REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Fatemeh & Fariborz (2012), in their research, no significant relationship was observed between the students of performing Arts and students of other fields of art in terms of total score in emotional intelligence and its subscales. But the difference was significant in terms of emotional intelligence profile scores. It is emotional intelligence that determines how to manage our behavior, how to deal with social problems, and how to make decision that will have positive results [7].

According to Sharma and Badhana (2012), the main objective of their work was to study the influence of emotional intelligence, Home Environment in the self-concept. The data seem to indicate that emotional intelligence & home environment is essential in building the self-concept. These findings tend to confirm the arguments of Schutte et al. (2002), who found a relationship between emotional intelligence and self-concept [5].
According to *Marc et al., (2011)*, scientific findings on emotional intelligence support the notion that emotions are functional when the information they provide is attended to, interpreted accurately, integrated into thinking and behavior, and managed effectively. According to emotional intelligence theory, the cognitive, physiological, and behavioral changes that accompany emotional responses are adaptive – these changes prepare us to respond to the event that caused the emotion to occur (Lazarus, 1991) [21].

According to *Ruchi Dubey (2012)*, it can be concluded that academic motivation is positively related to emotional intelligence and students differing with respect to academic motivation differ from one another on emotional intelligence [36].

According to *Philip et al., (2008)*, conclude that, when the evidence is considered in its totality, it seems clear that alleged intelligences, such as emotional, social, and personal and the like should be re-conceptualized as traits at the lower levels of mainstream personality hierarchies [31].

According to *Nurul Hudani Md Nawi et al., (2011)*, there is a fertile ground for conducting research on volunteerism from the psychological perspective. More research needs to be done to understand why Malaysians participate and, just as important, not participate in planned voluntary activities. We need more volunteers to contribute to the realization of the caring society vision [23].

According to *Poloma Maequez et al., (2006)*, examined relations between EI and important social and academic outcomes for high school students. The results support the incremental validity of EI and provide positive indications of the importance of EI in adolescent’s academic and social development [26].
According to M. O. Ogundokun et al. (2010), the fact that emotional intelligence is the strong predicator of academic achievements, it is necessary for the curriculum developers to integrate emotional intelligence into the school curriculum of secondary school [20].

According to Jessica Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2006), found self-esteem and emotional intelligence are potentially valuable predictors of socially desirable responding as they shared common variance in our study. Further, we found that over-claiming, a tendency toward over-emphasizing expertise and familiarity with topics, is not correlated with social desirability [16].

According to Natalio Extremera et al. (2006), the results of their study revealed two main findings that provided support for the incremental validity of self-reported EI in predicting psychological adjustment. First, consistent with their hypothesis, the ability to repair emotional states predicted various aspects of self-esteem in adolescents. Second, they found that self-reported EI is related to emotional adjustment [25].

According to Syeda Shahida Batool (2011), the results provide support to the notion that individuals with lower emotional intelligence are prone to poor physical and mental health and can’t cope with stressors [39].

According to John D. Mayer et al. (2000), it is easy to see why the popular version of emotional intelligence is appealing to policy makers. Popularizes of the concept have promised that raising students’ emotional and social competencies will improve their academic and lifelong pursuits, their interpersonal relationships, and the climate of schools and organizations [17].
Goleman (1995) suggested that emotional intelligence determines people’s potential for learning social skills. He said that there is good news and bad news today in terms of emotional intelligence. The bad news is that nowadays more and more people, particularly young people lack emotional intelligence. The good news is that people can learn and develop emotional intelligence at any time throughout their lives [11].

Wechsler (1940, 1943) proposed that non-intellective elements were present that were as essential to intelligence as were the cognitive aspects. He suggested that these factors were necessary for predicting a person's capability to be successful in life. Wechsler (1940, 1943) further defined intelligence as the global or composite capacity of an individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with the surroundings or situation [41].

Salovey and Mayer (1990) coined the term emotional intelligence and defined it as the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. In their model, five specific domains were described. The first domain of self-Awareness was described as self-observation and recognition of feelings as they occurred. In the second domain of managing emotions, appropriately handling feelings or the realization of what prompted a specific emotion were addressed. Also involved were finding ways to handle anger, anxiety, fear, and sadness. Motivating self-comprised the third domain and consisted of self-control, stifling impulses, or delaying gratification [37].

Greenstein (2001) conducted a study that looked at the successes and failures of eleven American presidents. They were assessed on six qualities: organization, communication, vision, political skill, cognitive style, and emotional intelligence. The results showed that emotional intelligence was the key quality that distinguished the successful (e.g., Roosevelt) from the unsuccessful (e.g., Carter) [12].
Rode, Mooney et al. (2007), it was predicted that emotional intelligence was related to academic performance for two reasons. First, academic performance involves a great deal of ambiguity (Astin, 1993), which has been shown to cause felt stress (Jex, 1998). Students are required to manage numerous assignments, adapt to the differing teaching styles and expectations of instructors, work independently toward objectives, and manage conflicting academic and non-academic schedules. In addition, some aspects of academic work may be considered highly stressful, such as taking exams (Rode et al., 2007) [35].

Sundaram (1989), in his study urban-rural differences in academic achievement and achievement related factors, observed that there was a significant difference between urban and rural students in their self-concept. The rural students had higher self-concept than urban students. The sample of the study included 490 final year degree class students from 14 colleges of Madras University and among them, 291 were from urban college and 199 from rural college [38].

Petrides and Furnham (2000a, 2000b, and 2001) proposed a clear conceptual distinction between two types of EI, i.e., trait EI and ability EI. Trait EI (or emotional self-efficacy’) refers to a constellation of behavioral dispositions and self-perceptions concerning one’s ability to recognize, process, and utilize emotion-laden information. It encompasses various dispositions from the personality domain, such as empathy, impulsivity, and assertiveness as well as elements of social intelligence (Thorndike, 1920) and personal intelligence (Gardner, 1983), the latter two in the form of self-perceived abilities [28] [29] [30].
Finnegan (1998) argued that school should help students learn the abilities underlying the emotional intelligence. This he believes could lead to achievement from formal education years of the child [9].

Bradberry and Greaves, (2009), Emotional intelligence (EI) is very essential for success and accounts for 60 percent of performance in all occupations. EI alone is the main predictor of the performance of an individual in the working environment and it is the strongest power for leadership and success. Those who develop their emotional intelligence are usually more successful in their jobs, for EI and job success go hand in hand [9].

Lam and Kirby (2002) found that emotional intelligence could enhance individual career success and improve general quality of individual work life. The study also showed that regulating emotions contributes to individuals’ cognitive-based performance above the level attributable to general intelligence [18].

Pandey (2008) defined academic achievement as the performance of the students in the subjects they study in the school. It is directly related to student’s growth and development of knowledge in educational situation where teaching, learning takes place [27].

Farooq, Amber (2003), an attempt has been made to investigate the effect of emotional intelligence on academic performance of student. Today it is generally believed that obtaining good academic results are not only primarily determined by higher emotional Intelligence of students. Emotional intelligence incorporates the important aspects of interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships, adaptability, moods and stress management skills, which have a profound effect on the academic performance of students [6].
Oyesoji A. Aremu et al. (2006) showed that both emotional intelligence and parental involvement could predict academic achievement. Similarly, there were significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement; and between parental involvement and academic achievement [24].

Daniel Eisenberg et al. (2009) conduct the study that how mental health predicts academic success during college in a random longitudinal sample of students. They found that depression is a significant predictor of lower GPA and higher probability of dropping out, controlling for prior academic performance and other variables. The association between depression and academic outcomes is strongest among students with a positive anxiety disorder screen. In within-person estimates using our longitudinal sample they also found again that co-occurring depression and anxiety are associated with lower GPA, and we find that symptoms of eating disorders are also associated with lower GPA [4].

Ferrando, Mercedes et al. (2011) analyzed the relationship between trait emotional intelligence and academic performance, controlling for the effects of IQ, personality, and self-concept dimensions. A sample of 290 preadolescents (11-12 years old) took part in the study. The instruments used were (a) Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Adolescents Short Form (TEIQue-ASF); (b) Children's Personality Questionnaire (CPQ; Form A, Part A); (c) IQ test TIDI-2; (d) Adaptation Questionnaire (CAI-1); and (e) academic performance. A positive and significant correlation coefficient between trait EI measured by the TEIQue-ASF and general academic performance was found. The TEIQue-ASF showed incremental validity to predict general academic performance, after controlling for intelligence, personality, and self-concept characteristics [8].

Burbach, Mark E (2004) examined the effect of an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence as a predictor of full-range leadership style. The moderating effects of leaders' cognitive style and direction of self-concept (internal vs.
external) on the relationship between emotional intelligence and full-range leadership style were also examined. The analyses were conducted on data collected from 146 self-identified leaders and 649 raters. A significant predictive relationship was found between emotional intelligence and all full-range leadership styles from leaders' perceptions. Cognitive style added significant variance to the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership and outcomes of leadership from leaders' perceptions [3].

_Ijaz Ahmad Tatlah (2012) investigated the influence of Emotional Intelligence and creativity on the academic achievement of Business Education Students using Ex- post facto research design. A total of 235 students purposively selected from four College of Education participated in the study. Three research questions were raised and answered in the study. Three instruments: Student Cumulative, Grade Point (CGPA) Information Format (SCIF); Wong and law emotional intelligence scale (WLEIS) and Nicolas Holt Creativity Test (NHCT) were used for data collection. The multiple regression analysis and ANOVA were the major statistical tools used for data analysis. Findings from the study revealed that; emotional intelligence and creativity when combined, jointly predicted the achievement of Business Education Students. It is recommended among others that emotional intelligence and creativity skills should be taught as a separate course with the aim of enhancing students’ achievement and positive attitude towards learning [14].

_Uma Devi et al. (1998) examined the self-concept and academic achievement of school children. The sample consisted of 92 children studying in 4th, 5th and 6th standard in urban schools of twin cities of Hyderabad. Harmohan Singh and Sarswathi Singh’s self-concept scale was administered to determine the self-concept and marks secured by the students in half yearly examination were taken as academic achievement score. The results indicated that academic achievement did not have significant relationship with self-concept [40].
Pujar et al. (1997) studied the influence of gender on self-concept among high and low achieving adolescents. A sample of 120 high achievers and 120 low achievers studying in 8th, 9th and 10th were selected for the study. Sinha’s (1980) self-concept inventory has been used to measure the self-concept of adolescent. The results indicated that high achievers had better self-concept than low achievers [32].

Marsh and O’ Mara (2008) studied the reciprocal effects between academic self-concept, self-esteem, achievement and attainment over seven adolescent years. The sample consisted of 2213 students from grade 10 through 5 years after graduation. The finding indicated that academic self-concept had consistent reciprocal effects with both achievement and educational attainment [22].

Anita Chawla (2012) tested the Mental Health and its relation to Academic Achievement. A brief note was added on auto-suggestion to improve Mental Health. With help of Physiological action of Neurons of Brain, mechanism of auto-suggestion was explained. The participants of the study were included sixty students --- 30 boys and 30 girls -- randomly selected from different colleges of Nasik City of age group 21-25 years. Mental Health Inventory by Jagdish and Srivastava A.K was used for the purpose of data collection. Second semester (yearly) marks of college students were taken. Data analysis was done by using Arithmetic Mean, Standard Deviation, t-test. Findings of the study revealed that female students had better mental health than male students; and mental health score was positively associated with the academic achievement of the students [1].

Rex Forehand et al. (1986) examined the relation between home variables and young adolescents' school behavior/performance. 46 mother-father-adolescent triads (ages 11.5 years to 14.9 years) served as participants. Home factors included the adolescents' relation with each parent as well as a measure of each parent's personal adjustment and perception of conflict in the marriage. School measures consisted of grades and a teacher-completed assessment of internalizing and
externalizing problems demonstrated by the adolescent. The results indicated that externalizing problems were related to the mother's depression level, the adolescent's relationship with the mother, and the adolescent's relationship with the father. The first 2 variables (maternal depression and mother-adolescent relation) entered into a multiple regression equation with sex of adolescent and accounted for 35% of the variance in externalizing problems. The relationship with the father was related to school grades and, in a multiple regression, combined with birth order of the adolescent to account for 15% of the variance. The results were discussed in terms of the importance of considering not only the mother-child relationship when examining cross-setting influences in the school but also the mother's personal adjustment and the father's relationship with the child [34].

Laurence Steinberg et al. (1989) the over-time relation between 3 aspects of authoritative parenting-acceptance, psychological autonomy, and behavioral control-and school achievement was examined in a sample of 120 10-16-year-olds in order to test the hypothesis that authoritative parenting facilitates, rather than simply accompanies, school success. In addition, the mediating role of youngsters' psychosocial maturity was studied. Results indicate that (1) authoritative parenting facilitates adolescents' academic success, (2) each component of authoritativeness studied makes an independent contribution to achievement, and (3) the positive impact of authoritative parenting on achievement is mediated at least in part through the effects of authoritativeness on the development of a healthy sense of autonomy and, more specifically, a healthy psychological orientation toward work. Adolescents who describe their parents as treating them warmly, democratically, and firmly are more likely than their peers to develop positive attitudes toward, and beliefs about, their achievement, and as a consequence, they are more likely to do better in school [19].

Golda S. Ginsburg and Phyllis Bronstein (1993) study examined 3 familial factors—parental surveillance of homework, parental reactions to grades, and general family style—in relation to children's motivational orientation and academic
performance. Family, parent, and child measures were obtained in the home from 93 fifth graders and their parents. Teachers provided a measure of classroom motivational orientation, and grades and achievement scores were obtained from school records. Higher parental surveillance of homework, parental reactions to grades that included negative control, involvement, or extrinsic reward, and over- and under controlling family styles were found to be related to an extrinsic motivational orientation and to lower academic performance. On the other hand, parental encouragement in response to grades children received was associated with an intrinsic motivational orientation, and autonomy-supporting family styles were associated with intrinsic motivation and higher academic performance. In addition, socioeconomic level was a significant predictor of motivational orientation and academic performance [10].

*Barbara Radziszewska et al. (1996)* examined whether the relationship between parenting style and adolescent depressive symptoms, smoking, and academic grades varies according to ethnicity, gender, and socioeconomic status. Four parenting styles are distinguished, based on patterns of parent-adolescent decision making: autocratic (parents decide), authoritative (joint process but parents decide), permissive (joint process but adolescent decides), and unengaged (adolescent decides). The sample included 3993 15-year-old White, Hispanic, African-American, and Asian adolescents. Results are generally consistent with previous findings: adolescents with authoritative parents had the best outcomes and those with unengaged parents were least well adjusted, while the permissive and the autocratic styles produced intermediate results. For the most part, this pattern held across ethnic and socio-demographic subgroups. There was one exception, suggesting that the relationship between parenting styles, especially the unengaged style, and depressive symptoms may vary according to gender and ethnicity. More research is needed to replicate and explain this pattern in terms of ecological factors, cultural norms, and socialization goals and practices [2].

*James D.A. Parker et al. (2004)* the transition from high school to university was used as the context for examining the relationship between emotional
intelligence and academic achievement. During the first month of classes 372 first-year full-time students at a small Ontario university completed the short form of the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i:Short). At the end of the academic year the EQ-i:Short data was matched with the student's academic record. Predicting academic success from emotional intelligence variables produced divergent results depending on how the former variable was operationalized. When EQ-i: Short variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly successful students who achieved a first-year university GPA of 80% or better versus relatively unsuccessful students who received a first-year GPA of 59% or less) academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence. Results are discussed in the context of the importance of emotional and social competency during the transition from high school to university [15].

Heaven and Ciarrochi (2008) carried out a study on parental styles and academic performance in high school children. Parental authority questionnaire (PAQ, Buri, 1991) was administered on 784 students in the Wollongong Observed that family authoritativeness was not significantly related to outcomes in math’s or science, but was significantly related to outcomes in religious studies, English and History [13