INTRODUCTION
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Human beings are positive assets and precious natural resources, which need to be cherished, nurtured and developed with care and dynamism. Education is an important factor that helps in bringing about various changes in human beings and also to the society. It is very important for an individual’s success in life. It helps a person to draw the best out of one’s mind and spirit. It makes a person rational, innovative, constructive, right thinker, intelligently independent and creator of new values. It imparts one with all the power of necessities in making a noticeable mark in any of the field. It is generally seen as the foundation of society which brings economic wealth, social prosperity and political stability. It is the major aspect of development of any modern society since if there is a deficit of educated people than society will stop its further progress.

Education should not be limited to teaching subjects as one can learn history, math, science and other subjects in school and be a ‘book-smart’. But education must be equipped with knowledge and skills which are needed to participate effectively as member of society and contribute towards the development of shared values and common identity. The existing socio-economic structure of the country and certain peculiar characteristics of Indian education have posed a serious problem which seems to be perplexing many educationists and administrators today. Thus, there is a need to make systematic educational efforts primarily aimed at influencing attitudes, behaviour, values and personality of individuals to manage their growth and development well. This is probably because an educated person has the ability to change the world as one is brimming with confidence and assured of making the right moves.

1.1 LEARNING OUTCOMES

All round development of the personality is the ultimate goal of education and therefore, the learning experiences provided in the school should contribute towards the achievement of this end. Accordingly, the expected outcomes of learning cannot be limited
only to the cognitive domain rather it is necessary to delineate learning outcomes expected in the affective and psychomotor domains also. In contrast to cognitive aspects, non-cognitive aspects cannot be specified as tangible terminal behaviours, since they comprise elements of personality which manifest themselves in interest, attitudes, personal and social behaviour and value systems. Gerberich (1964) distinguished ten types of learning outcomes acquired by pupils as a result of their school and out of school learning. These are: skills, knowledge, concepts, understanding, application, activities, appreciations, attitudes, interests and adjustment. Thus, learning outcome is the specification of what a student should learn as a result of the period of specified and supported study.

Definitions of Learning Outcomes
Adam (2004) described “Learning outcome as a written statement of what the successful learner is expected to be able to do at the end of the module, course unit or qualification.” According to Credit Common Accord for Wales (2004) “Learning outcomes are the statements of what a learner can be expected to know, understand and do as a result of a learning experience.” UNESCO (2004) defines “Learning outcomes are the statements of what a learner is expected to know, understand and be able to demonstrate after completion of process of learning as well as the specific intellectual and practical skills gained and demonstrated by the successful completion of a unit, course or programme.”

1.1.1 Characteristics of Learning Outcomes
The characteristics of learning outcomes are:
(i) It describes something which the learner does or produces.
(ii) It states the behaviour which is observable.
(iii) It states the conditions under which the behaviour is to occur.
(iv) It states the standard which defines whether or not the specification has been attained.

Thus, learning outcome is a specifiable activity, behaviour, ability or attitude that we want students to manifest in measurable or observable ways, indicating whether desired learning has occurred and to what degree it has occurred.
1.1.2 Factors Affecting Learning Outcomes

Some important factors affecting the learning outcomes of an individual are given below:

(I) Cognitive and Metacognitive Factors

Metacognitive or cognitive factors are those that pertain to the intellectual aspect of an individual. These factors affect the learning outcomes in the following ways:

(i) Goals of the learning process: The strategic nature of learning requires students to be goal directed. To construct useful representations of knowledge and to acquire the thinking and learning strategies necessary for continued learning success across the life span, students must generate and pursue personally relevant goals. Thus, the learning outcomes are enhanced if the learners are active, goal directed, self-regulating and assume personal responsibility for contributing to their own learning.

(ii) Construction of knowledge: The learning outcomes of students are enhanced if the students link new information with existing knowledge in meaningful ways. The nature of these links can take a variety of forms, such as adding to, modifying or reorganizing existing knowledge or skills.

(iii) Strategic thinking: Successful learners use strategic thinking in their approach to learning, reasoning, problem solving and concept learning. Learning outcomes can be enhanced if the learners develop, apply and assess their strategic learning skills.

(iv) Thinking about thinking: Successful learners can reflect on how they think and learn, set reasonable learning or performance goals, select potentially appropriate learning strategies or methods and monitor their progress toward these goals. These higher order or metacognitive strategies can enhance students’ learning outcomes and personal responsibility for learning.

(v) Context of learning: Learning does not occur in vacuum. It is influenced by environmental factors such as culture, technology and instructional practices etc. The classroom environment, particularly the degree to which it is nurturing or not, can also have significant impact on students learning outcomes.
(II) Psychological Factors (Personal Factors)

Psychological or personal factors are those that lie within the individual and affect one's performance.

(i) Developmental influences: Individuals learn best when material is appropriate to their developmental level and is presented in an enjoyable and interesting way. Thus, learning is most effective when differential development within and across physical, intellectual, emotional and social domains is taken into account.

(ii) Individual differences: Individuals are born with their own capabilities and talents. They have different strategies, approaches and capabilities for learning that are a function of prior experience and heredity. In addition, through learning and social acculturation, they acquire their own preferences for how they like to learn and the pace at which they learn. Thus, the interaction between learners' differences, curricular and environmental conditions is another key factor affecting learning outcomes.

(iii) Motivation: Motivational factors influence both the quality of thinking and information processing as well as an individual's motivation to learn. Positive emotions, such as curiosity, generally enhance motivation and facilitate learning and performance, whereas negative emotions, such as anxiety, insecurity, panic and rage generally detract from motivation, interfere with learning and contribute to low performance.

(iv) Assessment: Assessment provides important information to both the learner and teacher at all the stages of the learning process. Effective learning takes place when learners feel challenged to work towards appropriately high goals, therefore, appraisal of the learner's cognitive strengths and weaknesses, as well as current knowledge and skills is very important.

(III) Social Factors

Social factors are linked with the forces of environment lying outside the individual and affect one's performance externally.

(i) Social influences: Learning outcomes can be enhanced when the learner has an opportunity to interact and to collaborate with others on instructional tasks. Such contexts help learners feel safe to share ideas, actively participate in the learning process and create a learning community.
Learning and diversity: Learning is most effective when differences in learners’ linguistic, cultural and social backgrounds are taken into account, as the language, ethnicity, race, beliefs and socio-economic status etc. all can influence learning outcomes. Careful attention to these factors in the instructional setting enhances the possibilities for designing and implementing appropriate learning environments.

So, learning outcome is the particular knowledge, skill or behaviour that a student is expected to exhibit after a period of study. As the areas of affective and psychomotor domains are not sufficiently exposed, it is generally a custom to restrict the term learning outcomes to the level of achievement of pupils in the cognitive area of various school subjects. Bhatnagar (1968) observed that there are many students who pass the examination, yet they fail to achieve as much as they can in terms of their ability. These students are known as underachievers. They are the persons who are quite capable, but fail to achieve in conformity with capacity for several reasons, perhaps, certain non-intellectual factors, which facilitate better achievement. So, we can measure students’ learning outcomes in a better way by measuring their:

1.1.3 Academic Achievement

In this modern age, academic achievement is considered as a key factor for personal progress. Educational excellence contributes significantly to the academic success and professional placement of an individual. It is an index of scholastic performance and academic brilliance. It is the prime and perennial responsibility of a school or any other educational institution established by the society to promote wholesome scholastic growth and development of a child. It has always been a crucial area and the main centre of educational research.

Academic achievement may be defined as the degree or level of proficiency attained in scholastic and academic work. It is the competence that is really revealed in school subjects in which students have received instructions. It is directly related to pupil’s growth and development in educational situations, where learning and teaching are intended to go on. The term Academic Achievement can be defined by two terms:
**Academic**: It is pertaining to school subjects or to fields of liberal arts or to the sphere of ideas and abstraction.

**Achievement**: It is denoted by knowledge attained or skills developed by pupils usually in the schools, measured by test scores or by marks assigned by teachers. It is the quantity and quality of a student’s work.

**Definitions of Academic Achievement**

Good (1959) “Academic achievement refers to the knowledge attained or skills developed in school subjects usually designated by the test scores or by marks assigned by teacher or by both”.

Trow (1960) defines “Scholastic achievement as the attained ability or degree of competence in school tasks, usually measured by standardized tests and expressed in grades or units.”

According to Hawes and Hawes (1982), “The term academic achievement refers to instructional system of formal education with in school, college or university”.

Hurlock (1989) defines, “Achievement are the scores obtained in the annual examination. It measures or assesses the status or level of person’s skill, the range and depth of his knowledge or his proficiency in designed area of learning or behaviour. It is measured and assessed by achievement tests and compared to the pet norms to evaluate an individual's performance. These tests may be created or standardized”.

Steinberger (1993) says “Achievement encompasses student’s ability and performance, it is multidimensional, it reflects the whole child, it is not related to a single instance but occurs across time and levels through a student’s life in school and in post secondary years and working life”.

According to Landson Billing (1999) “At its best, academic achievement represents intellectual ability to participate in the production of knowledge. At its worst, academic achievement represents inculcation and mindless indoctrination of the young into the canons and orthodoxy”.

Hence, whatever is learned or achieved as per the prescribed curriculum of a course within a definite period of time in form of obtained marks or scores, division or grade are known as the indicator of academic achievement which is the root base of further educational and occupational planning of a learner of any stage.
1.1.4 Non-Academic Achievement

Non-academic achievement is the performance of the pupils in different activities in school apart from academic or scholastic activities such as, sports, cultural activities, literary activities, music, fine arts, craft work, NSS, NCC, scouts and guides etc. The primary function of education has been considered the all round development of the child. All round development means mental, physical, psychological, spiritual and vocational development. The true aims of education can be fully realized by introducing co-curricular activities at every stage of education. A school is expected to develop qualities such as co-operation, team spirit, self-discipline, democratic attitude, desirable attitude towards manual work, creativity and so on. Young people can learn life long lessons from participation in co-curricular activities as important as those taught in the classroom. Educational theories fully recognize and emphasize these aims of education. However, many of these qualities can be developed through formal instructional processes in the classroom. There should be an appropriate balance between academic and non academic activities, since one is incomplete without the other and also because it is difficult to imagine a school either with only academic activities or non academic activities.

The development of non academic activities was slow in the beginning, with many seeing it simply as a fad that would pass and quickly fade out of style. One of the early philosophies behind extracurricular activities was that they should, wherever at all possible, “grow out of curricular activities and return to curricular activities to enrich them” (Millard, 1930). Eventually, people including educators, began to see the benefits of extracurricular activities, but it took a while to incur themselves to them. In fact, before 1900, educators were skeptical of participation in extracurricular activities, believing that “school should focus solely on narrowly defined academic outcomes. Non academic activities were viewed as being primarily recreational and therefore were detrimental to academic achievement and consequently were discouraged” (Marsh and Kleitman, 2002). It was not until recently that educational practitioners and researchers have taken a more positive perspective, arguing that extracurricular activities may have positive effects on life skills and may also benefit academic accomplishments. Thus, it is obvious that extra curricular activities have an impact on academic performance and education ever since their inception. These activities supplement
and extend those contacts and experiences found in the more formal part of the programme of the school day.

By and large, schools lay emphasis on the cognitive domain in the educational process for the child and believe that affective areas do not contribute much towards academic success. This situation continues in spite of the fact that educrats are consistently harping on the point that total personality growth cannot occur in the absence of non-cognitive growth. Time and again, various commissions and committees have stressed on the responsibility of the schools to develop the non-cognitive characteristics of students along with academic or scholastic potentials. The National Policy on Education, 1986 also underlined forcefully the assessment of non-academic areas under the continuous and comprehensive scheme. The learning of non-academic areas is not only helpful for living a quality life but has direct relevance to the ability to learn, interest in learning and value education.

1.1.4.1 Development of Non-Academic Qualities
Every school should make conscious efforts to develop the following essential qualities in all the children.

(i) **Regularity and Punctuality**: These values manifest as appreciation for and sensitivity to the value of time and time bound commitments.

(ii) **Cleanliness**: This attitude manifests in terms of the child’s personal habits of healthful living and keeping the personal self as well as the immediate physical environment in a clean condition.

(iii) **Industriousness or Diligence**: It is the inculcation of that quality which prepares the children to undertake goal oriented tasks, pursue them with patience and complete them in a time bound fashion.

(iv) **Sense of duty and service**: These manifests as willingness to sacrifice self interest for the welfare of others while performing one’s duties without any feeling, fear or favour.

(v) **Equality**: Acceptance of the preposition that all are equal irrespective of caste, creed, religion or sex requires inculcating in a child a basic mental disposition to view the relationship of self and others in an egalitarian framework.
(vi) **Co-operation**: The value of working together to achieve common goals needs to be imbibed in all children through appropriate experiences of working and living together inside and outside the school.

(vii) **Sense of responsibility**: Developing a sense of responsibility can be seen as the readiness of the child to face difficulties and problematic situations with commitment and conviction while performing various tasks.

(viii) **Truthfulness**: A quality expected in every individual is the basic urge to be truthful in one's dealings in every aspect of work and life.

(ix) **National Identity**: Developing a sense of national identity should be a prolonged and consistent process of inculcating in the minds of the children a sense of respect for the national symbols and reverence and concern for upholding the basic values enshrined in the constitution.

1.1.4.2 **Problems of Assessment of Non-Academic Achievement**

The role of assessment is to provide accurate and relevant information regarding the differences of individuals with regard to their progress in the different areas of learning. There are innumerable problems with regard to the assessment of non-academic achievement of students, some are discussed below:-

(i) The first and foremost problem is the definition of non-cognitive areas in the curriculum. This creates ambiguity and slackness on the part of teachers to carry out the developmental activities and proper assessment.

(ii) The teachers do not get adequate training in their pre-service training programmes. They lack this input completely due to a fired mind set of tilting the balance towards the growth of academic areas.

(iii) There is a problem of differences among individuals and changes in their behaviour overtime. There are certain traits which take long time to develop and their assessment at a point of time may envince a picture which may be changed entirely at another point of time. Therefore, the assessment can be only adhoc or tentative. This certainly affects validity and reliability resulting in suspicion and criticism.
(iv) The problem of constructing tests to assess non-cognitive areas is also very profound. The reason being the absence of one single correct answer to a question like the questions assessing academic or scholastic area.

(v) There has been reluctance on the part of teachers to shoulder the responsibility of helping students’ growth in non-academic areas and assessing them. They believe that it is time consuming and increase their work load. The mind set of the teachers become another hurdle in the assessment of these characteristics.

(vi) Another difficulty encountered in non-academic testing is related to responses. Sometimes, students do not give true response. The next problem is of social desirability. Students accept a situation which is socially accepted. Thus, the volatile nature of human behaviour and inconsistency in test responses create the problem of low reliability.

(vii) Interpretation of tests is another very acute problem in non-academic testing because they are not like achievement tests, where the right answers are fixed. These tests are interpreted in the light of the traits of a normal person in a particular cultural background. Sometimes, certain variations may occur in the behaviour of a normal person due to variation in traditions and morals. So, while interpreting the tests, this dimension cannot be overlooked.

1.2 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence is an asset, particularly in today’s age and it is hailed as paramount. It is the ability to be aware of one’s own emotions and that of others and the ability to act wisely in various situations. It can be defined as the accumulation of all cognitive, non-cognitive and non-physical capabilities and skills a person possess, that help one to deal with the demands and pressure of every day life. People who possess the skills of emotional intelligence are healthier, less depressed, more productive at work and have better relationship. While the people who do not have control over their emotional life fight inner battles that sabotage their ability to focus on work and think clearly. Thus, the concept of emotional intelligence can be attributed to a comprehensive package of individual skills and dispositions, usually referred to a soft skill or inter and intra personal skills, which make up the competency profile of a person.

The most distant roots of emotional intelligence can be traced back of Darwin’s early work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation. In the 1900’s even
though traditional definitions of intelligence emphasized cognitive aspects such as memory and problem solving, several influential researchers in the intelligence field of study had begun to recognize the importance of the non-cognitive intelligence to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people. Thorndike (1920) kept a special place for social intelligence away from other types of intelligence. His references to social intelligence included three elements – the individual’s attitude towards society, social knowledge such as being well in contemporary issues and general knowledge about society and the individual’s capacity for social adjustment such as interpersonal relations and family bonding. Thorndike’s definition included everything related to human intelligence ranging from social, psychological, economic and emotional to affective and non-affective. In 1940, Wechsler proposed that non-intellective abilities, i.e., emotional abilities are essential to determine one’s ability to succeed in life. Ellis (1962) points out that human emotion and thinking are not separate processes, but they significantly overlap and can never be viewed completely apart from each other. According to Spinoza (1977), both the emotion and intellect together contribute to the ultimate cognitive tool. He talked about three levels of cognition, i.e., emotional cognition, intellectual cognition and a kind of intuition. In 1983, Gardner introduced the idea of multiple intelligences which included both interpersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and intra personal intelligence (the capacity to understand oneself). In Gardner’s view, traditional types of intelligence, such as IQ, fail to fully explain cognitive ability. Thus, even though the names given to the concept varied, there was a common belief that traditional definitions of intelligence are lacking in ability to fully explain performance outcomes. Aristotle (1984) also stresses on what reason dictates when one gets angry with the right person to the proper extent at the right time.

In 1985, Payne introduced the term emotional intelligence in his doctoral thesis entitled: A study of emotions: Developing emotional intelligence. However, Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the earliest to suggest the name ‘emotional intelligence’ as a term which refers to the ability of a person to deal with one’s emotions. As a result of the growing acknowledgement of professionals for the importance and relevance of emotions to work outcomes, the research on the topic continued to gain momentum, but the term became widely popularized in 1995 after the publication of Goleman’s book Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ? In this book, he collected and often dramatized a lot of information
on the brain, emotions and behaviour. In 1998, Goleman published another book called “Working with Emotional Intelligence” and widened the definition of emotional intelligence saying that it consists of 25 skills, abilities and competencies. Thereafter, researches and articles on emotional intelligence began to appear with increasing frequency across a wide range of academic and popular outlets.

Definitions of Emotional Intelligence

Salovey & Mayer (1990) defines emotional intelligence as “a form of intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide thinking and actions”

According to Goleman (1995) “Emotional intelligence consists of five components: knowing our emotions, managing them, motivating ourselves, recognizing emotions in others and handling relationships”.

In the words of Mayer & Salovey (1997) “Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions, integrate emotions to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth”.

In Bar-On, Reuven’s opinion (1997) “Emotional intelligence is an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures”.


Mayer & Cobb (2000) defines emotional intelligence as “the ability to process emotional information, particularly as it involves the perception, assimilation, understanding and management of emotions”.

According to Caruso et al (2002) “Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to process emotion laden information competently and to use it to guide cognitive activities like problem solving and to focus energy on required behaviour”.

Mangal (2003) says “ Emotional intelligence is one’s unitary ability (related to, but independent of standard intelligence) helpful in knowing, feeling and judging emotions in close
cooperation with one's thinking process to behave in a proper way, for the ultimate realization of the happiness and welfare of the self in tune with others. Singh (2006) viewed emotional intelligence as "the ability and freedom to grow from mistrust to trust, self doubt to competence, self empowerment, following to leading, isolation to synergy and despair to hope".

Thus, it can be said that emotional intelligence is a set of skills hypothesized to contribute to the accurate appraisal and expression of emotions in oneself and in others, the effective regulation of emotions in self and others and the use of feelings to motivate, plan and achieve success in one's life.

1.2.1 Characteristics of Emotional Intelligence

The characteristics of emotional intelligence are:

(i) It is a non-cognitive and non-physical capacity of the organism.
(ii) It is an internal or psychological process, which motivates the organism to perform its activities properly.
(iii) It is nurturable.
(iv) It energizes the organism to accomplish the required task.
(v) Level of emotional intelligence is neither genetically fixed nor does it develop only in early childhood rather it develops throughout life.

1.2.2 Bases of Emotional Intelligence

The bases of emotional intelligence are:

(i) Emotional Literacy: This involves developing a clear and useful vocabulary for emotional literacy and recognizing, respecting and valuing the inherent wisdom of feelings. It can be improved through monitoring thoughts and feelings, self-observation, paying careful attention to gut feelings etc.
(ii) Emotional Fitness: It refers to those qualities that illuminate our personal values, character and the feelings. It is based upon a combination of believability and spontaneous sociability- an aspect of emotional intelligence, indicative of one's ease of talking with strangers and embracing differences with openness instead of rigidity.
(iii) **Emotional Depth:** It is the manifestation of a person’s commitment, drive, initiative, conscience and accountability. It can be developed by inculcating self-awareness, assertiveness, empathy, communication and by referring to role model.

(iv) **Emotional Alchemy:** It is a blending of force that can extend one’s creative instincts and capacity to flow with problems and pressure and to fight for the future. It throws light on the range of hidden solutions and untapped opportunities.

1.2.3 **Domains of Emotional Intelligence**

Domains of emotional intelligence are categorized as follow:

(i) **Knowing one's emotions:** Self-awareness is the keystone of emotional intelligence. This area features the ability to monitor one’s feelings from moment to moment as they happen. People possessing this domain make personal decisions with certainty and assurance.

(ii) **Managing emotions:** This domain refers to the ability to handle emotions in appropriate manners. Persons proficient in this domain are better able to shake off negative emotions like gloom, anxiety, and irritability. These people are ones, who have less difficulty in bouncing back after experiencing life's ups and downs.

(iii) **Motivating oneself:** Concentrating one's emotions on the achievement of goals within the context of mastery, paying attention and creativity falls into this category. People possessing attributes in this domain are self-motivated, they delay gratification and stifle their impulsive urges.

(iv) **Recognizing emotions in others:** It is an essential social skill. People possessing this skill are attuned to subtle social cues and interactions which indicate what others want or need.

(v) **Handling relationships:** Skills in this domain refer to the abilities common in people who are adept at managing the emotions and their interactions with others. This domain also refers to aspects inherent in popularity, leadership, and harmonious interpersonal relationships.

Goleman points out that different people have aspects of each domain to varying degrees, combinations and intensities. People adapt in one domain of emotional intelligence might not necessarily excel in another domain.
1.2.4 Models of Emotional Intelligence

Each theoretical paradigm conceptualizes emotional intelligence from one of two perspectives: ability or mixed model.

(I) The Ability-Based Model

The ability based model views emotions as useful sources of information that help one to make sense of and navigate the social environment. The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviours. This model proposes that emotional intelligence includes four types of abilities:

(i) Emotional Perception: Emotional perception is the ability to be self-aware of emotions and to express emotions and emotional needs accurately to others. It involves the capacity to recognize emotions in others' facial and postural expressions.

(ii) Emotional Assimilation: It is the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving. It involves the ability to distinguish among the different emotions, one is feeling and to identify those emotions that are influencing their thought processes.

(iii) Emotional Understanding: It is the ability to comprehend emotional language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. It helps to understand complex emotions (such as feeling two emotions at once) and to recognize transitions from one to the other.

(iv) Emotional Management: It is the ability to connect or disconnect from an emotion depending on its usefulness in a given situation. It involves the management and regulation of emotion in oneself and others, such as knowing how to calm down after feeling angry or being able to alleviate the anxiety of another person.

(II) Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence

Mixed models of emotional intelligence are substantially different than the ability model. The ability model focuses on emotions themselves and their interactions with thought. The mixed models treat mental abilities and a variety of other characteristics such as motivation, states of consciousness (e.g. 'flow') and social activity as a single entity (Goleman, 1995 and Bar-On 1997).
The Emotional Competencies (Goleman) Model

This model outlines four main emotional intelligence constructs:

(a) **Self-Awareness**: It is the ability to read one's emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decisions.

(b) **Self-Management**: It involves controlling one's emotions and impulses adapting to changing circumstances.

(c) **Social-Awareness**: It includes the ability to sense, understand and react to other's emotions while comprehending social networks.

(d) **Relationship Management**: It is the ability to inspire and influence others while managing conflict.

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, rather they are learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman said that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies. Table 1.1 illustrates Goleman's conceptual model of emotional intelligence and corresponding emotional competencies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1.1: Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Competencies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self (Personal Competence)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>RECOGNITION</strong></td>
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<td>Self-Awareness</td>
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<td>Emotional Self-Awareness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accurate Self-Assessment</td>
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<td>Self-Confidence</td>
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<td><strong>Self-Management</strong></td>
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<td>Self-Control</td>
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16
(ii) The Bar-On Model of Emotional - Social Intelligence

The director of the Institute of Applied Intelligences in Denmark and Consultant for a variety of institutions and organizations in Israel, Reuven Bar-On developed one of the first measures of emotional intelligence that used the term "Emotional Quotient". Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence relates to the potential for performance and success, rather than performance or success itself and is considered as process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented. It focuses on an array of emotional and social abilities, including the ability to be aware of, understand and express oneself and relate to others, the ability to deal with strong emotions, the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of a social or personal nature (Bar-On, 1997). In his model, Bar-On outlines five components of emotional intelligence which are outlined in table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Bar-On's Model of Emotional Intelligence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Sub-Components</th>
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<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal</td>
<td>Self-Regard</td>
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<td>Emotional Self-Awareness</td>
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<td>Assertiveness</td>
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<td>Independence</td>
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<td>Self-Actualization</td>
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<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
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<td>Social Responsibility</td>
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<td>Interpersonal Relationship</td>
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<td>Reality Testing</td>
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<td>Flexibility</td>
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<td>Problem Solving</td>
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<td>Stress Management</td>
<td>Stress Tolerance</td>
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<td>Impulse Control</td>
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<td>General Mood</td>
<td>Optimism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Happiness</td>
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Bar-On stated that emotional intelligence develops over time and it can be improved through training, programming and therapy. Bar-On hypothesizes that those individuals with higher than average E.Q. are, in general, more successful in meeting environmental demands
and pressures.

Despite the existence of different models of emotional intelligence, there are some similarities between the various conceptions. On a global level, all of the models aim to understand and measure the elements involved in the recognition and regulation of one's own emotions and the emotions of others.

1.2.5 Significance of Emotional Intelligence

The following points highlight the significance of emotional intelligence:

(i) It plays a pivotal role in designing the required personality, developing the emotional maturity and the ability in the self-adaptation for solving the stress problems and the pressures of life in the competing status of an individual.

(ii) It enables a man to achieve highest pinnacle and deepest reach in one's search for self-fulfillment as well as others' fulfillment.

(iii) It reinforces the concomitant drive to increase individualism. It enables to express one's feelings and emotions at the appropriate occasion, with the understanding of the feeling of self and others.

(iv) It gives the introspective before getting to know others.

(v) It enhances the talent of artful leader in utilizing people and in capturing their hearts. It encourages individual competition rather than team spirit.

(vi) It helps in stimulating motivation, improving communication and enhancing decision making power.

(vii) It impacts positively to the individual's ability to sustain both moral and physical health.

1.2.6 Nurturing Emotional Intelligence

All education is of little use unless backed by emotional intelligence. As emotional intelligence is non-cognitive and non-physical capacity of the organism, it can be nurtured by upgrading emotional skills. It is something that have been learnt from the own experiences and practices. In this direction, the study of Salovey and Mayer (1990) found that Emotional Quotient developed with increasing age and experiences as a person progressed from childhood to adulthood. It is also crucial for effective child rearing. The one thing everybody is seeking is happiness and joy. The pressure of performing better than others is affecting a number of
adolescents (Bhatnagar 2002). So, in adolescent stage to avoid loneliness, lack of concentration, being stubborn, drug abuse, feeling unloved and many more problems, emotional intelligence concept should be introduced in all levels of educational system. Emotional intelligence can be enhanced by developing the following:

(i) **Self-awareness:** It involves observing oneself and recognizing one’s own feelings, building a vocabulary for feelings, knowing the relationship among thoughts, feelings and reactions.

(ii) **Personal decision making:** It is the examination of one’s own actions and knowing their consequences, knowing if thought or feeling is ruling a decision.

(iii) **Managing feelings:** It is the monitoring self-talk to realize what is behind a feeling, finding ways to handle fears and anxieties, anger and sadness.

(iv) **Handling stress:** It involves learning the value of exercise, guided imagery, relaxation methods.

(v) **Empathy:** It is the understanding of other’s feelings, concerns and perspective, appreciating the differences in how people feel about things.

(vi) **Communication:** Talking about feelings effectively, listening well as well as asking questions, distinguishing between what someone does or says and one’s own reactions or judgment.

(vii) **Self-disclosure:** It is the valuing openness and building trust in a relationship, knowing when it is safe to talk about one’s private feelings.

(viii) **Insight:** It is identifying patterns in own emotional life and reactions, recognizing similar patterns in others.

(ix) **Self-acceptance:** It is feeling pride on seeing own self in a positive light and recognizing own strengths and weaknesses.

(x) **Assertiveness:** It is stating own concerns and feelings without anger or passivity.

(xi) **Group dynamics:** It involves cooperation, knowing when and how to lead, when to follow.

(xii) **Conflict resolution:** It states how to fight fair with parents, teachers and others.

Thus, unless and until adolescents know how to identify, understand, use and manage the negative emotions, emotional intelligence cannot be inculcated in them who are the futures of tomorrow. In order to foster emotional intelligence, various co-curricular activities can also
be included in the academic material which is currently being used by the various schools and colleges. The co-curricular activities which can be included are as follow:

(i) **Sports:** It is a very effective way of developing the habit of coordinated activities in the students as team work is vital these days. Team performance, rather than solely individual output, is the key to the most successful activities.

(ii) **Theatre sessions:** In these sessions, the students can be involved in the plays which are very close to real life situations making them aware that what real life situations can be.

(iii) **Social work:** Students should also be involved in social activities. They can accompany any local organization working in this direction so that a sense of sharing can be built in their personality.

(iv) **Solidarity day:** Such days can be celebrated in which students can go to slum areas and interact with the people and can know their every day problems. This interaction will give them the true picture of the society in which they are living. Thus, they will learn to respect the opportunities that they get in life and motivating them to make this earth a better place to live for other also.

(v) **Helping days:** On these days the students can visit various institutions for the underprivileged such as old homes, orphanages etc. where they are allowed to serve and help the inmates just for a day to do their various routine works, making them more sensitive towards the needs of others and thus developing the helping behaviour in them.

(vi) **Sharing sessions:** The educational institution must start such sessions in which the students should be encouraged to come forward and tell their experiences when they had helped some one and also about the times when they were helped by others so that by sharing these experiences the students can become more sensitive towards other human beings.

(vii) **Presentations:** Presentations must be made essential in which the students should study and present the life of famous people who worked hard all their lives to uplift the various social strata’s and also giving a touch of their own views.

Thus, what finally emerges is that there has to be proper mix of useful intelligence and emotional strength in human being in order to be a well adjusted personality and successful in the fast changing and demanding environment.
1.3 METACOGNITION

The concept of metacognition is of recent origin in cognitive theory. It is the process of “thinking about thinking” and knowing “what we know” and “what we don’t know”. It refers to higher order mental processes involved in learning, such as making plans for learning, using appropriate skills and strategies to solve a problem, making estimates of performance and calibrating the extent of learning. It consists of two basic processes occurring simultaneously: monitoring one’s progress as one learns and making changes and adapting one’s strategies if one perceives one is not doing so well (Winn and Snyder, 1998).

Metacognition is a very complex phenomenon. It is a combination of two words: Meta and Cognition. A meta was one of the conical column set on the ground at each end of the circus in Rome to mark the turning point in the race. Similarly, the concept of metacognition can be seen as a turning point in our understanding of the mind. The prefix meta refers to something that transcends the subject it is related to whereas cognition is the internal structure and process that is involved in the acquisition and use of knowledge including sensation, perception, attention, learning, memory, language, thinking and reasoning. It is the ability to retrieve knowledge from memory. Thus, metacognition refers to a level of thinking that involves active control over the process of thinking that is used in learning situation.

The term ‘metacognition’ is most often associated with John Flavell. For Flavell (1976) metacognition consists of both metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive experiences or regulation. Metacognitive knowledge refers to acquired knowledge about cognitive processes, knowledge that can be used to control cognitive processes. Flavell further divides metacognitive knowledge into three categories: (i) person variables or knowledge about one’s self and other’s thinking (ii) task variables or knowledge that different types of tasks exert different types of cognitive demands and (iii) strategy variables or knowledge about cognitive and metacognitive strategies for enhancing learning and performance. Metacognitive experiences involve the use of metacognitive strategies or metacognitive regulation. Metacognitive strategies are sequential processes that one uses to control cognitive activities and to ensure that a cognitive goal (understanding a text) has been met. These processes help to regulate and oversee learning and consist of planning and monitoring cognitive activities as well as checking the outcomes of those activities.
Soon after Flavell’s introduction, interest in metacognition flourished. Brown (1980) applied metacognitive theory to reading and differentiated between cognitive and metacognitive processes. She identified the metacognitive process as reader controlled strategies that include selecting and studying the most important part of text, selecting retrieval cues and estimating readiness for tests. She also distinguished between knowledge about cognition and regulation of cognition. Knowledge about cognition deals with all the concepts which are related to our thinking processes such as self-concept of knowledge, self-intelligence, self-memory, attention, study habits etc. It can be stable, late developing and remains relatively consistent within individuals. Regulation of cognitive processes includes all those mechanisms through which we regulate our thinking process such as orientation, planning, monitoring, testing, repairing, evaluating, reflecting etc. It can be relatively unstable, age independent and changes rapidly from situation to situation.

Pinard (1991) extends Flavell’s definition of metacognitive knowledge by distinguishing between factual and strategic metaknowledge. For Pinard, factual metaknowledge not only incorporates the three variables proposed by Flavell but enlarges its scope. According to Pinard, knowledge of metacognition consists of: (i) Objective variables which relates to the motivational attitudes that we maintain towards our own learning, (ii) Task variables include problem situations that individuals confront in their everyday lives, (iii) Person variable include cognitive-affective components, such as motivational style, attributional style, self-efficacy and the internal dialogue that one engages in. Pinard’s strategic metaknowledge, however, maintains a similar distinction between cognitive and metacognitive strategies to the one initially proposed by Flavell where cognitive strategies or production strategies as suggested by Pinard refers to the repertoire of executive strategies that one has at one’s disposal for producing a desired result whereas metacognitive strategies or self regulatory strategies refers to the higher order strategies which serve to supervise and regulate these and other strategies. Pinard suggests that self regulation is the key to unifying and integrating the processes at work in metacognitive activity, since it functions essentially to co-ordinate the multi dimensional intervention of all the strategic and factual metaknowledge components.

Paris et al (1991), while recognizing the rate of self regulation and motivation in metacognition, emphasized self awareness and self-efficacy. Zimmerman et al (1992), on the other hand, while noting the importance of motivation and self-efficacy to self regulation posed
that self regulation differentiates between academic success and failure. Thus, metacognition tends to be interpreted as a process in head, rather than as interactive one.

**Definitions of Metacognition**

Flavell (1976) refers metacognition as “the individual’s own awareness and consideration of one’s cognitive processes and strategies”.

Paris et al (1984) describe three aspects of self control strategies for learning:
- Declarative Knowledge: the ability to describe some thinking strategies.
- Procedural Knowledge: knowledge of how to use the selected strategies.
- Conditional Knowledge: Knowledge of when to use it.

According to Ridley et al (1992), “Metacognitive skills include taking conscious control of learning, planning and selecting strategies, monitoring the progress of learning, correcting errors, analyzing the effectiveness of learning strategies and changing learning behaviour and strategies when necessary.”

According to Houston (1995), Metacognition is “knowledge or beliefs” about factors affecting one’s own cognitive activities; also reflection on a monitoring of one’s own cognitive processes such as memory or comprehension.

Wilson (1999) defines metacognition as:
- Metacognitive Awareness: It relates to an individual’s awareness of where they are in the learning process, their knowledge about content, personal learning strategies and what has been done and needs to be done.
- Metacognitive Evaluation – It refers to judgments made regarding one’s thinking capacities and limitations as these are employed in a particular situation or as self-attributes.
- Metacognitive Regulation – It occurs when individuals modify their thinking.”

In the words of Daniels (2002), “Metacognition and reflection both are concerned with the process of monitoring, regulating and controlling an individuals thinking about their thinking”.

Mayer (2003) viewed metacognition “as the knowledge and awareness of one’s own cognitive processes.”

Ormrod (2006) described metacognition as “one’s knowledge and beliefs about one’s own cognitive processes and one’s resulting attempts to regulate those cognitive processes to maximize learning and memory.”
Thus metacognition is the ability to evaluate one’s own comprehension and understanding of subject matter and use that evaluation to predict how well one might perform on a task. This is the process where the student takes conscious control of the learning and thinks about how one is thinking in a cognitive sense.

1.3.1 Components of Metacognition

The components of metacognition are given as below:

(I) **Metacognitive Knowledge:** It refers to what individuals' know about their own cognition or cognition in general. It deals with all the concepts, which are related to our thinking processes such as self-concept of knowledge, self-intelligence, self memory, attention, study habits etc. It includes three different kinds of metacognitive awareness:

(i) **Declarative Knowledge:** It includes knowledge about oneself as a learner and about what factors influence one's performance. As good learners appear to have more knowledge about their own memory and are more likely to use what they do know than poor learners.

(ii) **Procedural Knowledge:** It refers to knowledge about execution of procedural skills. Individuals with a high degree of procedural knowledge use skills more automatically, are more likely to sequence strategies effectively and use qualitatively different strategies to solve problems.

(iii) **Conditional Knowledge:** It refers to knowing when and why to apply various cognitive actions. It allows students to allocate resources and use strategies effectively. Students select different strategies most appropriate for each situation in an effort to better regulate their learning. Many theorists believe that metacognitive knowledge appears early and continues to develop throughout adolescence. Adults tend to have more knowledge about their own cognition than do young children and are better able to describe that knowledge.

(II) **Metacognitive Regulation**

It refers to those mechanisms that help to regulate one's thinking and learning. Three essential skills are included in the process of controlling one's thinking or learning:

(i) **Planning:** It involves the selection of appropriate strategies and the allocation of resources that affect performance. For example, making predictions before reading, selection of
strategies and allocation of resources before beginning a task etc.

(ii) Monitoring: It refers to one's on-line awareness of comprehension and task performance. The ability to engage in periodic self testing while learning is its good example.

(iii) Evaluation: It refers to appraising the products and regulatory processes of one's learning, e.g. re-evaluating one's goals and conclusions.

Researchers agree that regulation of cognition improves performance in a number of ways, including better use of cognitive resources such as attention, better use of strategies and a greater awareness of comprehension breakdowns.

1.3.2 Levels of Metacognition
Swartz and Perkins (1989) distinguished four levels of thought that are increasingly metacognitive:

(i) Tacit Use: The individual does a kind of thinking as decision making without thinking about it.

(ii) Aware Use: The individual does a kind of thinking being conscious about when one is doing so.

(iii) Strategic Use: The individual organizes one’s thinking by way of particular conscious strategies that enhance its efficacy.

(iv) Reflective Use: The individual reflects upon one’s thinking before and after or even in the middle of the process, pondering how to proceed and how to improve.

1.3.3 Theories of Metacognition
Metacognitive theories are those that focus on cognitive aspects of the mind. These theories are a subset of theories of mind. There are three different types of metacognitive theories:

(I) Tacit Theories

Tacit theories are those acquired or constructed without any explicit awareness that one possesses a theory (McCutcheon, 1992). For example, children's beliefs about intelligence affect behaviour in a classroom. Tacit theories provide limited guidance and explanatory power. These theories are characterized by loosely systematized knowledge and postulates that
are not known consciously by the theorists. The most salient aspect of a tacit metacognitive theory as opposed to an explicit one is that an individual is not readily aware of either the theory itself or evidence that supports or refutes it. Thus, tacit theories are not readily distinguished from or tested against relevant data (Moshman, 1979 and Kuhn, 1989). They remain tacit metacognitive theories as they persist even when they are false and maladaptive.

(II) Informal Theories

Informal theories often are fragmentary in that individuals are aware of some of their beliefs and assumptions regarding a phenomenon, but have not yet constructed an explicit theoretical structure that integrates and justifies these beliefs. Informal theories develop slowly and are affected by a number of social and personal influences. Informal theories start as domain specific entities and gradually are generalized to other domains (Paris and Byrnes, 1989 and Kuhn et al 1992). Research indicates that very young children do not question the truth and certainty of their own beliefs or those of others (Montgomery, 1992). The reason is that they are unable to conceptualize false beliefs and therefore find it impossible to think of true (or false) beliefs as a subset of beliefs in general. After some time, most children recognize that beliefs can be false and thus it is reasonable to inquire about the truth or falsity of a claim as a part of the reasoning process (Flavell et al, 1993). At this stage, children begin to develop postulates regarding the truth and certainty of a claim. Later on, children also begin to develop awareness that knowledge and understanding are constructed and that they have some degree of control over this process which may help them develop rudimentary informal theories of their own thinking. Although initially tacit, such postulates over time may provide a basis for testing an increasingly explicit metacognitive theory.

(III) Formal Theories

Formal theories consist of highly systematized approach to learn something that has a specific form or structure (e.g. physics, music, or statistics) that needs to be known, used or remembered. Formal theories exert a profound impact on performance and on the understanding of performance. Formal theorists possess some explicit awareness of the constructive nature of theorizing and engage in purposeful efforts to construct and modify
metacognitive theories (Paris and Byrnes, 1989, Kuhn et al, 1992). These theories allow the individuals to make informed choices about self-regulatory behaviours and the individuals who make such choices are known as "producers of their own development. Kuhn (1989) has described two skills that may be necessary for the construction of a formal theory. One is the ability to distinguish and co-ordinate the formal and empirical aspects of a theory. The second skill is the ability to evaluate and interpret the meaning of empirical evidence apart from the formal aspects of one’s theory.

Three types of metacognitive theories have been proposed and it is considered how each differs from the others. These theories form a naturally occurring hierarchy of knowledge about cognitive and metacognitive processes.

1.3.4 Strategies for Developing Metacognition

Nair et al (2004) gave following strategies for developing metacognition among children:

(i) **Planning Strategy:** Prior to any learning activity, teachers should point out strategies and steps for tackling problems, rules to remember and directions to follow.

(ii) **Choosing consciously:** Teachers can provide the students with chances to select their own choices for learning and select appropriate methods for fruitful learning.

(iii) **Modeling:** The probability of greatest influence on pupils is that of teachers modeling. Modeling and discussion develops the vocabulary that the learners need for thinking and talking about their own thinking. The teachers who publicly demonstrates metacognition produce pupils who metacogitate.

(iv) **Asking thought provoking questions:** It causes pupils to define their terminology operationally and examine the premises on which their thinking is based. It is also helpful to clarify pupils’ problem solving processes.

(v) **Clarifying pupil' terminology:** Pupils often use hollow, vague and non-specific terminology. Teachers need to clarify them in detail so that the meaning and values are explained to the full extent.

(vi) **Paraphrasing:** Teachers should invite pupils to restate, translate, compare and paraphrase ideas of other people. It would lead them to become not only better listeners of other’s thinking, but also better listeners of their own thinking as well.
The above given literature is helpful for a rudimentary understanding of metacognition. Evaluation, planning and regulation help students gain executive control of behaviour. These processes should take place at before, during and after stages of tasks.

1.4 PERSONALITY TRAITS

Personality is the complete and unified outcome of all the developmental processes through which an individual passes. It includes everything about the person i.e., physical, emotional, social, mental, spiritual and character make up. Philosophically, the meaning of personality has been interpreted in the sense of self. But psychologically, personality is neither the external appearance nor it is the self but it includes both and much more. Personality is an all-inclusive concept. It is the distinctive pattern of an individual’s qualities. Every human being has some characteristics which are shown in one’s typical way of treating to common situations. It covers the nature of interaction between internal organization of these characteristics and the external world. Thus, personality refers to our attempts to capture or summarize an individual’s essence.

The personality pattern is composed of traits, which refers to any characteristics in which one individual differs from another in relatively permanent and consistent way. A trait is a readiness to think or act in a similar fashion in response to a variety of different stimuli or situations. Traits actively create situation within which they themselves become operable. The integration of various traits is found differently in different persons and the peculiar form of integration in a particular individual are one’s personality traits.

The word ‘Personality’ originates from the Latin word ‘Persona’ means mask which was used to represent the character. The study of personality can be said to have its origin in the fundamental idea that people are distinguished by their characteristic individual patterns of behaviour-the distinctive way in which they walk, talk, furnish their living quarters or express their urges. The systematic study of personality has emerged from a number of different sources. Some psychologists have taken a highly scientific approach, whereas others have focused their attention on theory development. The ancient Greeks used their ideas about physiology to account for differences and similarities in temperament. In the middle of the nineteenth century, however, connotations were non-psychological that referred to the distinction between persons and things. By the turn of the nineteenth century, the new clinically
inspired theories made personality a concept of great interest both within certain specialist circles and for the public at large. Adopted by the general public in the 1900s and by mainstream academic psychology in the 1920s and 1930s, the meaning of the term sedimented around the notion of personality as those qualities of an individual that persist across time and contexts and that distinguish the person from all others.

The pioneering American psychologist, Gordon Allport (1937) described two major ways to study personality, the nomothetic and the idiographic. Nomothetic psychology seeks general laws that can be applied to many different people, whereas idiographic psychology is an attempt to understand the unique aspects of a particular individual. In recent years, the cognitive revolution has engendered social-cognitive theories that explain behaviour on the basis of internal representations of context-specific situations. Behavioural consistency exists because most individuals operate on the basis of a small repertoire of interpretive schemas or scripts, which they then use to guide action in a wide variety of particular circumstances. Thus, the personality has been in one respect understood as synonymous with identity, at the same time it has also been indicative of a kind of surface feature, a way of being seen by the external world rather than a reflection of an internal self. This conflict between the internal and the external, persistent and the contextual, visible as well within psychological theory continues to characterize notions of personality up to the present day.

Definitions of Personality

Allport (1948) viewed personality as “a dynamic organization within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment”.

Maddi (1976) portrayed personality “as the stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the psychological behaviour (thoughts, feelings and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may or may not be easily understood in terms of the social and biological pressures of the immediate situation alone”.

According to Moynihan and Peterson (2001), “Personality traits are the key antecedent of an individual’s cognitions and affective states that may influence his or her task and interpersonal or socio-emotional role behaviours in teams.”

Carver and Scheier’s (2002) describe personality as “a dynamic organization inside the person of those psychophysical systems that create a person’s characteristic patterns of behaviour,
thoughts and feelings”.

Funder (2004) refers to personality as “an individual’s characteristic patterns of thought, emotion and behaviour together with the psychological mechanisms- hidden or not- behind those patterns.”

Ryckman (2004) describes “Personality is a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations and behaviours in various situations”.

In the words of Pervin et al (2005), “Personality refers to those characteristics of the person that account for consistent patterns of feelings, thinking and behaving.”

Larson and Buss (2005) viewed personality as “the set of psychological traits and mechanisms within the individual that are organized and relatively enduring and influence his or her interactions with and adaptations to the intrapsychic, physical and social environments.”

Mayer (2007) says, “Personality is the organized developing system within the individual that represents the collective action of that individual’s major psychological subsystems.

Thus, personality can be understood as the sum total of one’s way of behaving towards oneself and others as well. It also predicts one’s nature of behaviour as how one will behave in a particular situation and one’s pattern of adjustment to the ever changing forces of environment.

1.4.1 Properties of Personality Traits

The properties of personality traits are:

(i) Scalability: Traits can be measured and scaled quantitatively.

(ii) Inference from Behaviour: Traits can be inferred from the behaviour of an individual.

(iii) Flexibility: Traits are not static in nature. They change from time to time.

(iv) Universality: There are certain traits which are universal in nature as height and weight.

(v) Functional Unity: It means that there must be different indications which may vary or are manifested consistently in behaviour of the individual.

(vi) Higher order habits: A trait is a higher order habit which recurs in the behaviour frequently.

(vii) Mental sets: It is a readiness to respond to any variety of situations in a consistent way.
Frame of reference: Personality of an individual is an organized whole of beliefs, emotions etc. about the environment. In this reference, traits are organized frames of references.

Learned: Traits are learned in the interaction with the environmental stimuli.

1.4.2 Characteristics of Personality
The result of various experimental studies and observations have led to the identification of the following characteristics of personality:

(i) It is unique and specific. No two individuals are alike and everyone has one’s own specific characteristics for making adjustments.

(ii) It exhibits self consciousness. Man is described as a person or as having a personality when the idea of ‘self’ enters into one’s consciousness.

(iii) It includes all the behaviour patterns of a person i.e., cognitive, affective and conative.

(iv) It is not only the collection of different traits but the organization of traits as a unified whole.

(v) It is dynamic and remains ever in the process of change and modification.

(vi) It is the product of both heredity and environment.

(vii) It can be judged through the life style of an individual or by study and interpretations of the goals one has set to achieve and the approaches one makes to the problems of life.

(viii) It is the end product of the process of learning and the acquisition of experiences.

Thus, the traits, characteristics and tendencies (inherited as well as acquired) although stable to a large extent are subject to change and modification according to the needs of the time and the environmental situation for making one adjusted to one's self as well as to the environment.

1.4.3 Theories of Personality
The theories of personality in one way or another try to describe the basic structure and underlying entities or constructs involved in personality along with the processes by which these entities interact. The theories of personality can be classified into the following categories:
I) Type Theories

Two general sets of theories are considered here viz. the humoral and the morphological.

(i) **Humoral Theories**: The oldest personality theory known is contained in the cosmological writings of the Greek philosopher and physiologist, Empedocles and in related speculations of the physician Hippocrates. Empedocles’ cosmic elements—air (warm and moist), earth (cold and dry), fire (warm and dry), water (cold and moist) were related to health and corresponded to Hippocrates’ physical humours, which were associated with variations in temperament: blood (sanguine temperament), black bile (melancholic), yellow bile (choleric) and phlegm (phlegmatic). According to these early theorists, emotional stability as well as general health depend on an appropriate balance among the four bodily humours; an excess of one may produce a particular bodily illness or an exaggerated personality trait.

(ii) **Morphological Theories**: A morphological theory was developed by the German psychiatrist Ernst Kretschmer. These theories are related to biochemical theories and distinguish types of personalities on the basis of body shape (somatotype). Kretschmer (1925) wrote that slim and delicate physiques are associated with introversion, while those with rounded, heavier and shorter bodies tend to be cyclothymic i.e., moody but often extroverted and jovial. Sheldon (1942) also classified human beings into types according to their physical structures and attached certain temperamental characteristics to them as: endomorph (soft and round), mesomorph (square and muscular) and ectomorph (linear and fine-boned).

II) Trait Theories

In the trait approach, the personality is viewed in terms of various traits. The psychologists who subscribe to this approach believe that the personality of an individual is a combination or sum total of one’s personality or behavioural traits that can be discovered through the continuous and objective observation of one’s behaviour.

(i) **Allport’s Theory**: Allport was the first theorist who by rejecting the notion of a relatively limited number of personality types adopted the trait approach for the description of highly individualized personalities. Traits, according to Allport, are the basic units of personality. To him, personality is the dynamic organization of all the behavioural traits that an individual possesses and it is that organization which can be considered responsible for his
behaviour in a particular situation. Allport’s theory of personality is known not only for its emphasis on traits but also for its stress on concepts like functional autonomy, individualized approach in the study of personality and the discontinuous nature of the development of personality etc.

Allport's Classification of Personality Traits

(a) **Cardinal Traits:** Cardinal traits are those by which an individual may be strongly recognized. These are the primary traits and are so dominant in one's personal disposition that they colour virtually every aspect of one's behaviour and attributes. It may be illustrated with the example of achievement in life.

(b) **Central Traits:** Central traits are basic to an individual's personality. They represent those few characteristic tendencies which can be ordinarily used to describe a person e.g. honesty, kindness, submissiveness etc.

(c) **Secondary Traits:** Secondary traits are more peripheral. They appear in only a relatively small range of situations that are not considered strong enough to be regarded as integral part of one's personality. They are called attitudes.

(d) **Common Traits:** Common traits are those which are recognized within a culture and they may vary from culture to culture.

(ii) Cattell's Theory: The most recent advanced theory of personality based on the trait approach has been developed by Cattell. He has defined a trait as a structure of the personality inferred from behaviour in different situations. The theory attributes certain specific dimensions to personality so that the human behaviour related to a particular situation can be predicted. Cattell made use of 16 factors of basic dimensions in the assessment of personality by devising a personality inventory known as Cattell's sixteen personality factors inventory (16PF).

Cattell's Classification of Personality Traits

(a) **Common Traits:** These traits are found widely distributed in general population like honesty, aggression and co-operation.

(b) **Unique Traits:** These traits are unique to a person such as temperamental traits, emotional reaction, energy etc.

(c) **Surface Traits:** These can be recognized by overt manifestations of behaviour like
curiosity, dependability, tactfulness etc.

(d) Source Traits: These are the underlying structures or sources that determine behavior, such as dominance, submission, emotionality etc.

Cattell has also taken into account the motivational variables like urges, sentiments, attitude states and the roles (the way one is presenting oneself) relevant to the situation for the prediction and assessment of one’s personality.

(III) Type-cum-Trait Theories

This approach tries to synthesise the type and trait approaches. Starting with the trait approach, it yields definite personality types. The Eysenck theory of personality reflects such an approach.

(i) Eysenck’s Theory: Eysenck’s work demonstrated that human behaviour and personality can be very well organized into a hierarchy with specific responses at the bottom and the definite personality type at the top. He derived three basic dimensions of personality as under:

(a) Introversion-Extroversion: Introverts are on the lower end and are quiet, introspective, reserved, disciplined, reflective and well-ordered people. Whereas extroverts are identified as sociable, outgoing, impulsive, optimistic and jolly people.

(b) Neuroticism: This dimension involves emotional instability at the lower end and emotional stability at the upper end describing people as neurotic and not neurotic. Thus, at its lower end are the persons who are moody, touchy, anxious or restless and at the upper end are the persons who are stable, calm, carefree, even tempered and dependable.

(iii) Psychoticism: The people high on this dimension tend to be solitary, insensitive, egocentric, impersonal, impulsive and opposed to accepted social norms while those scoring low are found to be more empathic and less adventurous and bold.

(IV) Psychoanalytic Theories

Psychoanalytic theories explain human behaviour in terms of the interaction of various components of personality. Sigmund Freud, the founder of this school emphasized the importance of dynamic and unconscious psychological conflicts.
Freud's Theory: His integrative theory of personality of psychoanalysis was largely promulgated during the first four decades of the 20th century which is a beautiful blend of theory and practice. On the theoretical side, it presented a theory to understand and explain the human psyche and on the practical side, it provided a method known as psychoanalysis for the study of human behaviour and also as a therapy for treating the mentally ill.

He explained the structure of the human psyche or mind by arranging it into three layers as the conscious, the sub conscious and the unconscious. In the conscious mind or upper ages, the ideas, thoughts and images that we are aware of, at any moment of our mental life are said to lie. In the middle layer or subconscious mind, there lie all experiences or knowledge which have been gained or learned by an individual through various types of experience or training. The lower layer or unconscious mind contains all the repressed wishes, desires, feelings, drives and motives, many of which are related to sex and aggression. Therefore, the task of psychotherapist consists of a search for the relevant in the unconscious and subconscious mind and bringing it up into the conscious mind.

Freud further invented three more components for explaining the structure of the psyche: the id, the ego and the superego. The id is the source of sexual energy that builds up and needs to be released or expressed in some way. The ego is the structure that helps the id to express itself. It emerges in order to realistically meet the wishes and demands of the id in accordance with the outside world. The super ego exercises moral judgement and societal rules in keeping the ego and id in check. It is the last function of the personality to develop and may be seen as an outcome of the interactions with one’s parents during the long period of childhood dependency. According to Freud, personality is based on the interaction of these three components.

In addition to the above structure of the personality, Freud tried to provide an explanation of the development of human personality through his ideas about sex. He held that sex is a life energy. The sexual needs of the individual are basic needs which have to be satisfied for a balanced growth of the personality. Freud proposed five psychosexual stages of personality development namely oral (from birth to one year), anal (one to two year of age), phallic (between three and six years of age), latency (seven years to puberty) and genital (during adolescents). He further believed that adult personality is determined by early childhood
experience. He suggested that events in the past could influence the present, such as when a person develops a fixation during one of these five stages and is unable to develop further.

(ii) **Jung’s Theory**: The Swiss psychiatrist Carl Gustav Jung, an early adherent of Freud’s theories, questioned the degree of emphasis that Freud gave to sexual motivations in personality development. Jung accepted the significant effect of the unconscious processes, but unlike Freud, he preferred to emphasize that behaviour is motivated more by abstract, even spiritual processes than by sexual drives. He focused more on individual differences and developed a typology of reaction styles, distinguishing between two basic means of modulating basic drives, introversion and extroversion. Introversion was defined as preoccupation with one’s inner world at the expense of social interactions and extroversion as a preference for social interplay for living out inner drives.

(iii) **Adler’s Theory**: The Austrian psychiatrist Alfred Adler, another of Freud’s early followers, also disputed the importance of sexual motives. Adler described a coping strategy that he called compensation, which he felt was an important influence on behaviour. In his view, people compensated for a behavioural deficiency by exaggerating some other behaviour: a process analogous to organic processes called hypertrophy, in which, e.g., if one eye is injured, the other eye may compensate by becoming more acute. Adler assigned a prominent place to family dynamics in personality development. Children’s position in their family, their birth order etc. was seen as determining significant character traits.

(iv) **Erikson’s Theory**: Freud’s emphasis on the developmental unfolding of the sexual, aggressive and self-preservative motives in personality was modified by the American psychoanalysts Erik H. Erikson, who integrated psychological, social and biological factors. His scheme proposed eight stages of the development of drives, which continue past Freud’s five stages of childhood (oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital) and through three stages of adulthood. According to him, environmental forces exercise their greatest effect on development at the earliest stages of growth because anything that disturbs one stage affects all of the following stages. As if controlled by a biological timetable, each given stage must be superseeded by a new one, receding in significance as the new stage assumes dominance. A
constant interleaving at critical periods, in which some parts emerge while others are suppressed, must proceed smoothly if personality problems are to be avoided. Erickson, thus, evolved his eight stages of development, which he described as: infancy (trust v/s mistrust), early childhood (autonomy v/s shame and doubt), preschool (initiative v/s guilt), school age (industry v/s inferiority), puberty (identity v/s identity confusion), young adulthood (intimacy v/s isolation), middle adulthood (generativity v/s stagnation) and late adulthood (integrity v/s despair).

(V) Humanistic Theories

In humanistic psychology, it is emphasized that people have free will and it plays an active role in determining how they behave. It focuses on subjective experiences of persons as opposed to forced, definitive factors that determine behaviour.

(i) Maslow’s Theory: Maslow believed that all persons who are interested in growth move towards self actualizing views (growth, happiness, satisfaction). Characteristics of self-actualizers according to Maslow include the four key dimensions:

(i) Awareness: maintaining constant enjoyment and awe of life.
(ii) Reality and problem centred: They have tendency to be concerned with ‘problems’ in their surroundings.
(iii) Acceptance/Spontaneity: They accept their surroundings and what cannot be changed.
(iv) Unhostile sense of humour/democratic: They do not like joking about others, which can be viewed as offensive.

(ii) Rogers’s Theory: Rogers emphasized a view of the person as an active, creative and experiencing human being who lives in the present and subjectively responds to current perceptions, relationships and encounters. Rogers views humanistic theories as positive and optimistic proposals which stress the tendency of the human personality towards growth and self-actualization. This progressing self will remain the center of its constantly changing world; a world that will help to mould the self but not necessarily confine it. Rather, the self has opportunity for maturation based on its encounters with the world. This understanding attempts to reduce the acceptance of hopeless redundancy.
(VI) Cognitive Theories

In cognitivism, behaviour is explained as guided by cognitions (e.g. expectations) about the world, especially those about other people. Cognitive theories of personality emphasize cognitive processes, such as thinking and judging. Aaron Beck, father of cognitive behavioural therapy, suggested that nearly all psychological dilemmas can be redirected in a positive manner with the changing of the suffering individuals thought processes. Albert Bandura, a social learning theorist suggested that the forces of memory and emotions worked in conjunction with environmental influences.

(VII) Behaviourist Theories

Behaviourists explain personality in terms of reactions of external stimuli and was a radical shift away from Freudian philosophy. This school of thought was developed by B.F. Skinner who put forth a model which emphasized the mutual interaction of the person or “the organism” with its environment. Later on, John B. Watson, the father of American Behaviourism made four assumptions about radical behaviourism:

(a) Evolutionary continuity: the laws of behaviour are applied equally to all living organisms.
(b) Reductionism: all behaviours are linked to physiology.
(c) Determinism: biological organisms respond to outside influences.
(d) Empiricism: only one action is observable evidence of our personality.

All behaviourists focus on observable behaviour. Thus, there is no emphasis on unconscious motives, internal traits, introspection or self-analysis. Behaviour modification is a form of therapy that applies the principles of learning to achieve changes in behaviour.

1.4.4 Determinants of Personality

Human being’s personality is a product of one’s genetic endowment and cultural environment. Differences in individual personalities are caused because the possibilities within one self are different and the provision of raw materials and appropriate conditions of stimulation by the environment vary widely. Broadly, the factors affecting personality can be divided into two classes:
Heredity

Genetics or the science of heredity is a discipline contributing specific details of the impact of heredity on living beings. Basically, we inherit a tendency toward a certain structure and a tendency to function in certain ways. Specially, these include the following:

(A) Tendency towards a certain structure includes the following behaviours:
(i) A tendency to achieve a certain body-weight.
(ii) A tendency towards a general body-type (i.e. skeletal structure, proportion of fat and muscle-tissue, and the length of limbs).
(iii) Appearance, i.e., skin, hair texture and colour, eye shape and colour, nose shape, ear shape, head shape.
(iv) Internal structure, for example, the size of the heart and lungs in proportion to the body, determining the capacity for prolonged physical effort.

(B) Tendency to function in certain ways includes the following behaviours:
(i) Natural response, i.e., the functioning of the nervous system, intelligence, predisposition to react slowly or quickly.
(ii) Sensory efficiency, i.e., keenness of vision, range of hearing, sensitivity of touch and smell.
(iii) Operation of the vegetative system, i.e., heart and circulatory system, digestive system, reproductive system etc.
(iv) Functioning of the endocrine system, i.e., glandular secretions, e.g., the thyroids control the metabolic rate, the pituitary controlling growth, gonads controlling the sex-drive and sex characteristics and the adrenals controlling emotional stir-ups.
(v) Rate of physical growth
(vi) Predisposition to certain characteristics.

Finally, it must be added that the effects of heredity on temperamental quality are not fatalistic as these are on the structural tendency. Medical and surgical interventions are being invented continuously to bring the functioning of hereditary systems and mechanisms under control.
(II) **Environmental Factors**

As the child grows, one faces and deals with several environment factors. The child gradually grows in complexity, supporting or contracting various factors as the environment may be of varying kinds. Some of the environmental factors to see how they affect the growing personality of an individual are discussed below:

(i) **Rearing patterns:** Interactions between the infant and mother for satisfaction of biological needs play a significant role in personality development. Care and affection develops a sense of security. Regularity in feeding practices would develop in the child basic trust in the world, irregularity would yield mistrust. Similarly, toilet-mining severity may cause the child to grow into a doubting and shameful person, training at ease develops autonomy.

(ii) **Parent-child interaction:** Once the child grows free of the needs of the mother, parent-child interactions assume social dimensions. Through the interactions, both the individual psyche and the social psyche are communicated to the child and the child develops in one’s individual self and social self. The process of social self can be understood if we look at the differences in children in a nuclear and a joint family. Generally, a nuclear family is over indulging, self-centred, introvert and isolated while a joint family is social, extrovert, and accommodating. Much of the child’s personality seems to be determined by the social class of the family. Generally, middle-class parents tend to develop in their children a sense of self-direction, the power of decision-making and an attitude that the situations or environment can be changed by manipulative efforts. Parents in lower-class homes do not have experience of building independence and controlling the behaviour of the child. The children of such families develop an attitude that the situations or environment are given and cannot be changed, thus a kind of external locus of control is built.

(iii) **Sibling relations:** Another environment is built in homes by brothers and sisters, called siblings, supporting and frustrating each other. Research studies have revealed that a siblingless only child tends to become overprotected and self-centred unless the parents deal with the child differently. The eldest child happens to be overtaxed by the aspirations and the demands of the parents. Children in intermediate positions have mixed experiences and vary in their personalities more. The youngest child is never deprived of the affection of parents.

(iv) **Neighbourhood:** The neighbourhood provides the first exposure of the larger cultural environment to the child. The characteristics of neighbourhoods are that they are more
objective than parents, treat the child as a person and therefore they are both less approving and less critical and with different emphasis in child-behaviour.

(v) Peer group: With the peer group, the child learns to take turns, to suppress one's wish in favour of the decision of the group, to organise one's activities with the activities of the group and with the desire to be accepted, one moulds one's behaviour to the standards set by the group which suggests to him continually what would please the group members.

(vi) School: The school is aimed to inculcate in one the behaviour patterns required in adulthood. The school environment makes one learn punctuality, regularity and scheduling by conditioning through the bell when to arrive, when to study various subjects, when to play and when to leave for home.

(vii) Cultural influence: Customs and traditions also have a greater significance in the personality development of the child. Each culture has its own standards of approved personality patterns. Children are socialized by teaching them, by formal or informal means, the approved ways of thinking, feelings and behaving which are the characteristics of that culture. Thus, to be well adjusted in any cultural group, the individual must accept the approved cultural norms as one's own standard.

(viii) Mass media: The different types of mass media like radio, television, newspaper, magazine and comics etc. communicate to the child the styles of the various sub-cultures in the total culture. This variety makes the child aware of other forms, objects and styles.

Hence, it can be said that each individual has one's own typical style and distinct behaviour. This quality of one's behaviour constitutes to shape the one's personality i.e., feelings, value reactions, prejudices, attitudes and perception etc. Some spiking qualities and traits which differ one from others like appearance, aggressiveness or pleasant manners etc. are not the points that make up the personality of an individual. So, personality pervades every aspect of human life and influences every aspect of behaviour.

1.5 Emergence of the Problem

Adolescence is the most important period of human life during which the young individual develops physically, intellectually, mentally, socially and emotionally. It is a period of great excitability and turbulent emotions. The individual is faced with a perennial conflict in all spheres of life. So, it is crucial time to draw out attention towards the youngsters so that they
can develop positive and healthy attitude towards life. Educationists are always interested to study different problems of school going population especially of adolescents. One of the most challenging problems of adolescents faced by educationists today is that of accurate prediction of their learning outcomes. In the past, too, this problem had drawn the considerable attention of educational researchers. But now-a-days, this is assuming special and greater significance as the society is advancing industrially and technologically and the structure of education is growing more and more complex.

Parents, guardians, teachers, educationists, institutions and society at large are concerned about how best to enhance academic standards and achievement. Knowledge of factors that influence learners' success has important implications for learning and education. Many educators, e.g., are interested in knowing beforehand who will perform well and who will perform poorly, in academic progress. It has been realized that there is a need to go beyond the traditional criterion of academic success. So, one way of fostering strong learning performance is by encouraging students to become involved in both academic as well as non academic activities.

Students should be engaged in intellectually and socially satisfying activities so that they can become confident enough to forge ahead in their thinking on the basis of information, facts, clues and concepts. It should be kept in mind that cognitive and non-cognitive abilities are very much related. In fact, emotional and social skills actually help in improving cognitive functioning. Positive emotions and feelings, different thinking strategies and balanced personality etc. help students give their best potential in the classroom. The students who are aversive and think negatively cannot concentrate for a long time and have more difficulty in reaching their potentials than others. Thus, keeping in mind these points, the present problem is selected for the investigation.

1.6 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
The problem selected for investigation is stated as under:

“A STUDY OF LEARNING OUTCOMES OF ADOLESCENTS IN RELATION TO THEIR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, METACOGNITION AND PERSONALITY TRAITS.”
1.7 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study is conducted to achieve the following objectives:

1. To study the relationship between learning outcomes and emotional intelligence of adolescents.
2. To study the relationship between learning outcomes and metacognition of adolescents.
3. To study the relationship between learning outcomes and personality traits of adolescents.
4. To study and compare the learning outcomes, emotional intelligence, metacognition and personality traits of male and female adolescents.
5. To study and compare the learning outcomes, emotional intelligence, metacognition and personality traits of rural and urban adolescents.
6. To study and compare the learning outcomes, emotional intelligence, metacognition and personality traits of adolescents studying in government and private schools.
7. To study and compare the learning outcomes, emotional intelligence, metacognition and personality traits of adolescents of arts and science stream.
8. To study and compare the interactional effect of gender, locale, type of school and subject streams of adolescents on their academic achievement, emotional intelligence, metacognition and personality traits.

1.8 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF THE TERMS USED

The operational definitions of the different terms used in the study are given below:

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Academic achievement is the aggregation of marks obtained by the students in different school subjects.

NON-ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Non-academic achievement is the performance of the pupils in different activities in school apart from academic or scholastic activities.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence is the ability to understand the emotions and their causes, the capability to regulate these emotions effectively in oneself and others. It also includes the ability to use
the emotions as a source of information for problem solving, being creative and dealing with social situations.

**METACOGNITION**

Metacognition is the ability to evaluate one's own comprehension and understanding of subject matter and using that evaluation to predict how well one might perform on a task.

**PERSONALITY TRAITS**

Personality traits refer to the relatively enduring characteristics or behaviour that enables a person to be recognized as an individual distinct from the others. These are habitual patterns of behaviour, thoughts and emotions.

1.9 **DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Delimiting the study to a portion or part of the problem is important considering the limitation of time and resources available to a researcher. The term ‘delimitation’ means eliminating certain aspects of the problem that are not included in the study. It sets limits or boundaries for the study. The following are the delimitations and constraints of the study:

(i) The study is restricted to adolescents studying in class 10+2 only, e.g., 12th class.
(ii) The number of students taken for the present study is 1000 only.
(iii) The study is confined to only three districts in Punjab, viz. Ludhiana, Moga and Jalandhar.
(iv) The study is restricted to only arts and science students of class 10+2.

1.10 **SCHEME OF THE CHAPTERS**

In the present study, material is organized and divided into five chapters. The first chapter contains introduction of different variables under study. The second chapter has been devoted to the review of related studies and hypotheses on which the present study has been advanced. The third chapter deals with the methodology employed for designing the study, sampling, data collection and using statistical techniques etc. Analysis and interpretation of the data has been given in the fourth chapter and the fifth chapter includes summary, conclusions, educational implications and suggestions for further research. At the end, the bibliography is given.