and experience and other environmental influences.

The second type of escape from the dilemma is to adopt an operational definition of intelligence.

3) Operational approach. The third category of definitions of intelligence is operational. Operational definitions are important to understand the concept; of intelligence in clear and definite terms. Scientific terms are defined not in isolation, as in a dictionary but by stating the observable conditions under which a sentence containing the term is true or false. Instead of defining the word by itself, it is defined by giving the conditions for the truth of a sentence in which the term occurs. Such definitions are called operational, for they frequently state what must be done in order to make certain observations. For instance, in order to determine a child’s IQ, we must first administer a test of specific kind. Then observe his performance of the test and finally make certain calculations and decisions. All of these conditions define the meaning of IQ as it appears in the sentence. Ramu has an IQ of 115. It would certainly be of great advantage to have an operational definition of intelligence that every one would accept for scientific work and would distinguish if from vague popular conceptions of the term.

**Freeman’s classification**

1) Adjustment or adaptation ability. The definitions of this category lay emphasis on the adjustment ability of an individual to his environment. The individual is thought intelligent in proportion to his ability to adjust to new situations and problems of life. The person who is intelligent has no difficulty in the adjustment. He adjusts in an effective way and can vary his behavior according to the situation. A person who is less intelligent is rigid and has less response to make in the process of social interaction. The definition, given by Stern, comes under this category. He defined intelligence as a general capacity of an individual, consciously to adjust his thinking to new environment.
2) Ability to learn. The definitions of this category emphasize the importance of an individuals’ ability to learn. Learning ability is an index of one’s intelligence. Buckingham says, “Intelligence is the learning ability.”

3) Ability to carry on abstract thinking. This category of definitions lays more emphasis on the effective use of concepts and symbols in dealing with situations, especially, presenting a problem to be solved through the use of verbal and numerical symbols. Terman, defining intelligence, says, “An individual is intelligent in proportion as he is able to carry on abstract thinking.”

The reader should keep in mind that different categories of definitions are not exclusive of each other but are interdependent. The division has been made for the convenience of understanding. No doubt, on the surface, these categories appear quite different but when we critically examine the definitions we find that learning ability is the basic requisite condition for the other two aspects of intelligence. Let us understand it by means of an illustration. Suppose a child has no learning ability, then how can we expect that he would be able to adjust in social environment and on the learning of concepts and symbols depends on the development of ability to carry on abstract thinking and problem solving ability of the individual? It should be understood that all categories of definitions are inclusive and interdependent on each other.

Two comprehensive definitions: D. Weschler “Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his environment.”

Stoddard (1943) presented comprehensive description “Intelligence is the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by (1) difficulty, (2) complexity, (3) abstraction, (4) economy, (5) adaptiveness to a goal, (6) social value and (7) the emergence of originals, and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and a resistance to emotional forces.”

Some facts about Intelligence

1. The relation of intelligence with nature and nurture: there have been a number of attempts on the part of psychologists to weigh the relative importance of nature and nurture. The conclusion of their studies reveals that intelligence is the product
of heredity and environment. Both are necessary for the intellectual growth of an individual and neither can be considered more important than the other.

2. **Distribution of intelligence:** there are individual differences with regard to the distribution of intelligence in nature like wealth, health etc. this distribution is governed by a definite principle that states “The majority of the people are average, a few very bright and a few very dull.”

3. **Growth of intelligence:** as a child grows in age, so does his intelligence as shown by intelligence tests. Now the questions arises as to at what age does this growth cease? The age of cessation of mental growth varies from individual to individual. However, in majority of cases, intelligence reaches its maximum somewhat at the age of 16 or 20 in an individual. After that the vertical growth of intelligence ceases. But the horizontal growth—accumulation of knowledge and acquisition of skills—continues throughout the life span of an individual.

4. **Intelligence and sex difference:** various studies have been concluded to find out if women are less intelligent than men and vice versa. The results of these researches have been either ways. In some of the cases, no significant difference has been found. Therefore, it is proper to think that difference in sex does not contribute towards the difference in intelligence.

5. **Intelligence and racial or cultural differences:** whether a particular race, caste, or cultural group is superior to other in intelligence—the hypotheses has been examined by many research workers. In U.S.A., it has been a burning problem for centuries. The results of earlier studies, which consider the whites to be a superior race in comparison to the Negroes, have been questioned. Bow it has been established that intelligence is not the birth right of a particular race or group. The “bright’ and the ‘dull’ can be found in any race, caste or cultural group and the differences that are found can be explained in terms of environment influences.

**Emotional development in stages of development**

Development, in general, applies to the changes brought about with the passage of time. Emotional development in this respect reflects the following changes:

- There is a gradual birth of different emotions in an individual since his birth.
• There are changes in the conditions or nature of the stimuli that arouse child’s emotions.
• There are changes in the manners in which a child expresses his emotions.

**Emotional development during Infancy**

1. Right from the time of the birth, the infant cries and his bodily movements seem to give evidence of the presence of emotional element in him. What are the specific emotions, if any, he experiences at this stage is a difficult question to be answered?

2. Truly speaking, as Mrs. Hurlock puts it, “At birth and shortly afterwards the first sign of emotional behavior is general excitement to strong stimulation. There are no indications of clear-cut, definite emotional patterns that can be recognized and identified as specific emotional states.”

Thus, it is the stages of an undifferentiated excitement to any stimulus.

3. The stage of undifferentiated excitement is over in a very short time, when the general excitement becomes differentiated into simple responses that suggest pleasure and displeasure. Stimuli like sudden loud noise, wet, cold or hot objects applied to the baby’s skin, feeling hungry and uncomfortable etc. bring unpleasant responses. The stimuli like sucking, patting, and warmth etc. bring pleasant responses.

4. The differentiation of general excitement into pleasant and unpleasant responses takes the following pattern according to Spitz:

“During the first two months, pleasure and displeasure come in response to ‘physical’ stimulation. By the third month, pleasure is aroused by ‘psychological’ stimulation as shown in the baby’s smile in response to human face. Slightly later displeasure can be aroused by psychological as well as physical stimuli as may be seen in the baby’s reaction to being left alone.” (Hulock, E.B., 1959).

5. As said above, before the age of 6 months, the emotional behavior is expressed through pleasant and unpleasant responses, that is, there are only two emotions (distress and delight) up to this stage. When the infant completes six months, the negative emotions take the lead and gradually in the coming months, fear, disgust, anger, jealousies all are distinguishable. Between the 10th and 12th months the
positive emotions like elation, love, sympathy, enjoyment all enter in the field. Up to 2 years, as the study of bridges conducted in 1931 shows almost all the emotions, positive as well as negative, take their shape and become quite distinguishable.

6. There is continuous variation in the manifestation of emotions during infancy. In the earlier months it is very difficult to distinguish on the basis of facial expression and bodily positions. Only the mothers can determine the reasons behind her child’s crying and yelling. Later on they gradually become distinguishable. Moreover in the earlier months of infancy, child reacts more violently to emotionally disturbing situations, but as an infant approaches childhood, his crying, yelling and the vigorous movements of the body parts become less and less violent. Gradually with increasing age there is an increase in linguistic responses and a decrease in motor responses.

**Emotional development during Childhood**

As said above, almost all the emotions make themselves distinguishable by the beginning of childhood. Therefore, emotional development after the stage of emotions and the changes in the expression of emotional experiences. We find the following changes in a child during childhood:

1. In infancy, the child is only concerned with his own well-being; therefore, the emotions are generally aroused by the conditions which are related with his immediate well-being. But as he grows, his world grows larger and he has to respond to a variety of stimuli. During childhood, peer group relationship and school atmosphere and other environmental factors influence his emotional behavior. His emotions get linked with the new experiences and interests and his emotional behavior gets linked with the new stimuli. At the same time, he does not react to various old stimuli. For example, he does not show anger at being dressed or bathed, nor does he show any fear of strangers.

2. There is a remarkable change in the expression of emotional behavior. In infancy his behavior is usually dominated by too much intensity and is usually expressed through motor responses like crying, yelling etc. But in childhood and especially in later childhood, the child tries to express his behavior through reasonable
means and is the result of many factors. In childhood, the child is in a position to
express his feelings through language. Secondly, he become social and realizes
that it may not be desirable or proper for him to show his emotions at all times.
Thirdly, his intellect begins to play a proper role in exercising check over
emotional outbursts.

Thus, the child advance towards emotional stability and control and during the
later period of his childhood, demonstrates an appreciable degree of control over his
emotions.

**Emotional development during Adolescence**

The emotional balance is once again disturbed in adolescence. An individual once
again experiences the violent and intensive current of emotional experience. With regard
to emotional experiences, this is the period of intensive storm and stress. At no stage this
emotional energy is as strong and dangerous as in adolescence. It is very difficult for an
adolescent to exercise control over his emotions. The sudden functioning of sexual glands
and tremendous increase in physical energy makes him restless. Moreover, adolescents
are not consistent in their emotions. Emotions during this stage fluctuate very frequently
and quickly. It makes them extremely sad. So there is too much uncertainty in the nature
of their emotional state.

At this stage, there in a strong need for training of emotions and proper
channelization of emotional energy. The Hadow report has emphasized this need in the
following words:

“There is a tide which begins to rise in the veins of youth at the age of eleven or
twelve. It is called by the name of adolescence. If that tide can be taken at the flood, and a
new voyage begun in the strength and along the flow of its current, we think that it will
move on to fortune.” (Ross, J.S., 1951).

**Emotional Development in Adulthood**

Emotional development reaches its maximum in adulthood. During this stage,
generally, all individuals attain emotional maturity. Let us try to understand what is
meant by emotional maturity.
Emotional Maturity

In brief, a person can be called emotionally mature if he is able to display his emotions in an appropriate degree with reasonable control. An emotionally mature person will possess the following characteristics:

1) Almost all the emotions can be distinctly seen in him and their pattern of expression can be easily recognized.

2) Manifestation of emotions is very much refined. Usually he expresses his emotions in a socially desirable way.

3) He is able to exercise control over his emotions. Sudden inappropriate emotional outbursts are rarely found in him. He is able to hide his feelings and check his emotional tide.

4) The person no more hangs in mere idealism, but he actually perceives the things in their real perspective. He is not a daydreamer and does not possess the desire to run away from realities.

5) The intellectual powers like thinking, reasoning etc. are properly exercised by him in making any decision. He is more guided by his intellect than his emotions.

6) He does not possess the habit of rationalization i.e. he never gives arguments in defence of his undesirable or improper conduct. Also he never puts the responsibility of his own mistakes on others. He is always honest in his behavior.

7) He possesses an adequate self-concept and self respect. He never likes to do the things or to show such behavior as can injure his self respect and is adverse to his self-concept.

8) He is not confined to himself. He thinks for others and is keen to maintain social relationships. He never engages himself in such a behavior which is antisocial and can result in the social conflicts and blockage of social relationships.

9) He has the courage to exercise his emotions at a proper time in a proper place. If there is a danger to his self respect or if an innocent person is attacked, he can rise to the occasion by exercising his emotion of anger. But if he commits a mistake and is rebuked by his boss, he is equally able to check his emotion of anger. Mature emotional behavior is characterized by greater stability. Person having such maturity shows no sudden shift from one emotion to another.
As a conclusion regarding the meaning of emotional maturity, Arthur T. Jersild is of the opinion that emotional maturity should not involve only simple restriction and control. According to him, it is a very narrow view of emotional maturity. He writes. “An adequate description of emotional maturity must take account of the full scope of the individual’s capacity and powers, and of his ability to use and enjoy them. In its broadest sense emotional maturity means the degree to which the person has realized his potential for richness of living and has developed his capacity to enjoy things, to relate himself for others, to love and to laugh: his capacity for whole-hearted sorrow when an occasion for grief arises… and his capacity to show fear when there is occasion to be frightened, without feeling a need to use a false mask of courage.” (Skinner, C. F., 1968).

**Emotional Intelligence**

We all want to be successful. Many of us set goals around becoming great, successful leaders. We are all looking for the steps, strategies and or formulas that fit us best. The industry is filled with authors, speakers, coaches and other professionals that speak of secrets to success. Not to mention the tapes audio and Internet resources available. Success in the business and the world globally looks to a new and different type of leadership. Leadership that blends knowledge (IQ) with emotional intelligence quota (EQ).

In 1990, in my role as a science reporter at The New York Times, Goleman chanced upon an article in a small academic journal by two psychologists, John Mayer, now at the University of New Hampshire, and Yale’s Peter Salovey. Mayer and Salovey offered the first formulation of a concept they called “emotional intelligence.”

Those were days when the preeminence of IQ as the standard of excellence in life was unquestioned; a debate raged over whether it was set in our genes or due to experience. But here, suddenly, was a new way of thinking about the ingredients of life success. Goleman was electrified by the notion, which he written on the title page of the book i.e. Emotional Intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ, in 1995. Like Mayer and Salovey, he used the phrase to synthesize a broad range of scientific findings, drawing together what had been separate strands of research—reviewing not only their theory but a wide variety of other exciting scientific developments, such as the first fruits.
of the nascent field of affective neuroscience, which explores how emotions are regulated in the brain.

Goleman remember having the thought, just before this book was published ten years age, that if one day he overheard a conversation in which two strangers used the phrase emotional intelligence and both understood what it meant, he would have succeeded in spreading the concept more widely into the culture. Little did he know?

The phrase emotional intelligence, or its casual shorthand EQ, has become ubiquitous, showing up in settings as unlikely as the cartoon strips Dilbert and Zippy the Pinhead and in Roz Chast’s sequential art in The New Yorker. He has seen boxes of toys that claim to boost a child’s EQ; lovelorn personal ads sometimes trumpet it in those seeking prospective mates. He once found a quip about EQ printed on a shampoo bottle in his hotel room.

And the concept has spread to the far corners of our planet. EQ has become a word recognized, he has told, in languages as diverse as German and Portuguese, Chinese, Korean, and Malay. (Even so, he prefers EI as the English abbreviation for emotional intelligence). In his e-mail inbox often contains queries, from, for example, a doctoral student in Bulgaria, a school teacher in Poland, a college student in Indonesia, a business in Shanghai. Business students in India read about EI and leadership; a CEO in Argentina recommends the book he later wrote on the topic. He has also heard from religious scholars within Christianity, Judaism, Islam, Hinduism, and Buddhism that the concept of EI resonates with outlooks in their own faith.

Most gratifying for him has been how ardently the concept has been embraced by educators, in the form of programs in “social and emotional learning or SEL. Back in 1995 he was able to find only a handful of such programs teaching emotional intelligence skills to children. Now, a decade later, tens of thousands of schools worldwide offer children SEL. In the United States many districts and even entire states currently make SEL curriculum requirement, mandating that just as students must attain a certain level of competence in math and language, so too should they master these essential skills for living.

In Illinois, for instance, specific learning standards in SEL abilities have been established for every grade from kindergarten through the last year of high school. To
give just one example of a remarkably detailed and comprehensive curriculum, in the early elementary year’s students should learn to recognize and accurately label their emotions and how they lead them to act. By the late elementary years lessons in empathy should make children able to identify the nonverbal clues to how someone else feels; in junior high they should be able to analyze what creates stress for them or what motivates their best performance. And in high school the SEL skills include listening and talking in ways that resolve conflicts instead of escalating them and negotiating for win-win solutions.

Around the world Singapore has undertaken an active initiative in SEL, as have some schools in Malaysia, Hong Kong, Japan, and Korea. In Europe, the U.K. has led the way, but more than a dozen other countries have schools that embrace EI, as do Australia and New Zealand, and here and there countries in Latin America and Africa. In 2002 UNESCO began a worldwide initiative to promote SEL, sending a statement of ten basic principles for implementing SEL to the ministries of education in 140 countries.

In some states and nations, SEL has become the organizing umbrella under which are gathered program in character education, violence prevention, antibullying, drug prevention and school discipline. The goal is not just to reduce these problems among school children but to enhance the school climate and, ultimately, students’ academic performance.

In 1995, he outlined the preliminary evidence suggesting that SEL was the active ingredient in programs that enhance children’s learning while preventing problems such as violence. Now the case can be made scientifically: helping children improve their self-awareness and confidence, manage their disturbing emotions and impulses, and increase their empathy pays off not just in improved behavior but in measurable academic achievement.

This is the big news contained in a recently completed meta-analysis of 668 evaluation studies of SEL programs for children from preschoolers through high school. The massive survey was conducted by Roger Weisberg, who directs the collaborative for Academic, social and emotional learning at the University of Illinois at Chicago—the organization that has led the way in bringing SEL into schools worldwide.
The data show that SEL programs yielded a strong benefit in academic accomplishment, as demonstrated in achievement test results and grade-point averages. In participating schools, up to 50 percent of children showed improved achievement scores and up to 38 percent improved their grade-point averages. SEL programs also made schools safer: incidents of misbehavior dropped by an average of 28 percent; suspensions by 44 percent; and other disciplinary actions by 27 percent. At the same time, attendance rates rose, while 63 percent of students demonstrated significantly more positive behavior. In the world of social science research, these remarkable results for any program promoting behavioral change, SEL had delivered on its promise.

In 1995 he also proposed that a good part of the effectiveness of SEL came from its impact in shaping children’s developing neural circuitry, particularly the executive functions of the prefrontal cortex, which manage wording memory—what we hold in mind as we learn—and inhibit disruptive emotional impulses. Now the first preliminary scientific evidence for that notion has arrived. Mark Greenberg of Pennsylvania State University, a co-developer of the PATHS curriculum in SEL, reports not only that the program for elementary school students boasts academic achievement but, even more significantly, that much of the increased learning can be attributed to improvements in attention and working memory, key functions of the prefrontal cortex. This strongly suggests that neuroplasticity, the shaping of the brain through repeated experience, plays a key role in benefits from SEL.

**The Birth of Emotional Intelligence**

In 1990, Dr. Peter Salovey of Yale University and Dr. John Mayer of New Hampshire began publishing articles about something they called “emotional intelligence”. They tested how well people could identify emotions in faces, abstract designs and colors, and from these studies, they believed they discovered a sort of universal aptitude of emotions. They eventually published an article in which they outlined what emotional intelligence was, drawing together under one umbrella a series of what seemed unrelated skills.

It was not until 1995, however, when New York Times science writer Daniel Goleman wrote a popular book called Emotional Intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ that the idea of emotional intelligence caught on in earnest. What has happened
since is a paradigm shift in American culture, particularly in the areas of education and corporate business where Goleman’s book—and a follow-up book called working with emotional intelligence—has shaken up the old order and brought the entrenched mid-century ways of teaching and business under scrutiny.

The idea of emotional intelligence lies in a handful of basic principles. Emotionally intelligent people, Goleman says, have the ability to marshal their emotional impulses (or, at least, more so than those who are not emotionally intelligent); they have a self awareness to know what they are feeling, and are able to think about and express those things; they have empathy for the feelings of others and insight into how others think; they can do things like delay gratification; they are group, and, most important, where they fit inside that group.

**What is Emotional Intelligence or EQ?**

The term EQ encompasses the following five characteristics and abilities:

1. Self-awareness—knowing your emotions, recognizing feeling as they occur, and discriminating between them.
2. Mood management—handling feelings so they are relevant to the current situation and you react appropriately.
3. Self-motivation—“gathering up” your feelings and directing yourself towards a goal, despite self-doubt, inertia and impulsiveness.
4. Empathy—recognizing feelings in others and tuning into their verbal and nonverbal cues.
5. Managing relationship—handling interpersonal interaction, conflict resolution and negotiations.

These five characteristics or domains of emotional intelligence are the predictor of the emotional intelligence quotient or EQ.

**Meaning of Emotional Intelligence**

In Emotional Intelligence, Daniel Goleman tells the story of a study done at AT&T’s Bell Labs, a New Jersey-based think tank full of engineers who were all very successful at school and who all scored highly on IQ tests. In the study, managers and peers nominated the top 10 to 15 percent who stood out as exceptional, then the researchers reviewed the records of those people, observed them working, interviewed
them—all to see what it was that could possibly separate them from such stiff competition.

What they found was that the stars were more likely to have already built networks within the lab which they could rely on when they needed it to. They were the superior collaborations, the most popular Emotional Intelligence in a very big way is about being socially adept, even sophisticated—at work or at play. “Popular and charming,” writes Goleman, “are terms we use for people whom we like to be with because their emotional skills make us feel good”.

These popular and charming people, EI proponents would argue, have a more subtle control over their emotional brain, although “control” might be a misleading word. In essence, their brains are less likely to become dominated by emotional impulses. And, though the matter is complicated, it is not really their will the separates them; more than likely, it is in some large part the environment they have been exposed to, the kinds of people, the situation, their upbringing. EI promoters by no means assert that emotional intelligence is a completely learned phenomenon, or that it is independent from heredity. Based, though, on what we know of the way the brain develops in the first two decades, it seems that in some ways the neurological wiring to be able to read the emotions of others is not so different from the wiring that controls your fingers and arms as you play violin: the neural pathways that last are the ones we use, the ones we need to get on in the world.

Definitions of Emotional Intelligence

According to Daniel Goleman (1995). “The capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating our-selves, and for managing emotions well in our-selves and in our relationships.”

According to Daniel Goleman (1995). “Emotional Intelligence is a master aptitude, a capacity that profoundly affects all other abilities.”

According to John D. Mayer and Peter Salovey (1995); “Emotional Intelligence may be defined as the capacity to reason with emotion in four areas: to perceive emotion, to integrate it in thought, to understand it and to manage it.”

According to Henry L. (Dick) Thompson; “A person’s innate ability to perceive and manage his/her own emotions in a manner that results in successful interactions with the
environment, and if others are present, to also perceive and manage their emotions in a manner that results in successful interpersonal interaction.”

According to the views of Yetta Lautenschlanger (1997):

To be emotionally intelligence, I submit that you must become proficient in the four areas of emotional intelligence i.e. Awareness, Acceptance, Attitude and Action. Awareness means knowing what you are feeling when you are feeling it. Acceptance means believing that emotions are a biological process taking place in the body and the brain and that is not always rational. It means being able to feel an emotion without judging it. Attitudes are beliefs that are attached to emotions. These are times when the emotion follows the attitude, or is colored by an attitude. Unless the attitude is challenged, the emotion will continue to be felt in the same direction. Action is the behavior you take based on emotion and attitude.

According to definition given by Mayer and Salovey (1995), every one of us may be found to have varying capacities and abilities with regard to one’s dealing with emotions. Depending upon the nature of this ability, he or she may be said more emotionally intelligent or lesser, in a comparison to others in the groups.

Based on these, we may understand one’s emotional intelligence as a unitary ability (related to, but independent of standard intelligence) helpful in knowing, feelings and judging emotions in close cooperation with one’s thinking process to behave in a proper way, for the ultimate realize of the happiness and welfare of the self in tune with others.

Need of Emotional Intelligence

Research in brain-based learning suggests that emotional health is fundamental to effective learning. According to a report from the National Center for Clinical Infant Programs, the most critical element for a student’s success in school is an understanding of how to learn from “Emotional Intelligence” by Daniel Goleman. The key ingredients for this understanding are:

- Confidence
- Curiosity
- Intentionality
- Self-control
• Relatedness
• Capacity to communicate
• Ability to cooperate

These traits are all aspects of Emotional Intelligence. Traits that is key in personal and professional development and becoming successful. Basically, a student who learns to learn is much more apt to succeed. Emotional Intelligence has proven a better predictor of future success than traditional methods like the GPA, IQ, and standardized test scores.

In recent years, the great interest in Emotional Intelligence on the part of corporations, universities, and schools nationwide. The idea of Emotional Intelligence has inspired research and curriculum development throughout these facilities to improve educational curriculum and incorporate these principles in learning for students. He became very interested in Goleman’s work back in 2000, along with the work of Howard Gardner and his Theory of “Multiple Intelligence” as a tool for providing success.

Building one’s Emotional Intelligence has a lifelong impact. Many parents and educators, alarmed by increasing levels of conflict in young school children—from low self-esteem to early drug and alcohol use to depression, are rushing to teach students the skills necessary for Emotional Intelligence. And in corporations, the inclusion of Emotional Intelligence in training programs has helped employ cooperate better and motivate more, thereby increasing productivity and profits. Researchers have concluded that people who manage their own feelings well and deal effectively with others are more likely to live content lives. Plus, happy people are more apt to retain information and do so more effectively than unsatisfied people.

As you can see EQ is more than a smile and an encouraging word, it’s a set of abilities that distinguish star performers from average leaders, the absence of which derails careers. As stated by Daniel Goleman in his book Emotional Intelligence and Primal Leadership, and The Center of Creative Leadership. The good news is that unlike IQ, your emotional intelligence, or EQ, can be developed.

**Emotional Intelligence’s shortcomings**

Goleman argues that teaching emotional intelligence is once and for all the answer to the problems that ail us—from high school shootings to marital problems and uncommunicative boyfriends. It accounts for, Goleman insists, a great majority of what
IQ does not. But in the end, one has to ask: how different from IQ is emotional intelligence. Though Goleman never uses the abbreviation in his book, EQ (short for emotional quotient) has inevitably cropped up and found its way into several book titles in the short five years since Emotional Intelligence was first published. Goleman himself has written two “unscientific” EQ tests, one for USA Today, the other for UTNE Reader, with questions like: “you are trying to calm down a friend who has worked himself up into a fury at a driver in another car who has cut dangerously close in front of him. What do you do?” The multiple choice answers that follow include possibilities like “Tell him to forget it—he’s okay now and it’s no big deal.” Or “Join him in putting down the other driver, as a show of rapport. “It seems inevitable, based on the history of intelligence testing, that the concept of emotional intelligence will eventually be reduced to a number and used to track children or stigmatize them. It certainly matters little when important scientists and intellectuals—including Alfred Binet, the man credited with creating the intelligence test-spoke out against such use of the early tests.

**Critics of Emotional Intelligence**

Some of the researchers indeed warn against the dangers of treating emotional intelligence like a panacea. Harvard psychologist Jerome Kagan, whose child—development research Goleman uses to talk about the nature of shy and gregarious kids, warns that emotional intelligence has the same blind spots as IQ and some people “handle anger well, but can’t handle fear. Some people can’t take joy. “A wise approach, Kagan explains, would be to examine emotions differently, and to not encompass them in one neat package of emotional intelligence. Another criticism of emotional intelligence is that it presumes a correct response to certain situations, when in fact a variety of emotional responses are valid. In a 1995 Time Article, Dr. Paul McHugh, director of psychiatry at Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, lashed out at the idea of teaching emotional intelligence, which he sees as a poor attempt to reinvent the encounter group. “The author is presuming that someone has the key to the right emotions to be taught to children,” he says. “We don’t even know the right emotions to be taught to adults. Do you really think a child or eight or nine really understands the difference between aggressiveness and assertiveness?” certainly seems to have come along at the right time. Goleman refers in his book to the 1989 massacre at an elementary school in Stockton,
California, as somehow the pinnacle of what can go wrong with a society not in touch with its emotions. As we all; know now, this seemingly isolated event was just the preface to a long and bloody string of shootings that have occurred since 1995, when the book was published, all of which seem to support various ideas in emotional intelligence, that even if there is not one proper response to emotions like anxiety, guilt or anger, there are certainly inappropriate responses. And, examining it in the context of the long history of intelligence study, emotional intelligence—like the models presented by Gardner and Sternberg—while not an exact science (or even much hope to be), seems to present the model of a more level playing field, and perhaps a more sophisticated view of intellect. If emotional intelligence is not appropriated as yet another tool of exclusion—and that danger certainly looms—it might very well be making the world a better place, and that’s not something many people would make the mistake of saying about the intelligence test.

**Components of Emotional Intelligence**

What are the ingredients that make up superior performers’ in our organizations? Must they be intelligent? Know their stuff? Have unyielding drive? Be likeable? Recent research indicates grey matter and technical/job knowledge are but threshold competencies. What differentiate the “stars” are the personal qualities, the so-called “soft-skills.” It appears that Antoine de St. Exupery perhaps got it right in The Little Prince when he said, “That which is essential is invisible to the eye.”

The top two reasons managers are “derailed” in their careers, according to the Centre for Creative Leadership, are

1. Inability/unwillingness to adapt and
2. Failure to establish and maintain collaborative working relationships.

Goleman’s thesis is that somewhere between 75% to 90% of effective performance, particularly in the case of managers and leaders, is attributable to “emotional intelligence” (EI). What is EI? He defines it as, “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationship.” He devotes two thirds of the book to laying out in detail 25 competencies, grouped into five domains, the first three reflecting how we manage ourselves and the last two how we handle our relationships with others. These domains are:-
1. **Self-Awareness**
   An ability to notice what you are feeling in the moment and to tap into your intuitive self as you deal with the daily decisions and challenges of organizational life. It includes exercising a self-confident, candid openness to feedback about your strengths, your blind spots and where you need to grow.

2. **Self-Regulation**
   Managing your deeper emotions and impulses appropriately, rather than self-indulgently (know anyone who allows himself/herself to “fly off the handle” and lash out at others?). It includes positioning these feelings against the wider perspective of your longer-term goals and the interests of others and the organization at large. “stress-hardy” individuals are those who have mastered the ability to stay focused and constructively energized in times of stress. This domain is also about choosing to be trustworthy (“walking your talk”) and allowing space in your world for ambiguity and for the (often different) ideas of others.

3. **Motivation**
   A combination of an internally generated drive to achieve, an emotional commitment (often called passion) to goals (both your own and the organizations’), a willingness to mobilize yourself and others to action, all the while placing an optimistic “spin” on challenges and setbacks you face.

4. **Empathy**
   This is an absolute key to establishing working relationships. It builds on the first two domains. You cannot tune in to others if you are preoccupied by your own disrupting feelings. Empathy means having a genuine interest in, and sensitivity to, the perspectives, concerns and needs of others. In companies, it includes a service orientation to the customer as well as a healthy attunement to the prevailing organizational politics.

5. **Social skills**
   Influencing others is a prerequisite to your success. To influence, you deal with the emotional state of others. With individuals, you build rapport, communicate resolve disagreement, and inspire them towards your vision and ideas. With
groups and teams, you network (it’s a verb now), collaborate, create a sense of the team’s identity, and foster the synergy from the pursuit of collective goals.

Goleman believes all of the emotional competencies can be developed. This is done, he says, by replacing old, ingrained habits of thought, feelings and behavior with new habits. You do it by practicing the new habits, over time engaging new neural pathways in your brain as you install your new, more appropriate default responses. He outlines a 14-point process for doing this to bolster your organization’s “immune system” that keeps it healthy, resilient and able to take advantage of opportunities that emerge.

The author makes a strong case for the high leverage gained by focusing on the soft skills that underpin and drive “hard” business and organizational results. He draws our attention to the importance of what he calls the “invisible interpersonal economy” that exists in organizations. Your high performing leaders and individual contributors are those who understand and work effectively with the “currency” of this parallel economy—the emotions that are attached to the needs, hopes and fears of all who work in your organization.

So, what does this book mean for managers? I believe Daniel Goleman has tapped into some fundamental truths about human performance in organizations. He has laid out the roadmap. We need to focus the investment of our people development dollars in these emotional competencies that so often receive only lip service in business today.

This requires faith: the return on investment takes time. Why? Because many of our old habits are well entrenched, often since childhood. Many of these competencies are rooted deep in our personality. Yet, we know they hold the key to individual performance and effectiveness. What Daniel Goleman has done is move us one step closer to that question we must eventually answer in management training: Can we, in fact, develop strong performers without addressing the human psyche itself?

**Skills in Emotional Intelligence**

But what exactly might such skills be? In the book, Daniel Goleman gives a considerable list. Here are some indications inspired by a list quoted by Goleman from a book called Self Science: The subject is Me (2nd edition) by Karen stone McCown et al.
• **Self awareness**
  One of the basic emotional skills involves being able to recognize feelings and put a name on them. It is also important to be aware of the relationship between thoughts, feelings and actions. What thought sparked off that feeling? What feeling was behind that action?

• **Managing emotions**
  It is important to realize what is behind feelings. Beliefs have a fundamental effect on the ability to act and on how things are done. Many people continually give themselves negative messages. Hope can be a useful asset. In addition, finding ways to deal with anger, fear, anxiety and sadness is essential: learning how to soothe oneself when upset, for example. Understanding what happens when emotions get the upper hand and how to gain time to judge if what is about to be said or done in the heat of the moment is really the best thing to do. Being able to channel emotions to a positive end is a key aptitude.

• **Empathy**
  Getting the measure of a situation and being able to act appropriately requires understanding the feelings of the others involved and being able to take their perspective. It is important to listen to them without being carried away by personal emotions. There’s a need to be able to distinguish between what others do or say and personal reactions and judgments.

• **Communicating**
  Developing quality relationships has a very positive effect on all involved. What feelings are being communicated to others? Enthusiasm and optimism are contagious as are pessimism and negativity. Being able to express personal concerns without anger or passivity is a key asset.

• **Co-operation**
  Knowing how and when to take the lead and when to follow is essential for effective co-operation. Effective leadership is not built on domination but the art of helping people work together on common goals. Recognizing the value of the contribution of others and encouraging their participation can often do more good than giving orders or complaining. At the same time, there is a need to take
responsibilities and recognize the consequences of decisions and acts and follow through on commitments.

- **Resolving conflicts**
  In resolving conflicts there is a need to understand the mechanisms at work. People in conflict are generally locked into a self-perpetuating emotional spiral in which the declared subject of conflict is rarely the key issue. Much of the resolution of conflicts on using the other emotional skills mentioned here.

**Significance and importance of Emotional Intelligence**

The knowing about one’s emotional intelligence in terms of his emotional intelligence quotient has wider educational and social implications for the welfare of the individual and the society. This fact has now been recognized and given practical shape and implications all round the globe. The credit of giving due publicity and acquainting the world population with the importance and significance of emotional intelligence goes to the famous American psychologist Dr. Daniel Goleman through his bestsellers like Emotional Intelligence—why it can matter more than I.Q. and working with emotional intelligence, etc. He has brought to the forefront the following points regarding the importance of emotional intelligence and its measure through his writings.

- Emotional intelligence is as powerful, and at times more powerful than IQ. While IQ contributes only about 20% to success in life, the other contribute the rest. We can infer that emotional intelligence, luck and social class are among those other factors.

- Unlike IQ, emotional intelligence may be the best predictor of success in life. Emotionally intelligent people are more likely to succeed in everything they undertake in their lives.

- Unlike what is claimed about IQ, we can teach and improve in children and any individual some crucial emotional competencies paving the way for increasing their emotional intelligence and thus making their lives healthier, more enjoyable and successful in the coming days.

- The concept of emotional intelligence is to be applauded, not because it is totally new but because it captures on one compelling term the essence of what our children or all of us need to know for being productive and happy.
• IQ and even Standard Achievement Test (SAT) scores do not predict who will be successful in life. Even school success can be predicted more by emotional and social measures (e.g. being self-assured and interested, following directions, turning to teachers for help and expressing needs while getting along with other colleagues) than by academic ability.

• One’s emotional intelligence helps him much in all the spheres of life through its various constituents or components namely knowledge of one’s emotions (self-awareness), managing the emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others (empathy) and handling relationships. The achievement of the end results in terms of better handling of mutual relationships is quite essential and significant in one’s life. It can only be possible through one’s potential of emotional intelligence and its proper development.

The viewpoints and ideas propagated by Daniel Goleman have brought a revolution in the field of child caring, home, school and work place management. It has also provided sufficient support to the guidance and counseling services including physical and mental health programmes. Although these may seem a bit exaggeration in the tall claim that emotional intelligence is a sure guarantee for unqualified advantage in life, yet there is no denying of the fact that one’s emotional make-up counts quite substantially towards one’s ability to deal successfully with other people and with one’s own feelings. Since these qualities count significantly towards one’s success in one’s area of achievement, it may help one to step in for the required success. Most of the problems in our life whether childhood or adolescent problems, home and family problems, work situation problems or political, regional or international problems are the result of the mishandling of the involved sentiments, feelings and emotions of the individuals concerned, group of individuals, society and the nations. If proper education, opportunities and efforts are made for the training of emotions and development of proper emotional intelligence potential among the people right from their childhood, then it will surely help in bringing mutual emotional understanding, empathy accompanied with right actions and behavior on the part of the individuals and groups for leading a better life with peace and cooperation.
To progress and let others progress and to live and let others live are thus the ultimate goals of any education or training provided for developing one’s potential of emotional intelligence. Let us now consider such measures to be adopted for the welfare of the youngsters and emotionally affected individuals.

**How to help in the proper development of Emotional Intelligence?**

The following measures may prove helpful in this direction:

- Try to help yourself and the youngsters develop the ability to correctly perceive feelings both in one and others.

- Try to give up the misgivings and misperception of the feelings in others. It leads to a hostile attribution bias. Remember that love always begets love, while suspicion, heartedness and aggressions are rewarded likewise.

- In all situations, self awareness of the feelings and emotions is most important. Try to teach the children and help yourself to know what you are feeling when you are feeling it at a particular time.

- For understanding others and their feelings, develop the qualities of a good listener. People who have a high EQ (emotional quotient) also have a high score on empathy and empathy comes through effective listening.

- Try to do away with the wrong notion that thought is most appropriate when not clouded by emotions. Try to learn the integration of thoughts and emotions, heart and mind for the appropriate behavior at the right time. Therefore, do not try to suppress emotions (as every feeling has its value and significance) but to strike a balance between rational thoughts and emotions.

- Teach the children and yourself that all emotions are healthy (because emotions are what unite the heart, mind and the body). Anger, fear, sadness, the so called negative emotions are as healthy as peace, courage and joy. The important thing is to learn the art of expressing one’s feelings or emotions in a desirable way at a desirable time in a desirable amount. In this connection, have this remark of the Great Greek Philosopher Aristotle as a guideline.

“Anyone can become angry—that is easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way—that is not easy.”
• Try to practice and teach the children the art of managing the feelings and emotions as adequately as possible. This is especially important for the distressing emotions of fear, pain, anger etc.

• Don’t allow the emotions and feelings to develop as hindrance and obstacles in your path. Use them as a motivating agent or force for achieving your goal.

• Teach yourself and your children the lessons of empathy, i.e. developing a sense of what someone else is feeling.

• Have measures for the proper development of social skills for better communication and interpersonal relationship with others. Don’t break the communication channel and express your feelings with an equal sense of attending and listening to other’s feelings for the better management of relationship.

• Try to provide more time and efforts for developing not just cognitive professional skills but also affective skills for the development of emotional intelligence.

• Last but not the least is to provide you as a model or companion for maintaining proper emotional bonds. If you have developed yourself as an emotionally intelligent individual, you may inspire or lead others to become so. However, it is not essential to be perfect or complete for guiding others as parents, teachers or bosses. One just needs to see what others need, and be there for meeting their needs.

In the last we can say that is there anything new about emotional intelligence? In some ways, emotional intelligence really is not new. In fact, it is based on a long history of research and theory in personality and social, as well as I/O, psychology. Furthermore, Goleman has never claimed otherwise. In fact, one of his main points was that the abilities associated with emotional intelligence have been studied by psychologists for many years, and there is an impressive, and growing, body of research suggesting that these abilities are important for success in many areas of life.

However, rather than arguing about whether emotional intelligence is new, It is believe that it is more useful and interesting to consider how important it is for effective performance at work. Although it have not had the time to cover very much of it, It is
hope that have shown that there now is a considerable body of research suggesting that a person’s ability to perceive, identify, and manage emotion provides the basis for the kinds of social and emotional competencies that are important for success in almost any job. Furthermore, as the pace of change increases and the world of work makes ever greater demands on a person’s cognitive, emotional, and physical resources, this particular set of abilities will become increasingly important. And that is good news I/O psychologists, for they are the ones who are best situated to help clients to use emotional intelligence to improve both productivity and psychological well-being in the workplace of tomorrow.

Rationale of the Study

The teacher occupies a very important place. A teacher is the medium through which objectives and plans can be actualized. For this, the teacher must have sound mental and physical health. There have been many studies stating that the person’s burnout has direct and significant relationship with his/her working efficiency. Teaching is a profession where every day radical changes occur in the educational system. These changes are likely to increase rather than reduce the level of stress in teachers. Secondary school teachers experience higher level of stress due to demanding situation, while dealing with adolescent students. Overcrowded classes, heavy syllabus and inadequate facilities make teachers’ work more complex.

Many teachers find the demands of being a professional educator in today’s schools difficult and at times stressful. When work stress results in teacher burnout, it can have serious consequences for their self-efficacy and happiness of teachers, and also the students, professionals, and families they interact with on a daily basis. Teachers may be at greater risk for depersonalization because their daily work life often includes large doses of isolation from their professional peers. While teachers do interact with others on a regular basis throughout the workday, the majority of such interactions are with students, and not with other teachers or professional staff members who might better understand the demands teachers face. The depersonalization may act as a protective mechanism, as evidenced by the descriptions of "worn-out" teachers, whose cynical views towards students and teaching allowed them to continue to remain in the field, even in a diminished capacity (Farber, 1998). While depersonalization may act as some protection for teachers, it also may encourage isolation, strengthening the risk for
burnout. Burnout results from the chronic perception that one is unable to cope with daily life demands. Given that teachers must face a classroom full of students every day, negotiate potentially stressful interactions with parents, administrators, counselors, and other teachers, contend with relatively low pay and shrinking school budgets, and ensure students meet increasingly strict standards of accountability, it is no wonder many experience a form of burnout at some point in their careers. So, in this regard this study has very much useful for studying the relationship of teacher’s burnout with their self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. This study may be useful to see that those teachers who have gone under burnout, may this affect their self-efficacy or may it affect their emotional intelligence.

**Statement of the Problem**

“Burnout in Relation to Self-Efficacy and Emotional Intelligence of Secondary School Teachers.”

**Operational Definitions Used**

**Burnout:**

*According to Herbert Freudenberger (1980)*, feeling of physical and emotional exhaustion, due to stress from working with people under difficult or demanding conditions. Burn out is followed by signs such as chronic fatigue, quickness to anger and suspicion, and susceptibility to colds, headaches, and fevers.

**Self-Efficacy:**

*By Lisa Fritscher*, Self-efficacy is the degree to which a person believes that he or she can attain a goal. It is a frequently misunderstood but very important part of learning theory. It is also an important part of treatment for phobias and other mental health disorders, as a high degree of self-efficacy correlates with a higher chance for treatment success.

**Emotional Intelligence:**

*According to Daniel Goleman (1995).* “The capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating our-selves, and for managing emotions well in our-selves and in our relationships.”
Objectives of the study:
The present study was designed to realize the following objectives:-
1. To find out the relationship of burnout, self-efficacy and emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers.
2. To find out the relationship of burnout and self-efficacy of secondary school teachers.
3. To find out the relationship of burnout and emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers.
4. To compare the difference between burnout of male and female teachers of secondary school.
5. To compare the difference between self-efficacy of male and female teachers of secondary school.
6. To compare the difference between emotional intelligence of male and female teachers of secondary school.
7. To compare the difference between burnout of secondary school teachers working in rural and urban area.
8. To compare the difference between self-efficacy of secondary school teachers working in rural and urban area.
9. To compare the difference between emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers working in rural and urban area.
10. To compare the difference between burnout of secondary school teachers working in private and government schools.
11. To compare the difference between self-efficacy of secondary school teachers working in private and government schools.
12. To compare the difference between emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers working in private and government schools.

Hypotheses of the study:
The following hypotheses have been formulated for verification:-
1. There is no significant relationship between burnout and self-efficacy of secondary school teachers.
2. There is no significant relationship between burnout and emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers.
3. There is no significant difference between burnout in male and female secondary school teachers.
4. There is no significant difference between self-efficacy in male and female secondary school teachers.
5. There is no significant difference between emotional intelligence in male and female secondary school teachers.
6. There is no significant difference between burnout in rural and urban areas secondary school teachers.
7. There is no significant difference between self-efficacy in rural and urban areas secondary school teachers.
8. There is no significant difference between emotional intelligence in rural and urban areas secondary school teachers.
9. There is no significant difference between burnout of secondary school teachers working in private and government schools.
10. There is no significant difference between self-efficacy of secondary school teachers working in private and government schools.
11. There is no significant difference between emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers working in private and government schools.

**Research method used**

For investigation and collection of the data descriptive survey method was used to find out the relationship between burnout and self-efficacy, burnout and emotional intelligence, and to find out any significant difference between the mean scores of burnout, self-efficacy and emotional intelligence of rural/urban, private/government and male/female secondary school teachers. For the collection of the data the researcher surveyed the different schools located in the Haryana state for urban/rural as well as private/government secondary school teachers and administered the emotional intelligence scale, burnout scale and self-efficacy scale on the teachers of secondary schools.
Sampling Strategies

Sample is fundamental to the conduct of research and interpretation of its results. Barring the unusual instance in which a complete sense is taken, research is almost invariably conducted by means of a sample on the basis of which generalization applicable to the population from which the sample obtained is reached.

A random sampling technique was used for the selection of the sample. The sample constituted 400 regular secondary school teachers from different district which was selected from 40 schools. Out of 400 secondary school teachers, 200 were male and 200 were female teachers from rural/urban and private/government schools.

Research Tools used and their Descriptions

The following standardized tools were selected for the study:

- A scale of assessing burnout developed by Chistina Maslach Susan. E. Jackson Richar. L. Schwab.
- A brief questionnaire for measuring self-efficacy in teachers developed by Bandura.
- Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) by Anukool Hyde Sanjyot pethe and Upinder Dhar.

Statistical Techniques Used

The following statistical techniques were used for the analysis and interpretation of the data:

(i) Mean
(ii) Standard Deviation
(iii) t-test

Delimitations

- The present study was confined to Secondary School Teachers only.
- The sample was restricted to 400 Secondary School Teachers.
- The present study was confined to twenty urban and twenty rural area schools only.
- Sample for urban schools and rural schools were confined to Haryana State.