CHAPTER-1
INTRODUCTION

Good parenting is more than intellect. Good parenting involves emotions. In the last few decades, science has discovered a tremendous amount of studies about the role emotions play in our lives. Researchers have found that more than IQ, emotional awareness and ability to handle feelings will determine success and happiness in all walks of life, including family relationships. The ability to be aware of emotions as to how and why emotions affect behavior, good interpersonal relationships, stress free living, managing one’s feelings and the feelings of others, all these factors attain equal importance. These skills are also prerequisites to effective living. Emotional intelligence has been found to influence important life outcome as emotional well being (Baron 2000), competency in workplace and society (Finnegon 1998), success in life (Goleman 1995) and positive outcome (Mayer and Salovey 1997).

Emotionally intelligent parenting means being aware of their children's feelings, and being able to empathize, soothe, and guide them about emotional management. Emotional intelligence in children means the ability to control impulses, delay gratification, motivate themselves, read other people's social cues, and cope with life's ups and downs. A growing body of research suggests that helping children to develop good social and emotional skills makes a big difference in their long-term health and well-being. Studies have shown that children’s social and emotional functioning and behaviors begin to stabilize around the age of eight and can predict the state of their behavior and psychological health later in life. In other words, if children learn to express emotions constructively and engage in caring and respectful relationships either before or while they are in their lower elementary school, they are more likely to avoid depression and other behavior problems as they grow older. When social and emotional skills are taught and mastered, it helps children to succeed in school and in all avenues of life. Numerous studies have found that young people who possess social and emotional skills are in fact happier, more confident, and more capable as students, family members, friends, and workers (Gottman, 1997). Social and emotional learning makes children healthy, optimistic, and socially competent. Considering that parenting influence so many emotional characteristic of children, it makes sense to believe that emotional intelligence of parents also influence the development of social competence and optimism in their children. However there is derth of systematic research in this area specially in Indian context. The present study tries to find out whether the emotional intelligence of primary care givers affects optimism and social competence of children? Although Emotional Intelligence has not been linked directly to optimism and social competence; Emotional Intelligence is an enduring resource that facilitates a wide range of positive developmental outcomes.
1.1 **Parent’s Influence On Emotional And Social Developement Of Children**

Parents are typically regarded as the primary agent of socialisation of their children’s development in multiple domains (Grusec and Davidov, 2007; Harkness and Super, 2002), including children’s emotional competence (Eisenberg, Cumberland, and Spinrad 1998; Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers, and Robinson, 2007). One important aspect the way parents socialise their children is through their own expressiveness (Halberstadt, Cassidy, Stifter, Parke, and Fox 1995). In one study, mothers’ positive expressiveness was associated with increase in children’s empathy two years later (Zhou, 2002). In addition children’s early emotional development at age three is found to be related to mothers’ expressivity. Moreover Children also influence the emotional socialization environment (Cole and Tan, 2007; Eisenberg, 1998). In another study, preschool children exposed to higher negative expressiveness in the home were found to be victimized by peers and aggressive in first grade (Burk, 2008). Another research has found that children’s negativity and aggression relate to increase in parental negativity and decreases in emotional support over time (Verhoeven, Junger, Van Aken, Deković, and Van Aken, 2010; Zadeh, Jenkins, and Pepler, 2010).

Parent-child interaction influence child’s temperament and personality development. In addition, parental involvement, emotional regulation and social referencing affect the emotional stability of children (Hay and Ashman, 2003). Studies found that parents who are accepting of their
children, grant them more autonomy and implement higher levels of behavioral control in terms of rules and guidelines, have the children who display higher levels of behavioral self-regulation, maturity, identity, and work orientation (Bornstein, 2002).

Moreover parent’s influence the development of maturity and drive. Aunola, Nurmi, Lerkkanen, and Raku-Puttonen (2003) found in a study that a parent’s belief in his or her child’s academic success influenced the child’s success and drive to excel.

The social relationship a child has with his or her parents directly correlates with the relationships and social behavior the child will have in his or her life. The attachment a child has with his or her parents determines his or her social development. Ainsworth (1978) has classified three main forms of attachment a child has with his or her parents: secure, avoidant and ambivalent. A child who has a secure attachment with his or her parents is more resilient, empathetic, and self-knowledgeable, has a higher self-esteem and is more curious. Individuals who have secure attachments to parents and other family members will transfer this level of security, trust and support to peer relationships as well (Cui, Conger, Bryant, and Elder, 2002). The relationship between parents and their child will also influence different aspects of his or her social development. For example, when a child is very young, the child will look to parents to see how to respond to ambiguous situations as a form of social referencing. In this manner, the child learns proper social behavior from imitating the behavior of the parents (Papalia, 2002). Miller, Diorio,
and Dudley (2002) found that children whose parents were responsive, controlling, and involved were less likely to respond to conflict with violence than children whose parents were not involved as much. The children who were likely to respond to conflict with violence had parents who were inconsistent in discipline approach (Miller, 2002).

In addition, parents also influence the people, the child interacts with and the child’s peer group. Parke and Bhavnagri (1989, as cited in Collins, Maccoby, Steinberg, Hetherington and Bornstein, 2000) found that parents influence their child’s peer experience through managing the child’s social activities. In addition, they found that parents influence the child’s attitudes, values, personality, and motives which in turn affect the child’s interactions with peers.

Parents influence their child’s response to peer pressure. A child whose parents are responsive and demanding is less influenced by peer pressure in antisocial behavior such as using drugs, alcohol, and participating in sexual relations (Collins, 2000). Furthermore, responsive and demanding parents instill traits and qualities in their children that inhibit their susceptibility to negative forms of peer pressure. Authoritative parents tend to be responsive, demanding, accepting and emphasize discussion and interaction influence the development of their child in a positive manner.

The above research is backed by number of theories which suggest the importance of parents influence on the psycho-social development of child.
1.2 Theoretical Foundation For Parents Influence

- **Relational psycho-analysis**

Relationlists Mitchell, (1988 ) argue that personality emerges out of the matrix of early formative relationships with parents and other figures that we consider primary care givers. Mitchell, argue that the primary motivation of the psyche is to be in relationships with others. As a consequence early relationships, usually with primary caregivers, shape one's expectations about the way in which one's needs are met. Individual’s attempt to recreate these early learned relationships in ongoing relationships. This recreation of relational patterns serves to satisfy the individuals' needs in a way that conforms to what they learned as infants. This recreation is called an enactment. In addition the infant understanding of world is continually evolving and is influenced by the wishes, need, fantasy and fear of parents. As the child's cognitive and affective structure evolves, the child acquires an increasingly complex representation of physical, psychological and interpersonal world. The child development is largely influenced by parent’s perception, emotion and behavior. Parents can foster the child’s growth through the understanding of child’s need, thinking and feeling.

- **Social cognitive theory**

Social cognitive theory suggests that combination of social and psychological factors influence behavior. In this theory, Bandura proposes that modeling teach us behaviors, judgment, morality and help develop cognitive abilities (Bandura, 1989).
Bandura suggests that human development reflects the complex interaction of the person, the person’s behavior, and the environment. The relationship between these elements is called reciprocal determinism. A person’s cognitive abilities, physical characteristics, personality, beliefs and attitudes, influence both his or her behavior and environment. These influences are reciprocal. However person’s behavior can affect his feelings about himself and his attitudes and beliefs about others. Environment affects behavior and person’s behavior also contributes to his environment.

- **Vygotsky’s social development theory**

Social development theory was propogated by Russian Psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934). Major theme of his theory is social interaction with significant people in a child's life, particularly parents, but also other adults. The specific knowledge gained by children through these interactions also represented the shared knowledge of a culture. This process is known as internalization. As children get older, they internalized imagination, social rules and abstract concepts through which they can understand the world.

- **The Belsky process model**

Belsky 1984 pioneered theories of the processes of competent parenting. The model presumes that parenting is directly influenced by forces emanating from within the individual parent (personality), within the individual child and form the broader social context in which the parent child relationship is embedded. Specifically, marital
relations, social network and job influence individual personality, general psychological well being of parents and characteristics of the child and thereby parental functioning and in turn child development. Belsky found that parental personality and psychological well-being were the most influential of the determinant in supporting parental functioning.

- **Attachment theory**

Originating in the work of Psychiatrist and psychoanalyst John Bowlby (1969), attachment theory is a psychological, evolutionary and ethological theory that provide a descriptive and explanatory framework for understanding interpersonal relationship between human beings. Attachment theorist consider children to have a need for secure relationship with adult caregivers, without which normal social and emotional development will not occur. The central theme of attachment theory is that mothers who are available and responsive to their infant's needs establish a sense of security. The infant knows that the caregiver is dependable, which creates a secure base for the child to then explore the world. Bowlby shared the psychoanalytic view that early experiences in childhood have an important influence on development and behavior later in life. Our early attachment styles are established in childhood through the infant/caregiver relationship. Mary Ainsworth (1978) introduced the concept of secure base and developed a theory of a number of attachment patterns in infants; they were:
Secure attachment - A child who is securely attached to his or her caregiver will explore freely while the caregiver is present, will engage with strangers, will be visibly upset when the caregiver departs, and happy to see the caregiver return.

Anxious-ambivalent insecure attachment - A child with an anxious-ambivalent attachment style is anxious of exploration and of strangers, even when the caregiver is present.

Anxious-avoidant insecure attachment - A child with an anxious-avoidant attachment style will avoid or ignore the caregiver and show little emotion when the caregiver departs.

Findings from attachment with parents suggest that secure attachment relationships foster appropriate social behavior by promoting high levels of emotional awareness, empathy, positive expressiveness and low levels of negative dominant expressiveness (Laible, 2007)

- **The family system theory**

  The family system theory is introduced by Dr. Murray Bowen, 1978 that suggests that individuals cannot be understood in isolation from one another, but rather as a part of their family, as the family is an emotional unit. Families are systems of interconnected and interdependent individuals, none of whom can be understood in isolation from the system.
According to Bowen, a family is a system in which each member has a role to play and rules to respect. Members of the system are expected to respond to each other in a certain way according to their role, which is determined by relationship agreements. Family patterns develop within the boundaries of the system. Family member's behavior is caused by and causes other family member's behaviors in predictable ways. Maintaining the same pattern of behaviors within a system may lead to balance in the family system and to dysfunction.

- **Eric Erikson psychosocial development theory**

According to Erikson, psychological development proceeds from birth through old age in a series of developmental stages, each of which is partly dependent on successful completion of the prior stages, and each of which is also associated with a developmental crisis, a period of inner conflict with new developmental demand. The main elements of Erikson’s psychosocial stage theory is the development of ego identity. Ego identity is the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction. According to Erikson, our ego identity is constantly changing due to new experience and information we acquire in our daily interactions with others. In addition to ego identity, Erikson also believed that a sense of competence also motivates behaviors and actions. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which he sometimes referred to as ego strength or ego quality. If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy.
The bio-ecological model

Urie Bronfenbrenner, 1979 developed the ecological systems theory to explain how child’s environment affects a child growth and development. He labeled different aspects or levels of the environment that influence children’s development, including the micro system, the meso system, the exo system, and the macro system. The micro system is the small, immediate environment the child lives in. Children’s micro systems will include any immediate relationships or organizations they interact with, such as their immediate family or caregivers and their school or daycare. How these groups or organizations interact with the child will have an effect on how the child grows; the more encouraging and nurturing these relationships and places are, the better the child will be able to grow. Furthermore, how a child acts or reacts to these people in the micro system will affect how they treat him/her in return.

Bronfenbrenner’s next level, the meso system, describes how the different parts of a child’s micro system work together for the sake of the child. For example, if a child’s caregivers take an active role in a child’s school, such as going to parent-teacher meetings it will affect child’s overall growth. The exo system level includes the other people and places that the child him/herself may not interact with often, but still have a large affect on him/her, such as parents’ workplaces, extended family members, the neighborhood, etc. As it positively and negatively affect child’s physical needs. Bronfenbrenner’s final level is the macro system, which is the largest and most remote set of people
and things to a child, but which still has a great influence over the child. The macro system includes things such as the relative freedoms permitted by the national government, cultural values, the economy, wars, etc. These things can also affect a child either positively or negatively.

- **Broaden and build theory**

  The broaden-and-build theory is an exploration of the evolved function of positive emotions. It was developed by Barbara Fredricson, 1998. The broaden-and-build theory describes the form and function of a subset of positive emotions, including joy, interest, contentment and love. A key proposition is that these positive emotions broaden an individual's awareness and encourage novel, varied, and exploratory thoughts and actions. For example, joy sparks the urge to play, interest sparks the urge to explore, contentment sparks the urge to savour and integrate, and love sparks a recurring cycle of each of these urges within safe, close relationships in child's life. Positive emotions play a role in the development of long-term resource such as psychological resilience and flourishing. So, based on Broaden and build theory, parenting facilitate positive affects, which broaden the child's thought process which have implication for child's social and emotional development.

  Based on this theoretical background which suggest that parent-child interaction is determining in any child's life and their social-emotional development. This theoretical background gives us the foundation which support the role and importance parents play in the quality of development of their children. Parents are typically regarded as the
primary socializers and reinforcer of their children’s development in multiple domains. Researches reports that warmth, attachment and expression and regulation of positive emotions are the parenting variables which created the positive developmental outcomes in the children. Based on the above mentioned theories the researcher decided to choose emotional intelligence of primary care givers, in understanding its influence on children’s optimism and social competence.

These attributes are discussed in detail.

1.3 Emotional Intelligence

The term Emotional Intelligence was first used in 1960s in an incidental fashion in literary criticism (van Ghent, 1961) and psychiatry (Leuner, 1966). And the study and the measurement of EI take its inspiration from the work of psychometric pioneers as Binet, Thorndike, and Wechsler. Emotional intelligence from theoretical perspective refers specifically to the cooperative combination of emotion and intelligence (Ciarrochi, Chan and Caputi 2000, Mayer and Salovey, 1997, Roberts, Zeidner and Matthew 2001). EI is a member of a class of intelligence including the social, practical and personal intelligence that are called hot intelligence (Mayer and Mitchell, 1998). Hot intelligence operates on hot cognitions which deal with matters of personal and emotional importance to the individual (Abelson, 1963). According to Bar On (1997, 2000), emotional intelligence is the combination of certain inter related dimensions; intrapersonal abilities, interpersonal abilities, adaptability, and stress management abilities. Goleman (2006, 2007) described two types of
Competency for being emotionally intelligent; the first one was emotional competency and the second one was the social competency. Individual being aware of his own and the other's emotions and the successful management of them are called that person's emotional and social competence (Goleman, 2006). It was Salovey and Mayer in 1990 who co-formulated the phrase ‘Emotional Intelligence’ as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and other feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and use this information to guide one’s thinking and action."

1.3.1 The theory of emotional intelligence

The theory of emotional intelligence was developed by Mayer, Dipaolo, and Salovey (1990). They stated that different types of intelligence are often distinguished according to the kind of information on which they operate (Carroll, 1993; Horn and Cattell, 1966; Wechsler, 1997). Emotional Intelligence operate on hot intelligence that operate on social, practical, personal and emotional information (Ford and Tisak, 1983; Gardner 1983; Lee, Wong and Day, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2000). Intelligence represents the capacity to carry out abstract thoughts as well as the general ability to learn and adapt to the environment (Stenberg and Detterman, 1986; Terman, 1921; Wechsler, 1997). Emotions serve a functional purpose by assisting in the initiation, maintenance, modification, and termination of relationships between an individual and their environment (Campos, 1994). Emotions can also be interpreted as mechanisms of adaptation that help us identify what is detrimental or helpful to our well-being and general functioning (Lazarus

Emotional intelligence operates on emotional information. Each emotion gives a unique set of identifying signals which is called emotional information. This emotional information is conveyed through its own communication channels, as well as through a pattern of associated signals from perceptive and affective channels (Damasio, 1994; Izard, 1993, 2001; Scherer, 1993). It involves understanding of relationship among people. Emotional information and general language is differentiated with respect to degree of institutionalization. The institutionalization of information refers to the degree to which a culture recognize information as important, records its meaning and expertise in the area.

1.3.2 EI and its four branch ability model

In this model, emotion refers to a feeling state (including physiological responses and cognitions) that conveys information about relationships. For example, happiness is a feeling state that also conveys information about relationships - typically, that one would like to join with others. Similarly, fear is a feeling state that corresponds to a relationship - the urge to flee others.

In this model, intelligence refers to the capacity to reason validly about information. The four branch model of emotional intelligence describes four areas of capacities or skills that collectively describe many of areas of emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). The four branches are:
1. *Perceiving emotion.* The first branch involves nonverbal perception and expression of emotion in the face, voice and related communication channels (Buck 1984; Ekman and Friesen, 1975; Nowicki and Mitchell, 1998; Scherer 2001). Evolutionary biologists and psychologists have stated that emotional expression has evolved as a form of crucial social communication. Facial expressions such as happiness, sadness, anger, and fear, were universally recognizable in human beings. The capacity to accurately perceive emotions in the face or voice of others is crucial for understanding of emotions.

2. *Using emotions to facilitate thought.* The second branch is the capacity of the emotions to guide the cognition and promote thinking. Most emotional theories include a feeling component (Davitz, 1969; Schwarz, 1990) and many discuss the existence of distinctive physiological signs of some emotions. Intelligence involves developing a knowledge base about such experience on which the intelligence can draw (Mayer and Mitchell, 1998). Knowledge of the link between emotions and thinking can be used to direct one’s planning (Izards, 2001). Researchers have suggested that emotions are important for certain kinds of creativity and problem solving. Once a person can identify such messages and potential actions, the capacity to reason with, develops (Gross, 1998; Parrott, 2002).

3. *Understanding emotions.* The third branch reflects capacity to analyze emotions, appreciate their probable trend over time and understand their outcome (Lane, Quinlan, Schwartz, Walker, Zeitlin, 1990). Emotions convey information, and actions associated with those messages.
4. *Managing emotions.* It reflects the management of emotions, which necessarily involve the rest of personality. The emotions are managed in the context of the individual's goals, self-awareness and social awareness.

1.3.3 *Relationship of emotional intelligent parenting and child emotional development*

When we apply the dimensions of emotional intelligence to parenting it becomes emotionally intelligent parenting. According to John Gottman (1997) emotional intelligent parenting is to know our feelings well, to take our child's perspective with empathy, to control our impulses, to use social skills in carrying out our relationships. In the present study, we assume that if primary caregiver is emotionally intelligent, the same skill set, they will use for rearing their children.

It has been argued that in order to be an effective and adequate emotion socialization agent for their child, parents must have sufficient emotional understanding as well as the ability to effectively and adaptively manage their own emotions. Indeed, parental deregulated emotions may contribute to inappropriate emotional expression, which may, in turn, contribute to poor emotional developmental outcomes for children as well as deficits in the parent–child relationship (Dix 1991). For example, parents’ inappropriate contingent responses to their child’s emotional displays and parental difficulty in reverting back to a positive emotional state during family conflict are considered to be indicative of desregulated emotions. Such interactions have been associated with poor social, behavioral, and emotional competence in children (Carson and Parke 1996; Compton,
2003; Denham, 1997). While parents who express relatively high level of positive emotion and are supportive are likely to model constructive ways to manage stress and relationship, including the regulation of emotional response to stress (Power, 2004) and inappropriate behavior (Halberstadt, 1999). They also facilitate children’s regulation by promoting the predictability of the environment (Brody and Ge, 2001). Children imitate their parents’ modes of emotional regulation through the pathways of modeling and social referencing (Bridges, 2004; Denham 1998; Morris, 2007). Parent’s warmth and positive expressivity linked to secure attachment and emotional expression the mechanisms through which children learn to model their parents’ emotional regulation (Morris, 2007). Emotional expressiveness is important for social competence and peer acceptance (Denham, 1998; Saarni, 1999; Bretherton, 1995; Eisenberg, 1993). Moreover, parents who are accepting and supportive of their children with regard to encouraging them to talk about emotions, tend to rear children, who are relatively able to modulate their internal arousal (Gottman, 1997). It has been proposed that exposure to a varying range of emotions elicited in a socially appropriate manner enables a child to utilize adaptive and effective ways of regulating their own emotions

1.3.4 Emotional intelligence and residential mobility:

Residential mobility can be defined as frequent change in either in the same city, or between cities, state or community. When children and adolescents move several times during their short lives, they are asked to form a new set of friends and join a new group every few years. This can disrupt their social environment and routines (Adam, 2004; Pribesh and
Mobility presents enormous opportunities and challenges to individuals and to society. Opportunities in terms of their personal identity over time, these people come to base their identity more and more on their enduring skills, abilities, and traits rather than on their ever changing roles, memberships, and upbringing. Baumeister’s theory of societal changes also suggests that residential mobility is associated with increased centrality of the personal self and decreased centrality of the collective self. According to socio ecological model of the self the stability of individuals’ social environment shapes the ways in which they organize their self concepts. Their personal identities may be less susceptible to this change in their social environment. They need to create new social network which requires social and emotional competence. Therefore, we assume that residential mobility improves the emotional intelligence.

Mobility presents challenges to individuals as well. When individuals move to a completely new neighborhood or town from a place they have lived for an extended period of time, they are forced to uproot many of their long-term social relationships and asked to re-create social networks. This is not an easy task. And researchers have found residential mobility to relate with behavior problems. The negative association between residential mobility and well-being could be driven by the quality of social relationships. Previous research has shown that children who move frequently tend to do poorly in school and report more behavioral problems (Adam, 2004; Jelleyman and Spencer, 2008). Residential mobility and emotional intelligence in adulthood, have rarely been examined.
1.3.5 Emotional intelligence of primary care giver and their interaction with their children

The theory of emotional intelligence proposed by Salovey and Mayer (Mayer and Salovey, 1997) posits that the ability to recognize, understand, use, and manage emotions contributes to adaptation in various realms of life. Preliminary findings suggest that higher EI is related to positive outcomes such as prosocial behaviour, parental warmth, and positive peer and family relations (Mayer et al., 1999; Rice, 1999; Salovey, Mayer, Caruso, and Lopes, 2001). Emotions serve communicative and social functions, conveying information about people’s thoughts and intentions, and coordinating social encounters (Keltner and Haidt, 2001). During social interactions, verbal and nonverbal emotional expressions convey information about emotional abilities, including the ability to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotion. Emotion regulation facilitate social interaction, use of effective social interaction strategies, and executive functions associated with the coordination of numerous skills required for effective social behavior. In light of these considerations, we hypothesized that emotional intelligence is positively associated with better parent child interaction, relationship with child and expression of more positive and less negative emotions, and better emotional management. The way parents respond to their children’s emotional display has important implication for children’s socio emotional functioning. In the present study researcher has hypothesised that there will be significant difference between optimism and social competence of children in relation to emotional competence of their primary care givers.
1.4 OPTIMISM

One of the important roles of parents and caregivers is to help children develop a sense of wellbeing, and to build confidence and promote an optimistic view of the world in them. Optimism is positive attribution style. An attribution style (or explanatory style) is a specific way people explain the cause for different events in their life. With the parameters of stable, internal and global attribution style can be categorized between optimistic attribution style and pessimistic attribution style (Seligman, Abramson, Semmel and Von Baeyer, 1979). Optimism is an important attribute of adults and children who enjoy sound mental health and overall wellbeing. A number of studies have found better health and increased longevity in people with optimistic attribution style (Peterson, 2000; Peterson and Seligman, 1987). Optimism sits with qualities such as self-efficacy and self-belief in building resilience (Grotberg, 1995).

1.4.1 History of optimism – from learned helplessness to explanatory style

Learned helplessness was first described by Psychologist studying animal behavior (Overmier and Seligman 1967). These investigator Proposed that the dog had learned to be helpless. In their classic experiment dog has expectation of future helplessness that dog generalizes to new situation, to produce a variety of motivational, cognitive and emotional deficits. The deficit that follows is known as learned helplessness phenomenon. In later studies researcher showed that learned helplessness deficit can be undone by forcibly exposing a helpless animal to the contingency between behavior and outcome. They also found that previous exposure to
controllable events immunized people against learned helplessness. Similarly, forcible exposure to contingencies reversed helplessness deficits.

Lyn Abramson, Martin Seligman and John Teasdale (1978) reformulated the helplessness model as it applied to people by melding it with attribution theory (Kelley, 1973; Weiner, 1974). According to attribution theory, people ask themselves why uncontrollable events happen and then the way person answers, then sets the parameters for the subsequent helplessness. If the casual attribution is stable then induced helplessness is longlasting. If the casual attribution is global, then subsequent helplessness manifests across variety of situations; if specific, then it is correspondingly circumscribed. If the casual attribution is internal, the person's self esteem drops, if casual attribution is external it doesn't affect self esteem.

These hypotheses constitute the attribution reformulation of helplessness theory. In some cases, situation itself provided the explanation made by the person; in other cases the person relies on his/hers habitual way of making sense of event that occur, what is called one’s explanatory style. People tend to offer similar explanation for desperate bad or good events. Explanatory style has important influence on helplessness. An explanatory style characterized by internal, stable and global explanation for bad event has been described as pessimistic explanatory style and the opposite style, characterized by external, unstable and specific explanation for bad event has been described as optimistic explanatory style (Buchanan and Seligman 1995).
1.4.2 Theoretical background of attribution explanatory style

Attribution theory (Weiner) assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do, that is, interpret causes to an event or behavior. Attribution theory is mainly about achievement. According to theory, the most important factors affecting attributions are ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. Attributions are classified along three causal dimensions:

1. Locus of control (two poles: internal vs. external)

2. Stability (do causes change over time or not?)

3. Controllability (causes one can control such as skills vs. causes one cannot control such as luck, others’ actions, etc.)

When one succeeds, one attributes successes internally (“my own skill”). When a rival succeeds, one tends to credit external (e.g. luck). When one fails or makes mistakes, we will more likely use external attribution, attributing causes to situational factors rather than blaming ourselves. When others fail or make mistakes, internal attribution is often used, saying it is due to their internal personality factors.

1.4.3 Seligman’s theory of explanatory styles

According to Seligman (1995), an individual’s explanatory style is believed to be formed up until middle childhood, and becomes a lifelong habit unless there is some sort of explicit intervention to change the way the person thinks and talks to themselves. There are three crucial
dimension that any person uses to explain why any particular good or bad event happen to him: Permanance, Pervasiveness and personalisation. Seligman (1995) differentiates between optimistic and pessimistic explanatory styles in three ways:

- **Permanent vs. temporary**

  **Pessimistic view:** The worst outcomes will always happen and nothing will change the experiences. (It’s permanent.)

  **Optimistic view:** Sometimes things don’t go as planned but at the end things will work out OK. (It’s temporary.)

- **Global vs. specific**

  **Pessimistic view:** If someone fails in one thing, they will continue to fail in everything they try. (It’s global and affects all areas of their lives.)

  **Optimistic view:** If someone fails in one thing, there will always be other opportunities for them to succeed. (It’s specific to a situation and does not affect other areas of their lives.)

- **Internal vs. external**

  **Pessimistic view:** When things go wrong for someone, it must be because they themselves are the cause. (It’s internal.)

  **Optimistic view:** When things go wrong, there can be many reasons, and it’s not necessarily their own fault. (It’s external.)
Children learn their explanatory style from parents and teachers. They listen to how adults criticize them and absorb the style of the criticism as well as the substance. If someone criticizes their child for being lazy than not trying hard enough, child will believe not only he is lazy but that his failure comes from permanent and unchangeable factors. Also children listen closely to the way parents interpret their own misfortunes and model their style. If parents are pessimistic, child will learn pessimism directly from parents.

1.4.4 Factors influencing explanatory style

- **Genetics**: Researchers have found that there are some potential genetic influence while several studies indicated that it was partially determined by environmental influence (Dweck and Gillard 1975; Saligman, 1984). Schulman, Keith and Seligman (1993), found that explanatory style of monozygotic twins were more highly correlated than dizygotic twins. These does not mean that there is an optimistic gene but genes influence such attributes such as intelligence and physical attractiveness, which in turn lead to more positive outcome in the environment, which in turn may encourage a more optimistic explanatory style.

- **Helplessness experience**: Experiencing a significant trauma; death of parents, sexual trauma, divorce of parents are catastrophized in to permanent and pervasive losses and leads further extraordinary helplessness and failure. If they overcome the events during childhood, the individual may learn that event are temporary and solvable but if negative experience can’t be overcome their generalize more long term negative consequence (Manly, Kim, Rogosch and Cicchetti, 2001).
1.4.5 **Outcome of positive explanatory style in children**

- **Resiliency**: One possible outcome of positive explanatory style is resiliency. It is assumed that resilient individual have positive explanatory style that allow them to continue to pursue their goal despite the obstacle. It is also found that promotion of competence and self efficacy is the key to effectively overcome the negative life events.

- **Self efficacy**: Positive explanatory style tend to manifest itself in action. Individual with Positive explanatory style explain things in positive manner and also able to act upon them. If individual do not have confidence in themselves they may have difficulty acting on their positive beliefs. Individual with Positive explanatory style are more likely to make positive choices and continue to strive for their goals because they believe they will be able to achieve them (O’Brian, 2003).

- **Social status and social competence**: Explanatory style influence social status of children with peers. According to social comparison theory, self concept and perception of self competence are formed with social comparison with others (Crabtree and Rutland, 2001). Thus children with negative explanatory style have poor self esteem while children with positive explanatory style have good interpersonal relationship (Rubin, Coplan, Nelson, Cheah and Lagace-Sequin 1999). In order to maintain good interpersonal relationship they exhibit prosocial behavior and deal effectively with conflict and negative emotions (Denham, Mason, Caverly, Schmidt, Heckney, Caswell and Demulder, 2001). Individual with Positive explanatory style may have
effective conflict resolution and emotional regulation. These skills make them more social competent and socially accepted in the group. This acceptance from peers and positive social interaction contribute to the favorable self concept. Popular children are more likely to accurately perceive and interpret social behavior of others in group (Brendgen, Little and Krappman, 2000). Which again contribute to their social competence. Social Competence and social support promote positive affect and self esteem as well as provide a buffer against environmental stressor. Thus in the present study it is expected that if children have positive explanatory style it will lead to social competence in children.

1.4.6. Parenting influence on optimism:

Parents influence their children directly by means of their genes, beliefs, and behaviors as well as indirectly by means of their influences on one another and the multiple contexts in which they live. Explanatory style of children can be affected by parents through simple modeling. Children are most likely to imitate those whom they perceive as powerful and competent and most parents fit this description (Bandura 1977). Children are attuned the way in which their parents interpret the world. Saligman and Colleagues have found that childrens positive explanatory style was corelated with their mothers not with their fathers (Saligman, Peterson Alloy, Kaslow, Tanenbaum and Abramson, 1984). This finding related to the fact that mothers play the role of primary caregiver instead of fathers. Another type of parental influence involves parents interpretation of their children’s behavior. The way parents make the statement about an event to
children influence the explanation children develop for viewing themselves and their environment. When children hear their mothers make permanent, personal and pervasive statement about an event children may develop views around that only. Criticism implying pessimistic causes have cumulative effect on how children view themselves (Peterson and Park, 1998; Seligman 1990).

Another type of parental influence is indirect which says, children from happy and supportive homes are more likely to have optimistic explanatory style (Franz, McClelland, Weinberger and Perterson 1994). This finding follows from the fact that parental encouragement and support diminish fear of failure and enable children to take the risk necessary to find and pursue their real interest and talents which leading to success and confidence. Also, it reinforce further expectation for success. Thus optimism is fostered through a series of confidence building experiences. Optimists tend to rely on active, problem-focused coping when faced with stressful life events, whereas pessimists tend to disengage when situation becomes too stressful (Nes and Segerstrom, 2006; Scheier and Carver, 1992). The findings suggest that individuals with higher levels of optimism have better skills for dealing with stress and challenges of parenting. Studies by Brody and colleagues (Brody and Flor, 1997; Brody, Murry, Kim, and Brown, 2002) demonstrated that mothers with more optimistic outlooks and higher self-esteem are more likely to use competence-promoting parenting practices, which predict higher child cognitive competence, social competence, and psychological adjustment in
the children. Jones, Forehand, Brody, and Armistead (2002) found that maternal optimism was associated with positive parenting, and that positive parenting was associated with lower internalizing and externalizing child behaviors in inner-city, single-parent, African American families. Taylor and colleagues found that maternal optimism predicted lower levels of maternal internalizing symptoms, higher levels of child adjustment, and moderated the relation between economic stress and internalizing symptoms in single-parent African American mothers (Taylor, Larsen-Rife, Conger, Widaman, and Cutrona, 2010) as well as single and two-parent Mexican-origin families (Taylor, 2012). Optimism contribute to the quality of parent–child relationships. Hjelle, Busch, and Warren (1996) reported that dispositional optimism was positively correlated with maternal warmth and acceptance, and negatively correlated with aggression, hostility, neglect, indifference, and rejection during middle childhood. Kochanska (2007) found that optimistic parents remained warm and affectionate toward their children despite experiencing high demographic risks, whereas demographic risk decreased positive parenting for those with lower levels of optimism. Based on the literature review we assume that emotionally intelligent primary care giver will positively influence optimism in their children as emotional intelligence improve the expression, warmth, stress management, parent child relationship and their own optimism. The present study hypothesised that emotional intelligence of primary care giver will positively influence the optimistic explanatory style in their children.
1.5 SOCIAL COMPETENCE

Socially competent individual make use of environmental and personal resources to achieve good developmental outcome (Water and Sroufe 1983). Social competence refers to the social, emotional, and cognitive skills and behaviors that children need for successful social adaptation. The skills and behaviors required for healthy social development vary with the age of the child and with the demands of particular situations. Kostelnik, Whiren, Soderman, and Gregory (2006) defined social competence as children’s ability to recognize, interpret, and respond appropriately in a given sociocultural context. With social competence children develop perception of their own behavior. Social Competence has been conceptualized as a complex, multidimensional construct that consist of variety of behavioral and cognitive characteristic and emotional adjustment that are required to develop social relation and obtaining desirable social outcomes.

The ability to master social competencies is considered a primary developmental task for young children (Coolahan, Mendez, Fantuzzo, and McDermott, 2000) and is the most important accomplishments of early and middle childhoods for most children (Bracken, Keith, and Walker, 1994). In discussing children’s social development in early childhood, Howes and James (2004) made the premise that all children regardless of their races, family classes, and home languages will develop social competence. However, there are variations in child social competence and
the variability has rampant implications. Research has shown socially competent children are more successful in their interactions with others and more satisfied with life than their less competent peers (Kostelnik et al., 2006). In addition, successful development of social competence in the early childhood years predicts later personal psychological well-being, interpersonal relationships, and social adjustment during adolescence and adulthood (Hartup and Stevens, 1999; Parker and Asher, 1987). In contrast, socially incompetent children are frequently rejected by their peers, have low self-esteem, and perform poorly academically (Crockenberg, Jackson, and Langrock, 1996). Even worse, they are at risk of continuing the problematic behavioral patterns as they mature and of becoming involved in juvenile delinquency (Ladd, 2000).

Characteristics related to Social Competence that are reflective of cognitive and emotional adjustment includes effortful control (the ability to inhibit or initiate a behavior purposefully; (Rothbart and Bates, 2006), resiliency (Spinrad et al., 2006), social-information processing (the ability to appropriately encode a social message and respond prosocially; (Crick and Dodge, 1994), emotion knowledge (the ability to identify emotion in oneself and others; (Denham, 2003), and emotion expressiveness (the ability to accurately express activated emotions; (Denham, 2003).

Several other construct that have a strong relationship to the domain of social competence are:
• **Adaptive Behavior**: adaptive behavior as defined by the *American Association On Intellectual And Developmental Disabilities* (AAIDD, 2008) is “the conceptual, social and practical skills that people have learned to be able to function in their everyday lives” (p.2). Adaptive behavior is a developmental construct, given that expectations for independent and responsible behavior vary, depending on mental and chronological age (AAIDD, 2008; Reschly, 1990).

• **Social Skills**: Social skills is that specific behavior that, when initiated, lead to desirable social outcomes for the persons initiating them. Social skills is a term used to describe the child's knowledge of and ability to use a variety of social behaviors that are appropriate to a given interpersonal situation and that are pleasing to others in each situation. Social skills assume that these behavior that are repeatable and goal directed (Spitzberg 2003). The capacity to inhibit egocentric, impulsive, or negative social behavior is also a reflection of a child's social skills. Children who have a wide repertoire of social skills and who are socially aware and perceptive are likely to be socially competent. Social competence is the broader term used to describe a child's social effectiveness--a child's ability to establish and maintain high quality and mutually satisfying relationships and to avoid negative treatment or victimization from others. From a behavioral standpoint, initiation of social skill increase the probability of reinforcement and decrease the probability of punishment or extinction based on ones social behavior (Gresham and Reschly, 1987).
Peer Relations: Peer relations is often considered to be a result of one’s social skills, as social reputation and quality of one’s social relations are result of how effectively one interact socially with peers (Landau and Milich, 1990; Oden and Asher, 1977). Positive peer relations are linked with peer acceptance, whereas negative peer relations are linked with peer rejection. There are obvious cultural variations of child social competence (Rubin and Chung, 2006; Schneider, 1993). The salient changes for children in the age period of 6-12 years are: (a) their growing cognitive competence and the growth of knowledge in abstract representation of objects and events (Fischer and Bullock, 1984) and in adopting the perspectives of others (Dunn and Slomkowski, 1992), (b) their expanding social network incorporating extra familial adults and peers (Hartup, 1989), and (c) their increasing stable and comprehensive understanding of self-concept, self-regulation, and social responsibility (Damon and Hart, 1982). These underlying changes consequently alter the frequency, forms, types, contents, and impacts of interactions between the parents and their children. For example, parents are more likely to use elaborate explanations and justifications and less likely to employ distractions or admonishment than in the earlier years to make children follow their wills. Collins et al. concluded that middle childhood is a distinctive period of parenting and the four unique aspects of parenting tasks during this period are (a) adapting control processes for effective management of children’s behaviors, (b) fostering children’s self management and social responsibility, (c) facilitating children’s positive relationships with others, and (d) maintaining positive bonds and experiences outside of the family.
1.5.1 Models of Social Competence

Another way to conceptualize social competence is to consider underlying construct. Early models of social competence stress the role of context and situation specificity in operationalizing the competence construct. These models also allow for the organization and integration of the various component skills, behaviors and cognitions associated with social competence. These process models are context specific and seek to identify social goals and tasks associated with social competence.

- **Social information-processing model**

  A Social Information-Processing Model is by Crick and Dodge. This model focuses more directly on the cognitive processes underlying response selection, enactment, and evaluation. It has used a computer metaphor, and outlines a six-step nonlinear process with various feedback loops linking children's social cognition and behavior. Difficulties that arise at any of the steps generally translate into social competence deficits. The six steps are:

  1. Observation and encoding of relevant stimuli.
  2. Understanding what has happened during the social encounter, the cause and intent underlying the interaction.
  3. Determining what is the objective of interaction.
  4. Interaction is compared to previous situations stored in long-term memory and the previous outcomes of those interactions.
  5. Response decision/selection
  6. Behavioral enactment and evaluation
The quadripartite model

The essential core elements of competence are theorized to consist of four super ordinate sets of skills, abilities, and capacities:

1. Cognitive skills and abilities necessary for effective functioning in society.
2. Behavioral skills and the ability to enact them.
3. Emotional skills and affective capacities for facilitating socially competent responding and forming relationships.
4. An individual's value structure, moral development, motivation and sense of efficacy and control.

Tri-Component model

Cavell (1990) suggests a three tiered model.

1. The basic level is social skill or the specific ability that child uses within social situation. This level includes how the child responds to situation and how the situation is encoded. Cavell incorporate Crick and Dodge model into Social skill level of their construct.

2. The next level is social performance on how well the child performs in social situation. These levels incorporate the child style in interaction, the efficiency of the style and what situation may be problematic for child. Social Competence requires several different elements to be learned in order to understand the relationship between attribution of meaning, nonverbal cues and perspective taking.
3. The most advance level is called social adjustment. Social adjustment is where the child is developmentally on target for achieving appropriate social goals. The goals are conceived of as different "statuses" to be achieved by members of a society (e.g., health, legal, academic or occupational, socioeconomic, social, emotional, familial, and relational statuses). This level reflects how well the child meets the expectation of parents, teachers and society.

1.5.2 Elements of social competence

A key element of social competence appears to be facility with language and ability to have conversation. The ability to understand the world from another point of view is dependent on both language acquisition and child growing social understanding that is developed through conversation and interaction with others. Bruner 1998 suggest that children give meaning to what people do in relationship to their ability to learn language as well as accepted social practice within the culture. Language is socially obtained and parents and teachers provide model and scaffolding for child to learn (Vygotsky 1986). The knowledge the child develops about social interaction is through playing with the parents, social contact or responsiveness to verbal and social initiative by the parents. Mother’s warmth and affection also affect the social interaction. More verbal and non verbal interaction helps the child in understanding their own affective experience and other as well (Saarni1999). The belief, desire and need also expressed through language. Through language skills only the child is able to interpret social exchange. However when language skills are inconsistent with nonverbal cues, the child will rely on language cues rather than subtle facial expression or intent of speaker.
Another element of social competence has been found to be the ability to accurately send and receive emotional messages (Halberstadt 2001). A necessary skill to develop rewarding friendships and relationships include the ability to infer the emotional state of others. Understanding the emotional state of other person in the situation require encoding nonverbal cues including facial expression and gesture. The ability to understand and recognize facial expression appropriately allow the child to understand the others mood, reaction to their behavior and adept accordingly (Singh 1998). These skill develop early as in preschool years (Nowicki and Mitchell 1998).

Additional skill involved in social competence is the ability to learn to take another perspective, to manage one’s behavior and the ability to work cooperatively with others (Vaughn and Haager 1994). These skills are similar with executive functions which consist of ability that allows the child to evaluate his behavior, assess its appropriateness and make changes if required. Two components that are closely related to executive functioning to be involved in social interaction- problem orientation and problem solving skills (Shewchuck 2000). Problem orientation includes the schema a child has formed from past experience as well as his attribution for how the social world works. Problem solving skills are the strategies that are used to solve the problem or to understand the situation and to arrive at the most adoptive solution (Ciarrochi 2003).

Perspective taking is another skill important for social competence. Very young children see the world as revolving around them. As they develop, they begin to realize that other may not see an action or situation in the
same way as they do. It is also crucial to from social relationship. Most children develop the ability to analyze other viewpoint and able to step back from the situation and analyze it objectively (Woolfolk 2004). This skill is important for child to utilize adult cues and suggestion for changing behavior (Berk, 2002). Perspective taking also requires the child to understand another desire and belief. A Meta analytic study indicated that a child can correctly judge a person desire before belief (Wellman and Liu 2004).

1.5.3 Parenting and social competence:

The socialization practices of primary care giver influence whether their child will develop social competence. According to Hartup (1985), parents serve at least three functions in the child’s development of social competence.

- Parent–child interaction is a context within which many competencies necessary for social interaction develop. This relationship furnishes the child with many of the skills required for initiating and maintaining positive relationships with others, such as language skills, the ability to control impulses.

- The parent–child relationship constitutes emotional and cognitive resources that allow the child to explore the social and nonsocial environments. It is a safety net that permits the child the freedom to examine features of the social universe, thereby enhancing the development of problem-solving skills.
The early parent–child relationship is a forerunner of all subsequently formed extra familial relationships. It is within this relationship that the child begins to develop expectations and assumptions about interactions with other people and to develop strategies for attaining personal and social goals.

It’s through the parent-child relationship that the primary care giver teach about emotion and behavior, model positive emotional expression and behavior and reinforce children’s emotion and behavior. (Denham, Grant and Hamada 2002, Eisenberg, Cumberland and Spinrad 1998, Gottman, Katz and Hoovan 1997, Tomkin 1991). Association with parents in infancy is the first social experience of the child. They follow the caretaker reaction and began to understand that when their caretaker looks at an object with smile it’s and desired object. Development of social cognition related well to the later ability to understand another perspective. It is through this interaction that preschooler began to develop theory of mind construct and understand that there may be different thought and belief from themselves. Recent research (Hartup and Moore, 1990; Kinsey, 2000; Ladd and Profilet, 1996; McClellan and Kinsey, 1999; Parker and Asher, 1987; Rogoff, 1990) suggests that a child's long-term social and emotional adaptation, academic and cognitive development, and citizenship are enhanced by frequent opportunities to strengthen social competence during childhood. Child’s acquisition of skills such as language, cognition, motivation, and social competences are determined by the nature of parent-child interaction, especially mother-child interaction (Clarke-
High-quality parental responsiveness during infancy and toddlerhood is associated with important child outcomes, including social competence, language skills, and moral development (Kochanska, Aksan, and Joy, 2007; Landry, Smith, and Swank, 2006).

According to classic psychoanalytic theory, identification with a primary care giver allows the child to internalize the social and the moral standards of the parent. While according to Bowlby (1973) the early mother–child relationship lays the groundwork for the development of internalized models of familial and extra familial relationships. These internal working models were thought to be the product of parental behavior—specifically, parental sensitivity and responsiveness (Spieker and Booth, 1988). When an internal working model is that the parent is available and responsive, the young child would feel confident, secure, and self-assured when introduced to novel settings. Secure attachment has been viewed as a highly significant developmental phenomenon that provides the child with sufficient emotional and cognitive support to allow the active exploration of the social environment which leads to the development of problem-solving skills and competence in both the impersonal and the interpersonal realms (Rubin and Rose-Krasnor, 1992). From this perspective, then, the association between security of attachment in infancy and the quality of children’s social skills is attributed, indirectly, to maternal sources (Sroufe, 1988).

Alternatively, the development of an insecure infant–parent attachment relationship will develop an internal working model that interpersonal
relationships are rejecting or neglectful and opportunities for peer play and interaction are nullified by displays of hostility and aggression in the peer group (Bowlby, 1973). Which in turn, results in the lack of opportunities to benefit from the communication, negotiation, and perspective-taking experiences that will typically lead to the development of a normal and adaptive childhood.

The social learning theory model, predicts that parenting practices act to model, evoke, condition and selectively reinforce child social behavior, thereby influencing peer relations (Putallaz and Heflin, 1990). Indeed, parental praise, positive involvement, and demonstrations of affection and warmth predict children display of prosocial behavior (Brody and Shaffer, 1982), teacher ratings of child social competence (Atilli, 1989; Dekovic and Janssens, 1992), and low levels of child aggression at home and at school (Atilli, 1989; Pettit, Bates, and Dodge, 1993; Rothbaum, Schneider-Rosen, Pott, and Beatty, 1995).

Positive parenting practices involving warmth, affection, monitoring, and positive engagement influencing the social competence of children. Schilo, and Taylor (2013) found in European American (Conger and Conger, 2002), African American, and recent Mexican immigrant families (Leidy, Guerra, and Toro, 2010). Parent behaviors like warmth, affection, monitoring, and positive engagement predict optimal social and cognitive functioning of children (Smith et al., 2000), and are associated with improved academic performance and social skills with peers (Pettit, Bates, and Dodge, 1997).
1.5.4 Parenting attributes affecting social competence

- **Attachment**: The road of social competence begins in infancy, when the origins of social interaction (reciprocity, turn taking and synchrony) first appear (Harrist and Waugh, 2002). Task of social competency are achieved most readily when young children have caring adult whom they can turn. During first year consistent sensitive care giving perform number of important function including distress relief, sharing positive affect. Overtime experience with caregiver toddler build an internal working model of social relationship. Emotional security and its attendant working model form a foundation of social competency (Laible and Thompson 1998). Social experiences rest on the foundation of parent–child relationships, and are important in the later development of social skills and behaviors. Attachment of an infant to a care-giver is important for the development of later social skills and behaviors that develop social competence. There seems to be at least three important way in which mother–infant interaction might influence the development of infant’s competence (Ainsworth and Bell, 1971).

Maternal behavior might facilitate the development of abilities directly pertinent to an infant’s dealing with physical environment. For example, in course of being held by his mother, his adjustment of posture to the shift of position occasioned by her movement might well accelerate the acquisition of control over head and trunk musculature, which in turn would accelerate the development of locomotion,
exploration and manipulation of physical environment. In course of interacting with him with stimulating condition for play promote their inter coordination and general cognitive development. Even when she is not in interaction with him, she may provide interesting object for him to explore interesting facet of his environment. Baby’s experience with his mother may have an indirect effect on his dealing with rest of his world through affecting his confidence in her and confidence in himself. Trust in her is necessary condition for him to venture forth to explore the world. Confidence in himself, affected by his experience with her through fostering a sense of competence. Attachment helps the infant learn that the world is predictable and trustworthy or in other instances capricious and cruel. Ainsworth describes four types of attachment styles in infancy, including secure, anxious–avoidant, anxious–resistant and disorganized/disoriented. Children with secure attachment styles tend to show higher levels of social competence relative to children with unsecure attachment, including anxious–avoidant, anxious–resistant, and disorganized/disoriented. Thus attachment help to learn world is predictable and trustworthy and this bond allow venturing new interaction and new experience (Greenberg 1993, Speltz 1999, Van Ijzendoorn 1997).

Buss and Plomin 1984 suggest that children with moderate sociability and emotionality are generally securely attached infants. A recent study of relationship between attachment, temperament and theory of mind found that early mother-child relationship do contribute to the ability to
develop understanding of another’s point of view. Symons and Clark 2000 evaluated children at age 2 to 5, these children and mothers were assessed for attachment and maternal sensitivity. Findings were that maternal sensitivity and emotional distress at age 2 predicted how successful the child would be on perspective taking at age 5. Children who are resistant and who have parents who is demanding and dominating frequently develop anger (Matthews 1996). While those parents are supportive develop empathyand appropriate social functioning (Zhou 2002). This way mother’s temperament interact with child and when there is goodness of fit social competence develop more smoothly. When mothers difficulty compound with the child problem then child develop coping behavior that are not helpful to his social development.

A variety child rearing behavior have been linked to social competence with both direct and indirect effects ( Ladd and Pettit 2002) Studies have shown that babies whose parents are consistent and sensitive in their responses to distress are less irritable, less anxious, and better emotionally regulated. By contrast, parents who are inconsistent and insensitive to their infants' signals are more likely to have anxious, irritable babies who are difficult to soothe. These children may learn both to model their parents' insensitivity and to rely on intrusive, demanding behavior of their own in order to get attention. If they then generalize these socially incompetent behaviors to their peer interactions, peer rejection may result. Infants who are securely
attached to a parent are capable of using him or her as a secure base to explore their environment, are comforted by the presence of the parent in stressful situations, and trust the parent to care for them. Infants who are insecurely attached cannot rely on the parent to satisfy these same functions. Thus, attachment theory proposes that infants and toddlers who are secure will be able to explore their social environments more thoroughly and will become more socially competent children (Waters et al., 1979).

- **Parent’s emotional intelligence:** Parents model emotional regulation. Denham (2004) suggest that the first step in social development is the recognition of what emotion is being experienced and recognition of how others are responding to child. Moreover, the child must access previously learned rules of behavior and select most appropriate alternative. In order to accomplish all of these tasks, the child need to be able to process information smoothly and quickly and to use context to modify his behavior. So management of these emotions is important aspect of socialization. Children often require adult structure and support in order to regulate their emotions. Caretaker will provide limit setting as well as identifying the emotion the child is expressing and often suggesting a solution to problem. Parents will also often attempt to be proactive and structure the environment as well as limit the experience and stimulation a child has at certain time or emotional state. These coping skill and behavior management are eventually applied to similar situation as the child mature and understand the consequence of his action and emotion. Finally the child began to
understand his ability to modulate their emotion as well as the ability to interact with other. In this manner their ability to manage situation improves and child is able to choose appropriate reaction to varying environment.

- **Parents’ beliefs:** It seems reasonable to conclude that the more parents think it is important for their children to be socially competent, the more likely it is for them to be involved in promoting it. For example, Cohen (1989) reported that the more mothers valued and felt responsible for their children’s sociability, the more they tended to be involved in promoting their children’s peer relationships. Further, Rubin (1989) found that mothers who considered the development of social skills to be very important had children who were observed to demonstrate social competence in their preschools. These children more frequently initiated peer play, used appropriate kinds of requests to attain their social goals, were more pro-social, and were more successful at gaining peer compliance than their age mates whose mothers did not place a high priority on the development of social competence. Parents of socially competent children believe that, in early childhood, they should play an active role in the socialization of social skills by means of teaching and providing peer-interaction opportunities (Parke and Buriel, 1998). Parents whose preschoolers display socially incompetent behaviors (such as social reticence, hostility, aggression) are less likely to endorse strong beliefs in the acquisition of social skills. Furthermore, they are more likely to attribute the development of social competence to internal factors.
(“Children are born that way”), to believe that incompetent behavior, once attained, is difficult to alter, and to believe that interpersonal skills are best taught through direct instructional means (Rubin et al., 1989).

When a socially competent child demonstrates poor social performance, parents who place a relatively high value on social competence are likely to be the most involved and responsive. Over time, such involvement may be positively reinforced by the child’s acquisition of social skills. At the same time, parents are likely to value social skills displayed by their children, and these children will be perceived as interpersonally competent and capable of autonomous learning. Hence parental beliefs and child characteristics will influence each other in a reciprocal manner (Mills and Rubin, 1993).

- **Parents discipline style**: As children get older, the ways in which parents discipline may play a primary role in the development of social competent behaviors in children. In families where parents are extremely demanding and use inconsistent, harsh, and punitive discipline strategies, family interaction patterns are frequently characterized by escalation and conflict, and children often exhibit behavior problems. When children generalize the aggressive and oppositional behavior that they have learned at home to their interactions with peers, other children often reject them. Indeed, research has revealed that aggressive behavior is the common link between harsh, inconsistent discipline and rejection by peers. Parents
of popular children are typically more positive and less demanding with their children than parents of unpopular children. In addition, parents of popular children "set a good example" by modeling appropriate social interactions, and assist their children by arranging opportunities for peer interaction, carefully supervising these experiences, and providing helpful feedback about conflict resolution and making friends. Children who have problems making friends, those who are either "neglected" or "rejected" by their peers, often show deficits in social skills.

- **Parent’s interaction style:** Parent's interaction styles are related to peer relationship with warm style related to positive outcome and negative style to poor social outcome (Parke and O’Neill 1997). Furthermore positive maternal interaction style and sensitivity to child linked to social competence and over controlling maternal behavior or negative affect has been found related to poor peer acceptance and lower social skills (McDowell and Parke 2000, Olsen 2002). In addition to parent child interaction basic skill in relationship are learned within the parent child bond. The ability to manage affect and to solve problem are acquired in these early relationship and subsequently applied to later peer relationship. Skill such as emotional encoding and emotional understanding are related to peer competence and these skills are developed within family setting and later transformed to peer interaction. The ability and willingness to process emotion by parents for the child has been linked to child’s awareness and understanding of this emotion as well as developing constructive method for coping with
intense emotion (Denham 1998, Eisenberg and Fabes 1992). Wilson 1999 suggest that the ability to self regulate a child’s attention is cornerstone for emotional and cognitive response and indirectly influence social competence. These processes allow for the child to organize his experience and to manage the level of emotional arousal (Rothbart and Bates 1998).

Parents influence peer relationship at this age is through managing their child social lives and their interaction with friend (Parke 2004). Such monitoring has been found to be important for the development of appropriate social relationship. Dishion 1990 studied discipline style and level of monitoring and supervision, finding indicate that inconsistent and punitive discipline coupled with low level of supervision was related to rejection by child’s peers due to poor behavior control. Moreover an authoritative parenting style resulted in the need for less monitoring and less susceptibility to peer pressure.

Parents who provided one and more situation where the child interacted with peer outside of school environment had children who had more friendship and who were rated more socially adept (Kern 1998). Moreover parents who initiated several after school peer contact had children who were rated higher on pro social behavior and participated in more social interaction (Ladd and Hart 1992).

- **Parental stress**: Parental stress is a variable that has also been linked to children social competence. When there are several sources of stress social competence of child appear to be compromised (Sameroff 1998,
Shaw and Emery 1988). Stressed parents have been found to be more hostile and less nurturing and disruption in parenting is common. These difficulties have been related to poor peer relations including fewer close relationship and less perceived support (Brody and Flor 1997, Conger 1995). Similar to finding about stress affecting parenting and social competence studies found poverty and single parenthood also affect child social competence (Bates 2003).

- **Culture:** Cultural variation in beliefs and behaviors is always impressive, whether observed among different ethnic groups in one society or among different groups in different parts of the world. Cross-cultural comparisons show that virtually all aspects of parenting infants are informed by culture. An investigation of expected developmental timetables in new mothers from Australia versus Lebanon found that culture shaped mothers’ expectations of children much more than other factors, such as their experiences in observing their own children, comparing them with other children, and receiving advice from friends and experts (Goodnow, Cashmore, and Knight, 1985). Culture influences parenting patterns and child development from very early in infancy through such factors as when and how parents care for infants, the extent to which parents permit infants freedom to explore, how nurturant or restrictive parents are, which behaviors parents emphasize. Cultures vary in how they make socialization demands, what different aspects of development they see as critical for growth, and how developmental timetables are subjected to socialization pressure or left to unfold at their own pace (Deloache and Gottlieb, 2000).
• **Other Factors**: In addition to directly influencing the child peer relationship the number of social interaction the parents has with other adult also influence the child Social competence. Cochran 1990 found that more than 1/3 of young child’s peer relationship may be through the parent’s social contact. A parent’s friendship network was found related to child social competence (Parke 2004). The happier the parent was with their friendship the more positive the perception of child by peers. It was also found that the parental social relation were relate to children social competence. Father who did not enjoy social interaction with friends was more likely to have a child who was disliked by their friends. and aggressive mothers who were socially isolated also had children who avoid friendship and were withdrawn. These finding suggest that the parent influence the child not just by what he says and provide but also what the child observe as to parents social relationship and comfort with these interaction. The gender also affects social competence. Father who are more directive tend to have children with low social competence had more of an effect than that of mother who were equally directive (McDowell 2003). Moreover perceived rejection of the caretaker by the child is related to child later linking hostile intent of his peers (Cassidy 1996). These finding have been replicated in studies with various culture. Chen and Rubin 1994 found a link between childhood aggression and peer rejection to negative and punitive parenting practice while authoritative parenting was related to peer acceptance.
1.6 Rationale

The above literature review demonstrated that there is a need to investigate the parenting influence on child’s social competence and optimism in Indian culture. Mostly all research in this context have been carried out in American families in the United States. There is a dearth of research in Indian families in Indian context about the parents affecting social and emotional development of their children. Findings from the past research suggests that parenting style influence optimism and social competence of their children. Parents are regarded as the primary socialization agents and reinforcer of their children’s development in multiple domains (Grusec and Davidov, 2007; Harkness and Super, 2002), including children’s emotional competence (Eisenberg, Cumberland, and Spinrad 1998; Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers, and Robinson, 2007). In addition parenting dimensions like attachment, warmth, positive expressions is correlated with social competence and optimisms of children but emotional intelligence as parenting dimension is not correlated. Emotional intelligence is extensively researched in the past decades but only at work place. However parenting and emotional intelligence have been studied rarely. Thus prior research is not much indicative about the predictive ability of parents emotional intelligence on optimism and social competence of children. So the researcher has chose to investigate the influence of emotional intelligence of primary care givers on optimism and social competence of children. In order to see the emotional intelligence of parents, instead of taking both the parents as subjects of the research, the researcher has choose the primary care giver
as the primary subject to measure the emotional intelligence irrespective of gender of parent. As its primary care giver who influence the developmental process of their child.

According to John Gottman (1997), emotional intelligence parenting is to know our feeling well, to take our child perspective with empathy, to control our impulses, to use social skills in carrying out our relationships. When children imitate their parents’ modes of emotional regulation through the pathways of modeling and social referencing (Bridges, 2004; Denham 1998; Morris, 2007); it leads to positive developmental outcome. In addition; research has found that emotion regulation and use of effective social interaction strategies by parents are required for development of effective social behavior and optimistic attributional style. Emotional expressiveness is important for social competence, peer acceptance and optimism (Denham, 1998; Saarni, 1999). In light of these considerations, we hypothesized that emotional intelligence is positively associated with better parent child interaction, relationship with child, socio emotional development and expression of more positive and less negative emotions, and better emotional management. In the present study, the researcher has chose social competence as an outcome which reflect the social emotional development of children influenced by primary care giver.

Optimism is a attributional variable which affect the way children think and view the world. It also affect the social skills and peer relationship. Optimism and social competence are well corelated. However optimism has been rarely studied in relation with emotional intelligence of primary
care givers in indian context. So the present study focuses on the influences of emotional intelligence of primary care givers on optimism, and social competence of children.

Review of literature suggest that children’s social and emotional functioning and behaviors begin to stabilize around the age of eight and can predict the state of their behavior and psychological health later in life. Age seven to twelve is concrete-operational stage and during this stage, children begin developing cognitive operations and begin applying this new thinking to different events they encounter Pieget (1982). In addition, after ten years children get influence with other social agents like peers, which make it difficult to know the source of influence on their social competence and optimism. The present study has chose age of the children for the measurement of optimistic explanatory style and social competence as eight to ten years.

Studies have found that socio cultural stability presents enormous opportunities and challenges to individuals and to society. Opportunities in terms of their personal identity as over time, these people come to base their identity more and more on their enduring skills, abilities, and traits rather than on their ever changing roles, memberships, and upbringing. While studies have also found that children who move frequently tend to do poorly in school and report more behavioral problems (Jelleyman and Spencer, 2008). Present study attempts to investigate the local and mobile status of primary care givers on their emotional intelligence and optimism and social competence of children in Indian scanario.
To see the impact of socio-cultural background, the researcher has done a survey in two different cities (Hyderabad and Vadodara) in two different regions of India. The present study attempts to take into consideration the socio-cultural impact on the emotional intelligence of primary caretakers, social competence, and optimism of children.

A review of past studies highlighted that self-rated measures of emotional intelligence and performance measures of emotional intelligence were not strongly correlated (Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, & Salovey, 2006). Thus, to suffice the self-rated measure of emotional intelligence, the researcher has designed social exercise measures to observe parents’ child relationship and interaction, which reflect the emotional intelligence of primary caretakers, to supplement the information gathered through the questionnaire.

**1.7 Objectives:**

1. To investigate the relationship between primary caretaker’s emotional intelligence and the optimism and social competence of their children.

2. To investigate the relationship between dimensions of parental emotional intelligence, the optimism and social competence of their children.

3. To find out differences in the primary caretakers who are locally based and those who are residentially mobile on their emotional intelligence.
4. To find out difference between optimism and social competence of children of the locally based primary care givers and residentially mobile primary care givers.

5. To study whether the emotional intelligence of primary care givers affect parent-child interaction.

1.8 Research Hypotheses

1. H1- There will be significant difference between the children of primary care giver of high emotional intelligence and primary care givers with low emotional intelligence in terms of social competence.

2. H2- There will be significant difference between the children of primary care giver of high emotional intelligence and primary care givers with low emotional intelligence in terms of optimism.

3. H3- There will be significant difference in the emotional intelligence of local primary care givers and residentially mobile primary care givers.

4. H4- There will be significant difference in the social competence of children of local primary care givers and residentially mobile primary care givers.

5. H5- There will be significant difference in the optimism of children of local primary care givers and residentially mobile primary care givers.

6. H6- There will be significant difference between scores of emotional intelligence of primary care giver from the Hyderabad and Vadodara city.
7. H7- There will be significant difference between children from the Hyderabad and Vadodara city in their optimism score.

8. H8- There will be significant difference between children from the Hyderabad and Vadodara city in their social competence score.

9. H9- There will be significant positive correlation between children’s social competence, children’s optimism and primary care giver’s emotional intelligence.

10. H10- The emotional intelligence of primary care givers will significantly predict social competence of their children.

11. H11- The emotional intelligence of primary care giver’s will significantly predict optimism of their children.

The researcher also analyse and quantify the observation from the social exercise and on the basis of the response of parents regarding parents emotional intelligence affecting parent-child interaction.