

Review of Related Literature

CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Learning is a continuous travel going from the known to the unknown. A research investigation is essentially a process of learning. The related literature serves as a road map and travel plan for the journey. Delving deep into the archives of past literature enables a researcher to acquaint himself with the various trends and developments in the field of investigation. Knowledge of related literature enables the investigator to define the frontiers of his field of investigation. Review of related literature in a research study can give necessary insight to the researcher regarding the work done in the area and also in defining the research problem (Sukia, 2001). It helps to know about the recommendations of previous researchers for further research. Further, through review of related literature, the researcher can avoid unintentional duplication of well established findings. This chapter is presented under two heads :

1. Theoretical Perspective
2. Review of Related Studies

2.2 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

2.2.1 Emotional Intelligence – An Explanation

Man, from the Neanderthal age has been driven by the passion to rule and dominate the world. Unlike the yore, the modern man lives in a world of cut-throat competition and it has become inevitable that he has to excel in all the tasks he undertakes. With his brain power, he has conquered space, invented treatments for hitherto unknown diseases and charted a life style of sheer luxury. Later he realized that something is lacking in life even with high intelligence. Often, a person labeled highly intelligent on the basis of his IQ, meets with failure and thus all the strenuous attempts go in vain. At this juncture he feels like a ship caught in a storm and whirl wind as his mind is filled with a lot of worries and negative emotions. Man has begun to realize that with all his intellect, he is not a solitary animal, and certain skills are required to live in harmony with his family and with society. To do so, he first had to learn to live with himself, to be aware of all his emotions that he suppressed in the quest for intellectual powers. And this wonder quality that differentiates men using an attribute that seems to be scoring over IQ is called emotional intelligence.

History of emotional intelligence can be traced back to early 1920s, when Thorndike proposed a model of intelligence which included not only the traditional intellectual factors, but also social intelligence. Later in 1940 Wechsler's idea of 'non-intellective factors of general intelligence' reflected the concept of emotional intelligence. Since then, there was no further work

on emotional intelligence for about forty years until Gardner (1983) developed his Multiple Intelligence Theory which combines cognitive with emotional aspects of intelligence. Gardner has proposed a model of eight types of intelligence including spatial, musical, intrapersonal, interpersonal, kinesthetic, naturalistic, linguistic and logical intelligences. The term, 'Emotional intelligence' first appeared in English in a doctoral dissertation by Payne in 1986 (A study of emotion : Developing emotional intelligence, self-integration, relating to fear, pain, and desire). He advocated fostering emotional intelligence in schools by liberating emotional experience through therapy.

One of the most significant breakthroughs in emotional intelligence took place in 1980, when the American-born Israeli psychologist Dr. Reuven Bar-on began his work in the field. By 1985, he found a concept Emotional Quotient, an obvious parallel to the long-standing measures of cognitive or rational abilities that we know as IQ. When society has traditionally placed a great deal of weight on academic intelligence, Bar-on argued that emotional intelligence is an important factor in determining one's ability to succeed in life and has a direct influence on a person's general well-being. It was Bar-on who developed the first psychometrically researched test for emotional intelligence which is known as the Bar-On EQ-i (Emotional Quotient Inventory). Figure 2.1 provides a flow chart representation of components of emotional intelligence proposed by Bar-On (1997). Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence consists of five major dimensions.

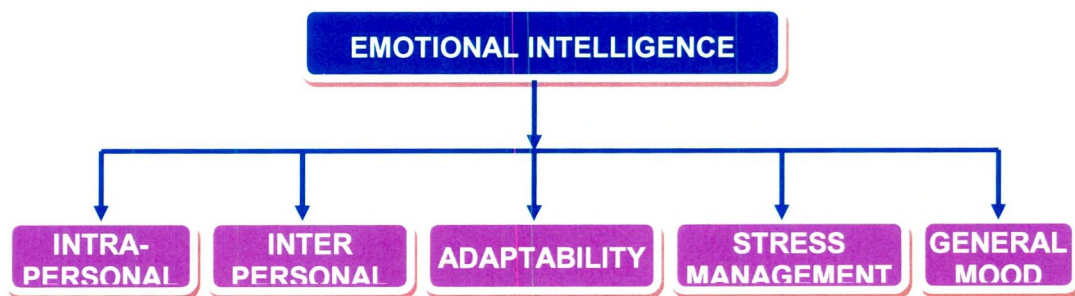


FIGURE 2.1

BAR-ON'S MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The key factors involved in this model include *intrapersonal capacity* (the ability to be aware of and understand oneself, one's emotions and to express one's feelings and ideas), *interpersonal skills* (the ability to understand and to appreciate others' feelings and maintain mutually satisfying and responsible relationships with others), *adaptability* (the ability to work in different styles and with people at all levels of the organization and to be flexible in all situations), *stress management* (the ability to cope with stress) and *general mood* (the ability to be optimistic, to feel and express positive feelings).

Coinage of the term 'Emotional Intelligence' is generally credited to Mayer and Salovey (1990), who described emotional intelligence as a "form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action". Mayer and Salovey (1997) observed that people differ in the area of emotions. Some people were better than others at things like identifying their own feelings, identifying the feelings

of others, and solving problems involving emotional issues. On this basis they listed four branches of emotional intelligence. Figure 2.2 depicts the graphical representation of components of emotional intelligence by Mayer and Salovey (1997).

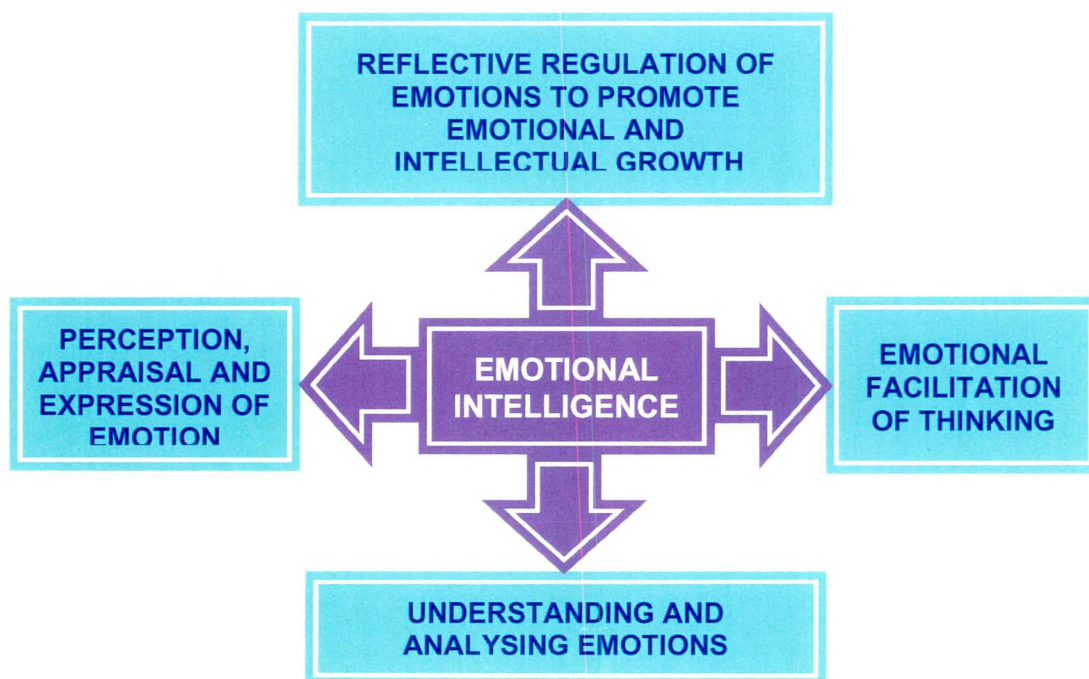


FIGURE 2.2
COMPONENTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE
 (Mayer and Salovey, 1997)

The earlier ideas on emotional intelligence attracted little attention until Daniel Goleman, a psychologist who was then a science writer for New York Times, came upon these ideas and adapted them for his first book “Emotional Intelligence : Why It Can Matter More than IQ” (1995). The book which concentrated on the developmental and educational implications of the concept was a best seller. He argues in his book that IQ contributes only

about 20 per cent to success in life, and other forces contribute the remainder, such as emotional intelligence, luck and social class. Goleman, sometimes cited as the “guru” of emotional intelligence says that emotionally intelligent people have the ability to marshal their emotional impulses ; they have the self-awareness to know what they are feeling, and are able to think about and express those things ; they have empathy for the feelings of others and insight into how others think ; they can ‘delay gratification’ ; they are optimistic and generally positive ; they understand easily the dynamics of a given group. Goleman’s model of emotional intelligence is given in Figure 2.3.

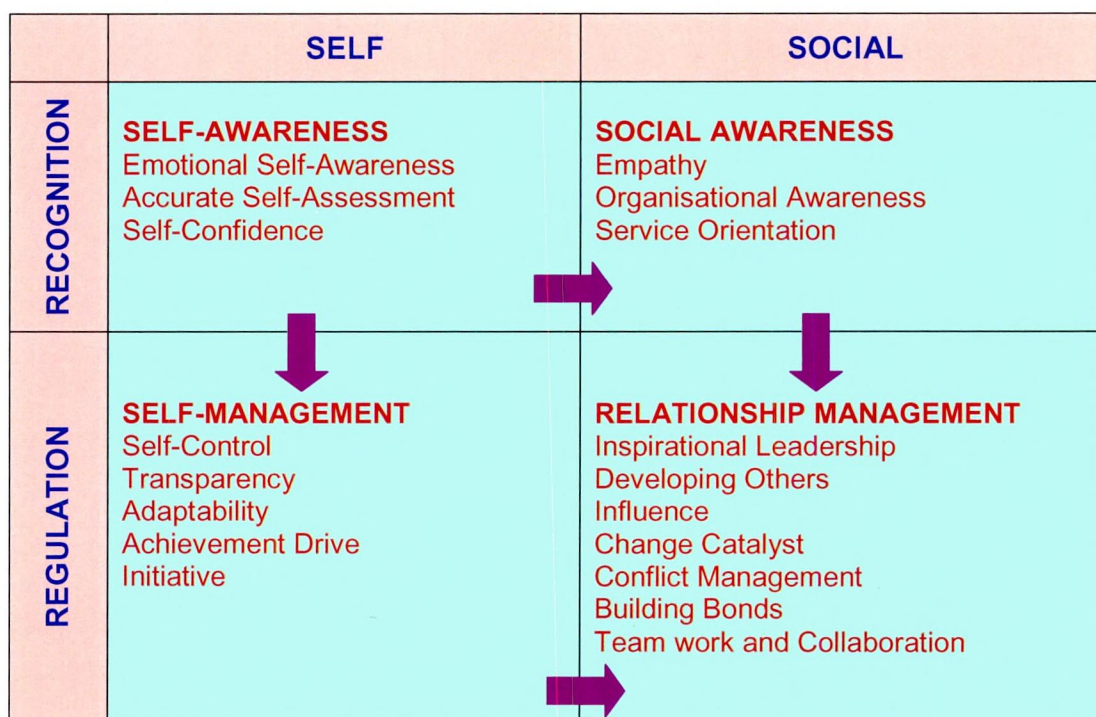


FIGURE 2.3

GOLEMAN'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODEL (2002)

2.2.2 Characteristics of an Emotionally Intelligent individual

Going through the different models of emotional intelligence given by different experts in this field it could be concluded that an emotionally intelligent person possesses certain characteristics. Figure 2.4 illustrates the characteristics of an emotionally intelligent individual. These characteristics were taken into account by the investigator while preparing the tool for assessing emotional intelligence.

Emotionally intelligent individuals stand out. Their abilities to control impulses, to empathise, communicate clearly, make thoughtful decisions, solve problems and work with others enable them to earn more friends. They tend to live happier lives, with more satisfying relationships. Individuals high in emotional intelligence are self-starters with insight into their personal decision-making processes. They are good at networking. These types of skills suggest that they would be more committed to their careers (Carson and Carson, 1998).

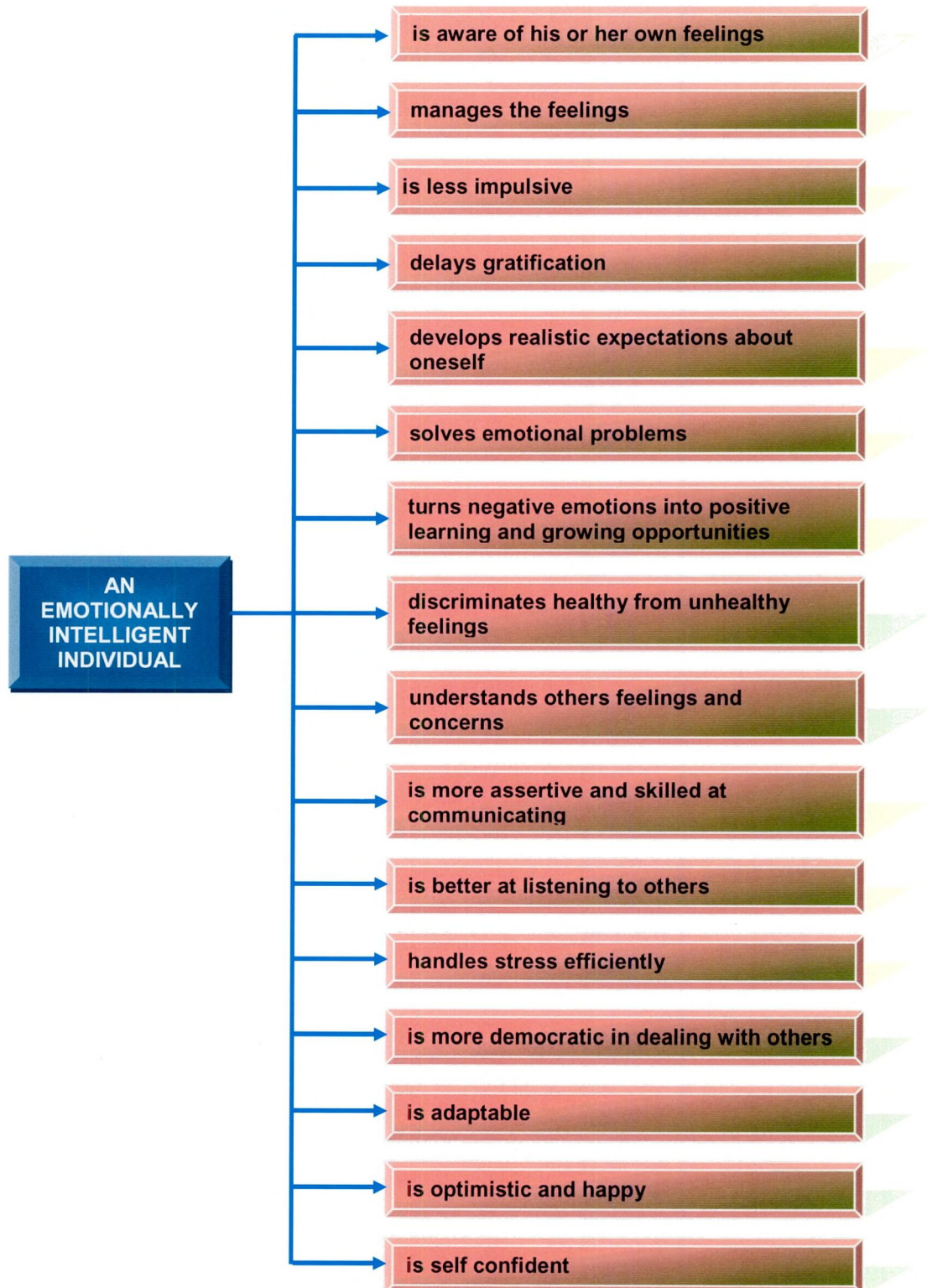


FIGURE 2.4

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT INDIVIDUAL

2.2.3 Definitions on Emotional Intelligence

The term emotional intelligence has been defined by many psychologists in different ways. According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), “Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion ; the ability to access and / or generate feelings when they facilitate thought, the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge ; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth”.

Six Seconds’ Team (1997) went beyond the scientific definition to capture the practical value of the concepts that are worth teaching and learning. Their definition of emotional intelligence is, “The capacity to create optimal results in your relationships with yourself and others”.

Goleman (1998), defined emotional intelligence as a set of competencies, which may be developed through training. It deals with personal competence (self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation) and social competence (empathy, and social skills).

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) defined emotional intelligence as “Emotional intelligence is the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power of acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence”.

Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to an assortment of emotional, personal, and interpersonal abilities and skills that influence one's overall capability to effectively cope with environmental pressures and demands.

2.3 REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

A number of studies from abroad and from India were reviewed. It was found that relatively a smaller number of studies have been conducted in India compared to studies from abroad.

2.3.1 Studies from Abroad

Studies conducted abroad are presented under the following four heads.

- a. Emotional intelligence and academic performance
- b. Emotional intelligence and gender
- c. Emotional intelligence and personality traits
- d. Emotional intelligence and stress

(a) Emotional Intelligence and Academic Performance

Newsome et al. (2000) in their study on predictive validity of emotional intelligence found little association between academic success and emotional and social competencies when they used the 133-item Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory on students of first year psychology course attending an Eastern Canadian University.

Little and O'Connor (2003) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic performance in college students, using both self-report and ability-based measures of emotional intelligence. Results indicated that emotional intelligence is not a strong predictor of academic performance regardless of the type of instrument used to measure it. It was also found that ability based measure correlated highly with indices of cognitive ability but minimally with personality dimensions. In contrast the self-report measure (EQ-i) failed to correlate with indices of cognitive ability but correlated substantially with numerous personality dimensions.

In a longitudinal study which examined the transition from high school to university, Parker et al. (2004) found that various emotional intelligence dimensions were predictors of academic success. They used Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence that consists of four related abilities : "intrapersonal", "interpersonal", "adaptability" and "stress management". They found that the academically successful group scored higher than the less-successful group on several dimensions of emotional intelligence : intrapersonal abilities, adaptability and stress management.

An extended study of Parker which examined the effect of emotional intelligence on academic achievement of students in high school brought to light that academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence. They found that girls scored higher than boys on interpersonal scale and boys scored higher on the adaptability scale. Multiple comparisons found that grade nine students scored lower on the

interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptability, stress management and total scales than the other groups (grade 11 and 12 students).

Austin et al. (2005) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence, empathy and exam performance in medical students. The findings of the study were :

- (i) Females scored significantly higher than males on emotional intelligence.
- (ii) Scores on empathy scale were found to be positively associated with emotional intelligence scores.
- (iii) Emotional intelligence showed a significant association with exam mark only for the autumn exam and not in the exam performance later in the year.
- (iv) High emotional intelligence students reported more positive feelings about communication skills.

Structural Equation Modeling as the primary method was used by DiPerna et al (2005) to study the relation between specific academic enablers (motivation, interpersonal skills, and engagement and study skills) and mathematics achievement. The results indicated that interpersonal skills predict motivation, which then predicts study skills and engagement and these skills are positively associated with academic achievement.

Lyons and Schneider (2005) examined the relationship of ability based emotional intelligence with performance under stress. They found that certain

dimensions of emotional intelligence like emotional perception and emotional management was not predictive of performance whereas emotional understanding and facilitating cognition was significantly related to performance.

Zeidner et al. (2005) conducted an investigation to see whether academically gifted high school students obtained higher scores on ability-based and questionnaire-based tests for emotional intelligence than non-gifted students. The result revealed was that the gifted students scored higher on the performance based test and lower on the self-report inventory.

Graziano et al. (2007) investigated the role of emotion regulation in children's early academic success using a sample of 325 kindergarteners. Regression analysis revealed that children with better emotion regulation skills obtained higher scores on academic success.

(b) Emotional Intelligence and Gender

Ciarrochi et al. (2001) attempted to inquire whether emotional intelligence of adolescents can be reliably and validly measured. A self report measure of emotional intelligence was administered to 131 students and found that emotional intelligence could be reliably measured. They have also found that females possessed higher emotional intelligence. The correlation results revealed that emotional intelligence was positively correlated with skill at identifying emotional expressions, amount of social support and mood management behaviour.

Chan (2003) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and social coping strategies in a sample of Hong Kong Chinese gifted adolescent students. A total of 250 students were studied and the major findings were

- (i) Boys and girls did not significantly differ in their scores on emotional intelligence
- (ii) Conventional nonverbal IQ measure did not correlate with emotional intelligence
- (iii) All the components of emotional intelligence were significantly associated with social coping strategies.

Guastello and Guastello (2003) conducted a study on androgyny, gender role behaviour and emotional intelligence. Some of his major findings were that women of older generation scored higher than men of older generation on emotional intelligence and there was no difference in emotional intelligence of women and men of younger generation, fathers of daughters had lower emotional intelligence scores than mothers of sons, and mothers of daughters. Fathers of sons had lower emotional intelligence scores than mothers of sons only.

Mandell and Pherwani (2003) made a gender comparison study of emotional intelligence of managers. The researchers found a significant difference in the emotional intelligence scores. Female managers were found to possess more of emotional intelligence than males. They manage their emotions and the emotions of others in a better manner than the males.

Brackett et al. (2004) assessed the relation of emotional intelligence to every day behaviour. In their study, they found that women scored significantly higher in emotional intelligence than men. It was also found that lower emotional intelligence in males, especially the inability to perceive emotions and to use emotion to facilitate thought, was associated with negative outcomes, including illegal drug and alcohol use and poor relations with friends.

Harrod and Scheer (2005) explored adolescent emotional intelligence in relation to demographic characteristics and found that emotional intelligence levels were positively related to parents' education, and household income and females were found to be emotionally intelligent than males. The study did not show significant relationship between adolescent emotional intelligence and location of residence or age. Linear regression results revealed that gender and father's education were both predictors of emotional intelligence.

Jausovec and Jausovec (2005) investigated gender differences in brain activity related to the level of general and emotional intelligence. The study revealed that brain activity of males decreased with the level of general intelligence, whereas an opposite pattern of brain activity was observed in females. The differences between males and females in resting EEG related to emotional intelligence were much less pronounced than for general intelligence.

Van Rooy et al. (2005) explored gender and ethnic differences in emotional intelligence scores. Results indicated that females scored slightly higher than males and emotional intelligence scores tended to increase with age. In terms of ethnic differences, minority groups (i.e., Hispanics and Blacks) scored higher than Whites. Regression results indicated that Female-Hispanics scored the highest emotional intelligence scores and Female-Whites scored the lowest. Among Whites, males scored higher than females.

Amelang and Steinmayr (2006) designed a study to investigate the influence of gender on emotional intelligence and to find the relationship between academic performance and emotional intelligence. The results revealed that girls showed a better performance in both self-report and ability measures of emotional intelligence than boys. It was also found that emotional intelligence do not show a validity increment in explaining the variance in school performance.

A study was conducted by Santesso et al (2006) to examine the relations among emotional intelligence, resting frontal brain electrical activity and externalizing behaviours like aggression and delinquency in a sample of non-clinical ten year old children. The study made it clear that boys had significantly lower emotional intelligence than girls, and that low emotional intelligence was significantly associated with aggression and delinquency. It was seen that there was no relation between emotional intelligence and the pattern of resting frontal EEG activity.

(c) Emotional Intelligence and Personality traits

Beatty (2000) highlighted the correspondence between a teacher's feelings of emotional support from a principal and the teacher's performance in the classroom. It was found that leader empathy helped to explain a follower's sense of emotional support that in turn sparks creativity and performance in educational institutions.

Dawda and Hart (2000) tried to evaluate the reliability and validity of the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) in a sample of 243 university students. Results indicated that the EQ-i domain and component scales had good item homogeneity and internal consistency. It had a meaningful pattern of convergent validities with respect to measures of normal personality and psychopathology. Overall, the results suggested that the EQ-i is a promising measure of emotional intelligence.

Derksen et al. (2002) conducted a study to evaluate the divergent validity of Bar-On's EQ-i as compared to General Adult Mental Ability (GAMA) scale, a measure of fluid intelligence. The study was conducted on a Dutch sample and showed that the two tests were psychometrically independent. Separate analyses on male and female sub-samples revealed very low correlation between EQ-i and GAMA. Age-related effects were also studied and it was found that EQ-i scores peaks in the 35-44 age interval, and then decreases in old age and GAMA scores show that there is a decrease in IQ after about 60 years of age.

Lopes et al. (2003) explored the links between emotional intelligence and personality traits as well as the contribution of both to the perceived quality of one's interpersonal relationships. A low correlation was found between the scores of emotional intelligence test, on the one hand, and personality traits and verbal intelligence, on the other, whereas a significant positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and the quality of social interaction. They have found that individuals scoring highly on the subscale managing emotions were more likely to report positive relations with others and perceived parental support.

Palmer et al. (2003) employed an exploratory factor analysis procedure to examine the factor structure of the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory. The study was conducted on 377 participants drawn from the Australian general population. The series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses found evidence for six factors namely emotional disposition, interpersonal skills, impulse control, problem solving, emotional self-awareness and character. It was also seen that there is positive correlation between age and emotional intelligence, even though the magnitude is very small.

A study by Austin (2004) revealed that performance on a facial emotion recognition task was positively associated with self-reports of interpersonal emotion, while self-reports of intrapersonal aspects of emotion management was unrelated to emotional task performance. It was also revealed in this study that there was no association between emotional task performance and personality trait scores.

Donaldson and Bond (2004) analysed the relative importance of psychological acceptance and emotional intelligence to work place well-being and performance at work. The study brought to light that emotional intelligence did not significantly predict any of the well-being outcomes namely, general mental health, physical well-being, and job satisfaction. Acceptance predicted general mental health and physical well-being but not job satisfaction.

Hemmati et al. (2004) made an effort to find out the validity of the Bar-On emotional intelligence quotient in an offender population. The results of the study showed that EQ-i has no relationship with age, only a weak relationship with IQ, but a strong negative correlation with measures of psychopathology, depression and hopelessness.

Freudenthaler and Neubauer (2005) attempted to finalise the development of psychometrically sound performance measures for the assessment of intrapersonal as well as interpersonal emotional abilities that are related to an individual's behavior in emotional settings and also tried to examine the relation among emotional intelligence measures, cognitive abilities and personality traits. The results revealed that intrapersonal emotional abilities were negatively associated with neuroticism, whereas interpersonal emotional abilities were related to agreeableness and the analyses showed that no significant relation existed between performance measures of emotional abilities and cognitive intelligence components.

Gannon and Ranzijn (2005) tried to find out if emotional intelligence would explain unique variance in life satisfaction beyond that predicted by personality and IQ. The results revealed that life satisfaction had moderate significant, positive correlations with all emotional intelligence subscales, the strongest being with emotional management and emotional control. Majority of emotional intelligence dimensions displayed significant relationships with personality traits. The strongest were the negative relationship between neuroticism and all emotional intelligence subscales namely, emotional control and emotional management and a positive relationship between extraversion and emotional management. IQ showed no relationship with life satisfaction.

Kaufhold and Johnson (2005) undertook a study to analyse emotional intelligence skills and potential problem areas of elementary educators. The study's research population consisted of a cluster sample of elementary educators. Major findings include:

- (i) The elementary educators' do not perceive any personal, "enhanced" emotional intelligence skills.
- (ii) Master's level teacher viewed themselves as having higher self-esteem, stress management and anger management skills, while Bachelor's level teachers perceived themselves as having more enhanced assertion skills.

Orobode Castro et al. (2005) studied the emotional aspects of social information processing and their relations with reactive and proactive

aggression of 54 boys referred for aggressive behaviour problems. It was found that aggressive boys attributed more hostile intent, happiness and reported more anger.

A recent study conducted at the University of New England, Australia on first-year psychology students by Brown and Schutte (2006) on the direct and indirect relationships between emotional intelligence and subjective fatigue revealed that higher emotional intelligence was associated with less fatigue. The psycho-social variables depression, anxiety, optimism, internal health, locus of control and amount of social support mediated between emotional intelligence and fatigue. Additionally poorer sleep quality was related to higher fatigue levels.

Kellett et al. (2006) empirically tested the relationships among emotional intelligence constructs, cognitive abilities and perceptions of leadership. Findings of the study suggested that displays of emotional abilities are linked to both relations and task leadership, and cognitive abilities are related to task leaderships, whereas emotional abilities were unrelated to cognitive abilities.

Yoo et al. (2006) found that recognition of anger and emotion regulation predicted positive adjustment ; recognition of contempt, fear and sadness predicted negative adjustment. It was also concluded that recognition of specific emotions may have special functions in intercultural adjustment, and that emotion recognition and emotion regulation play independent roles in adjustment.

(d) Emotional Intelligence and Stress

Bar-On et al. (2000) studied the relationship between emotional expressiveness and adaptation to occupational stress of three groups of helping professionals namely, police officers, child care workers and educators in mental health care. Results revealed that police officers were more adaptable and scored higher on emotional stability. It was also seen that women possessed better interpersonal skills than men, whilst men seemed more able to withstand stressful situations than women.

Parker et al. (2001) studied the empirical association between emotional intelligence and alexithymia, the difficulty in identifying and describing subjective feelings. Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory was used to assess emotional intelligence. Findings reveal that the presence of alexithymic characteristics is related to low emotional intelligence, and highly alexithymic individuals are intolerant to stress and have limited adaptive resources.

Ciarrochi et al. (2002) investigated the contribution of emotional intelligence in understanding the relationship between stress and three important mental health variables namely depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation. The investigation carried out in 302 university students revealed that people high in the skill of managing others' emotions (MOE) adapt better to stress, responding with less suicidal ideation and people high in emotional perception reported greater depression, hopelessness and suicidal ideation.

Hunt and Evans (2004) tried to investigate whether emotional intelligence could predict how individuals respond to traumatic stress. The results indicated that people with higher emotional intelligence tended to have fewer trauma-related symptoms. It was seen that women scored higher on psychological symptomatology and men scored higher on emotional intelligence.

Gohm et al. (2005) conducted a research to examine the relationship of emotional intelligence to perceived stress and the moderating function of personality traits. They have classified people into four types, hot (persons high in attention, clarity and intensity), cool (low in attention, clarity and intensity), overwhelmed (high in intensity, low in clarity, average in attention) and cerebral (high in clarity, low in intensity and average in attention) and data were analysed. Results suggested that emotional intelligence was associated with lower stress for the Hots and the Cools. The cerebrals were the least stressed type, having mild reactions to life events (low intensity). There was no relation between emotional intelligence and stress among the overwhelmed.

Chan (2007) analysed the relationships among four components of emotional intelligence namely emotional appraisal, positive regulation, empathic sensitivity and positive utilization and three components of teacher burnout namely, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment in a sample of 167 Chinese secondary teachers in Hong Kong. The results revealed that emotional exhaustion was causally prior

to depersonalization and personal accomplishment, but personal accomplishment could develop relatively independently from the burnout components through the influence of positive utilization of emotions.

Using three psychological scales, Lee and Olszewski (2006) examined the level of emotional intelligence, moral judgement and leadership of more than 200 gifted high school students who participated in an acceleration academic programme. The significant findings of this study reveal that on emotional intelligence, gifted males were comparable to students in the age normative sample, while gifted females lagged behind the norm group. Regardless of gender, gifted students had higher scores on adaptability but lower scores on stress management and impulse control ability compared to the normative sample. Gifted students possessed moral judgement comparable to the level of individuals with master's or professional degrees, and they showed an above-average level of leadership compared to the normative sample.

Mathews et al. (2006) compared emotional intelligence and personality factors as predictors of task-induced stress responses. Results confirmed that low emotional intelligence was related to worry states and avoidance coping, even when the personality factors were statistically controlled. However, emotional intelligence was not specifically related to task-induced changes in stress state. It was also found that neuroticism was related to distress, worry, and emotion-focused coping.

2.3.2 Studies from India

Studies conducted in India are not only small in number but are also mostly limited to those conducted on teachers and teacher trainees.

Bansibihari and Pathan (2004) examined the level of emotional intelligence of secondary teachers in relation to gender and age. 500 secondary teachers, ranging from 24 to 56 years of age were selected from different secondary schools of Maharashtra. The tool used for the study was a structured questionnaire called Emotional Intelligence Test, developed by Chadha and Singh. They found that a majority of secondary teachers possessed low levels of emotional intelligence and that EQ is independent of gender and age.

Dash and Behra (2004) examined the effect of emotional intelligence on teacher effectiveness. The study was conducted on a sample of 100 senior secondary school teachers. The tools, namely Teacher Effectiveness Scale by Kumar and Emotional Intelligence Scale by Schutte were used. From the analysis of results it was found that there is positive correlation between teacher effectiveness and emotional intelligence.

Mohanasundram et al. (2004) made a survey to see whether there is any relationship between emotional intelligence and achievement of teacher trainees at primary level. The sample consisted of 269 teacher trainees. The findings show that there is a significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. They have also found that

men and women teacher trainees did not differ in emotional intelligence, whereas teacher trainees of co-education government institutions are at a higher level in their emotional intelligence.

Tyagi (2004) compared the emotional intelligence of secondary teachers in relation to gender and age. The sample for the study consisted of 500 secondary teachers comprising 350 male and 150 female teachers. The study was conducted by dividing the sample into three groups on the basis of age. Group I consisted of teachers below 30 years, group II the age range 31 – 45 years and group III consisted of teachers of age 46 years to 60 years. The findings of the study revealed that emotional intelligence is independent of age and gender.

Annaraja and Jose (2005) studied the emotional intelligence of 300 B.Ed. trainees. They found that 18 per cent of B.Ed. trainees possessed low levels of emotional intelligence, 66 per cent moderate levels of emotional intelligence and 16 per cent of the sample possessed high levels of emotional intelligence. They found that urban students possessed more of empathy and motivation than rural students. Another major finding of this study was that the students with English as their optional were best in motivation, empathy, social skills and total emotional intelligence in comparison with the Science and Maths students.

Dhull and Mangal (2005) put forth a few suggestions in their article “Emotional intelligence its significance for school teacher”, that teachers should be emotionally intelligent and competent and steps should be taken to

reset and restructure the in-service and pre-service teacher education programmes, so that they help in the development of emotional intelligence and emotional competencies among the school teachers.

Latha et al. (2005) held an investigation into the effect of emotional intelligence on teachers' effectiveness. The study was done on teachers from aided schools. The sample for the study was selected using proportionate systematic simple random sampling technique and sample size consisted of 158 teachers selected from 13 schools. The results revealed that emotional intelligence doesnot influence teacher effectiveness in general, but certain aspects like sense of humor and mastery in the subject affects emotional intelligence in a positive way.

Amirtha and Kadiravan (2006) attempted to peep deep into the relationship between emotional intelligence and personality of teachers. Normative survey method was adopted to collect data using standardized tools. The findings showed that female teachers had better impulse control and that elder teachers had more empathy but less extroversion qualities. Post graduate teachers were found to have more stress tolerance.

Manhas (2006) of Punjab University studied the relationship of emotional intelligence with non-cognitive variables like self concept, academic stress, mental health and family stress and also compared the emotional intelligence of adolescents in relation to gender, type of institution, caste, locality and subject of study. Some of the major findings were that there was no difference in emotional intelligence of boys and girls ; emotional

intelligence of students of private schools was higher than that of students of government schools ; science students possessed more emotional intelligence than students of arts stream and there was no difference in emotional intelligence of students belonging to rural and urban areas.

Patil (2006) studied emotional intelligence among student teachers in relation to sex, faculty and academic achievement and found that emotional intelligence does not depend upon gender, faculty and academic achievement.

Ramganesha and Raj (2006) analysed the emotional maturity of teacher trainees with respect to gender, locale, and level of education. They found that there is no gender difference in emotional maturity ; trainees from rural areas were found to be emotionally more matured than those from the urban areas and no significant difference was noticed in the emotional maturity of students having graduate and post graduate levels of education.

Reddy (2006) in his study undertaken to find out the influence of sex, locality and family income on the emotional maturity of B.Ed. students has proved that female students are more emotionally intelligent and students belonging to lower economic status are emotionally matured than the students from middle class and higher class families.

Romould (2006) in her study assessed the effectiveness of Enneagram educational programme on emotional intelligence of student teachers. The sample of the study comprised of 40 student teachers from Colleges of

Education of Jharkhand State. The conclusions drawn from the study was that the intervention programme had a significant impact on emotional self-awareness, emotional expression and emotional awareness of others and interpersonal connections.

Singh and Koteswari (2006) conducted a study to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and the types of coping resources of stress among project managers belonging to different information technology companies. The sample consisted of 50 project managers. The tool used was Emotional Intelligence Test developed by Chaddha. The results revealed that there was significant positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence and the total coping resources of stress. They also observed that emotional intelligence and coping resources of stress positively increased with age.

Neelakandan (2007) studied the emotional competence of primary school teachers using the tool namely, Emotional Competence Scale by Sharma. 300 primary school teachers constituted the sample for the study. The study concluded that teachers having higher qualifications were found to have better emotional competence.

Sridhar and Badiei (2007) examined the level of teacher efficacy and emotional intelligence of primary school teachers. The study was conducted on 100 primary school teachers selected from different schools in Mysore. The age of the sample selected ranged from 25 years to 54 years. Results revealed that there is a significant negative relationship between emotional

intelligence and teacher efficacy. It was also found that gender, and educational qualification did not contribute significantly toward emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy, whereas higher emotional intelligence was significantly linked with higher age.

2.4 CONCLUSION

The theoretical perspectives and research findings presented gives a clear picture of the trend that is existing in the area of the present investigation. In spite of the numerous researches conducted in the field of emotional intelligence, there is still scope left for exploring some areas. The insight obtained through the survey of literature prompted the investigator to study the influence of variables like hostel life experience, parental education, ordinal position on emotional intelligence. A detailed description of the variables and the methodology of the research are given in the next chapter.