Chapter II
"If we could first know where we are and where we are standing, we could better judge what to do and how to do".

-- ABRAHAM LINCOLN

The survey of related literature plays a vital role in the field of research. It is like a lighthouse in the sea, which guides the path of the sailing ships. Without reviewing the related literature, it is very difficult to select a problem. It is critical aspect in the planning of a new study. Reviewing the related literature is a time consuming process but is very essential.

2.1 MEANING

The accumulated knowledge of the past provides the basis on which the edifice of new knowledge is to be erected. The phrase ‘Review of literature’ consists of two words viz. ‘review’ and ‘literature’.

The term ‘Review’ means to organize to evolve an edifice of knowledge to show that this study would be an addition to this field.

The term ‘Literature’ refers to the knowledge of a particular area of individuals of any discipline, which includes theoretical, practical and its research studies.
Thus review of related literature gives the researcher an understanding of the research methodology which refers to the way the study is to be conducted.

In the words of Dr. Meenakshi (1992), "Review of related literature becomes a piece of research in itself. It becomes a great motivating means for future researches. It provides sufficient materials to the researchers to compare and contrast his feeling with and against and he can locate gaps in the body of knowledge, which we or others can try to fill in."

Study of related literature implies locating, reading and evaluating reports of research and opinion that are related to the individual planned research project. In this way it helps to avoid duplication. It develops insight of the investigator and points the area of research previously ignored. It provides a good opportunity to the individual of gaining insight into the method and approach employed in earlier investigation.

As a matter of fact, familiarity with the literature in any problem area helps the researchers to discover what is already known, what others have attempted to find out, what methods to attract, have been promising and disappointing and what problems remain to be solved.

Reviewing the related literature is a time consuming process, but is very essential. The accumulated knowledge is to be erected on the basis of it. The importance of related literature can't be denied in any research work. It works as a guide post not only with regard to the quantum of work done in the field but also enables us to perceive the gap in the concerned field of research. The similar or related studies carried out by researcher at various levels are called review of related literature.
According to Carter V. Good

"The key to the vast store house of published literature may open doors to source of significance to problems and explanatory hypotheses and provide helpful orientation for definition of the problem, background for selection of procedure, of comparative data for interpretation of results. In order to be truly creative and original one must read extensively critically as a stimulus of thinking."

According to Berg

"The review of related studies in any field forms the formation upon which all future work will be built."

According to Best

"Practically all human knowledge can be found in books and libraries. Unlike other animals that must start with each generation, man builds upon the accumulated recorded knowledge of past."

Thus the Review of Literature is an important components in any Research Report. It highlights the research work of the torch bearer on the study of the problem related to well-being among teacher educators in relation to mental health, emotional intelligence and socio-economic status, highlighting the present research and research questions.

2.2 PURPOSE OF THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE:

The review of literature provides some insight regarding strong point limitations of the previous studies. It enables the investigator to improve his investigation. One should avoid
the temptation to present the literature as a series of abstracts; rather, it should be presented in such a way as to lay a systematic foundation for the study.

*Ary et al. (1972)* suggested that the researcher is “Like an explorer, proposing an expedition, maps out the known territory and points the way to the unknown territory he proposes to explore”

*Tuckmen (1978)* has enumerated the following purposes of the review:

(i) Discovering important variable.

(ii) Distinguishing 'what has been done' from what needs to be done.  (iii) Synthesizing the available studies to have perspective.

(iv) Determining meaning, relevance of the study and relationship with the study and its deviation from the available studies.

*Vockell, Edward (1983)* points out the following two purposes of the review of literature:

(i) The main purpose is to examine the research report into the proper content.

(ii) Secondly, purpose of this part of the report is to provide the readers with guidelines regarding where they can look to find more information and to establish author's credentials by letting readers know that the researcher is aware of what has been going on with regard to current and related topics.

Recognizing the advantages of related studies, the investigator tried to examine the related literature on the topic. The present review by no means is complete. Due to lack of resources and time it was not possible for the researcher to get access to the entire published and unpublished researches in this field. An attempt
was made to study the literature concerned with the investigation in hand. Some of the research studies are briefly mentioned:

2.3 STUDIES ON WELL-BEING IN RELATION TO OCCUPATION, GENDER AND OTHER AREAS:

A basic proposition concerning the determination of psychological well-being was advanced by Jodha (1958) who suggested that the existence of overall well-being is a function of experience in all important aspects of life such as family, community, vocation and work.

Davies (1984) found that some recreational exercises are proved beneficial to the well-being.

Andrews and Parks (1985) proved that psychological and physical well-being is complementary to each other. If one gets deteriorated, other cannot remain unaffected. Sound psychological well-being is a pre-requisite for good physical well-being and vice-versa.

Goode (1985) studied general well-being, specifically a health behavioural data base among students in selected predominantly black colleges and universities. The result indicated that there was no significant relationship of age with well-being and health behavior.

Megloshen (1985) conducted a study to assess the factors related to the psychological well-being of elderly recent widows. The result is revealed that widows who were healthy and active, especially in religious activities, had not worked outside the home during marriage, were not good with previous encounters with grief, and had
husbands who dies close to home experienced higher psychological well-being than other widows.

**Turbow (1985)** attempted a study to find out the relationship of exercise to academic achievement and sense of well-being among college students at California State University. He observed that exercise was not, however, significantly related to satisfaction with various aspects of life to overall sense of well-being, but students who were engaged in aerobic exercise (e.g. jogging and swimming) were significantly more likely than others to be highly satisfied with themselves and their lives and have a higher overall sense of well-being.

**Hayers and Ross (1986)** studied the effect of exercise, overweight add physical health on psychological well-being in a telephone survey of 401 subjects. Results revealed that good physical health improved psychological well-being.

**Koonce (1986)** analyzed the effects of a structured wellness programme on physical and mental well-being of public teachers and staff members. He observed that there were no significant differences for any mental well-being of public teachers and staff members.

**Scheidt (1986)** measured the subjective well-being of 989 residents of small towns and found that subjects generally expressed satisfaction with living conditions, social relations and functional health.

**O'Rurke (1986)** observed no significant relationships between psychological well-being, age, ethnicity, marital status of sex of a person in a household.

**Archer et al (1987)** found that physical dimension of health was regarded as having the most important effect on overall wellness.
Hamminger (1987) found that aerobic exercise had a more positive sense of well-being.

Levitt et al. (1987) carried out a study on social support, perceived control and well-being. They concluded that social support was considered simultaneously with health and personal control belies in relation to well-being. Results suggested that one close support figure may be sufficient to promote well-being.

Wetzler and Urasano (1988) found the relationship between psychological well-being and seven physical practices (sleep, physical, exercise, breakfast, snacking, relative body weight, smoking and alcohol consumption). Psychological well-being was measured as an overall score, with positive and negative feelings as sub-scores. Psychological well-being measures were related to favourable health practices and was noted to improve with age.

Stenson (1989) assessed the effect of social support on the well-being of single-mothers enrolled in a rural community college. The results indicated that single-mothers employed part-time, scored lowest on total well-being, problems and isolation. There was significant effect on problem from those enrolled in a degree programme for seven or more credits and receiving financial aid. Simple linear and multiple stepwise regressions between components of support and well-being showed that: (i) total support had an effect upon problems, loneliness, happiness and total well-being; (ii) personal conservation influenced all measures of well-being; (iii) relatives influenced isolation, loneliness, happiness and total well-being; and (iv) neighbouring influenced total well-being.

Dytell et al (1991) studied a casual analysis of inter-relationships among exercise, physical fitness, and well-being in U.S. Navy personnel. Results revealed that
physical fitness was better predictor than exercise of outcomes in women. Fitness tend
to mediate the relationship between exercise and well-being among females, whereas
both exercise and fitness lead directly to positive health consequences in males.

**Landrevilla and Vezina (1992)** conducted a comparative study between daily hassles
and major life events as correlates of well-being in older adults. Results indicated that
self-rated health, limitation in daily activities as a result of chronic illness and
frequency of daily hassles were related with physical well-being.

**Harri (1993)** examined the mental well-being of nurse educators at work. He used a
self-assessment questionnaire to measure the mental well-being of 83 female nurses.
68 percent of subjects claimed that they were valued very much or moderately at
work. Age, marital status, type and length of education and professional experience
were not related to mental well-being assessment.

**Mookerjee (1994)** examined the effect of religiosity, social participation and selected
demographic variables on perception of well-being. Result of the study found that
perception of well-being was positively related and significantly influenced by
perceived financial status, marital status, church membership, frequency of church
attendance, social participation and education.

**Burke and McKeen (1995)** studied a research model, developed to understand
emotional well-being among managerial and professional women. Four groups of
predictor variables were considered, including personal demographic variables,
organizational and situational characteristics, work experience, and work outcomes
were fairly consistently and significantly related to self-reported emotional well-
being.
Edward and Roy (1995) found that teachers who have a positive sense of self and health psychological well-being are more willing to attend to work.

Hart et al. (1995) examined personal and work related factors which contribute to a police officer's psychological well-being within a perceived quality of life framework that integrates personality, coping process and police officers’ positive (beneficial to well-being) showed that positive and negative work experience independently contribute to an officer’s perceived quality of life and the organizations.

Wu (1998) studied the relationship between imaginary audience egocentrism and spiritual well-being among church-going, American-born-Chinese adolescents. Results indicated that for the whole samples, the religious well-being dimension of spiritual well-being did not correlate significantly with imaginary audience scale and its subscales-transient self and abiding self. This indicated that sense of close relationship with God was not strongly related with the feeling of self-consciousness. Christians were significantly different in religious well-being scores.

Singh(1999) conducted a study on well-being of NavodayaVidyalaya teachers in relation to their job burnout. Results indicated that male married teachers have a good sense of mental well-being than that of female married teachers. On the basis of tenure of service it was found that female teachers with service tenure from 0-5 years have higher sense of physical, social and emotional well-being than female teachers with teaching experience of 10 years and above experience had good sense of mental well-being but are emotionally exhausted that male teachers after some service tenure. But there is no significant difference between low and high burnout and anxiety of teachers in respect of well-being.
Holy (2000) conducted a study on the relationship between caregivers’ stress, social support and well-being. The results revealed that the caregivers’ gender was significantly influenced by their perception of stress. Both male and female caregivers reported high level of stress. Male caregivers also reported having a significantly higher perception of tangible support and a more positive self-esteem than female caregivers. The strongest path was between social support and well-being.

Taylor (2001) conducted a study to find out the relationship between mattering and psychological well-being. Cross-sectional and longitudinal results support the hypothesis that mattering is positively associated with psychological well-being.

Aggarwal (2004) observed significant differences in mental, emotional and total well-being of male and female teacher trainees. But urban and rural teacher trainees do not differ significantly in physical, mental social, emotional, spiritual and total well-being.

Mohan (2004) studied work specific locus of control as a moderator of the relationship between organizational stressors and job related well-being and found that men had higher job well-being than women.

Moorjani and Geryani (2004) conducted a study on college students of different faculties as science, commerce and arts. Results revealed that students of different faculties have significant difference in their life satisfaction and general well-being, but there is no significant gender difference regarding life satisfaction and general well-being.

Euince (2005) studied “good life” among older Korean Americans and reported that ageing and immigration have a distressing effect on happiness and only those elderly
persons were happy who continuously strive to establish harmony with others coupled with hard work. It was viewed that it was collaboration effort and environment that contribute to well-being and role individual efforts was significantly more than that of environmental forces.

Alterman et al (2007) in their study looked directly at the factors affecting teacher well-being. By using a reliable and validated questionnaire on a representative sample of 2000 teachers in Belgium found that lower pressure of work was related to higher levels of well-being. They also found that elementary school level female teachers had higher well-being than men. The research also found years of experience was an important predictor of well-being: older teachers had a lower sense of well-being than younger teacher.

Kaur (2007) found that university students have moderate level of well-being and there is no significant gender difference in their well-being.

David et al. (2008) investigated the association of psychological well-being and levels of cognitive function in a sample of 11,234 non-institutionalized adults. The result revealed that a higher level of psychological well-being were associated with better cognitive function.

Sharma (2008) conducted a study of well-being among university students in relation to certain personal variables. A sample of 164 postgraduate students was undertaken. The result indicated that the university students have above average level of well-being. It also found that indicated that the university students have above average level of well-being. It also found that female students in arts faculty have significantly better in well-being than their counterpart male students. But in science stream the male students are significantly better in their well-being than university female
students. But there is no significant difference in well-being of university students belonging to rural and urban areas. As a whole the female university students have a tendency to be having better well-being than that of male university students.

Steptoe et al. (2008) examined that both positive affect and enharmonic well-being are directly associated with good sleep and may buffer the impact of psychological risk factor. The relationship are likely to be bidirectional with disturbed sleep engendering lower positive effect and reduced psychological well-being and positive psychological states promoting better sleep.

McFarquhar and Bowling (2009) examined the relationship between psychological well-being and measures of active aging in British older people. The results revealed a strong relationship between psychological health and ageing actively. Good psychological health may be allowed among the elderly to maintain an active and fulfilling lifestyle and reduce isolation and dependence, which in turn may protect against some aspects of poor mental health.

Prentsa (2009) found the relationship between adolescents’ perceptions of their physical qualities and their psychological well-being and un-wellness. It is seen that, taking into account physical self-identity, male adolescents’ parent higher scoring for psychological well-being than their female counterparts’ presents. This same relationship was established between 12-14 years old adolescents on the other and among those who do not.

Ramesh (2009) in a study of working and non-working women explored that emotionally, socially and health-wise, non-working women and more adjusted than working women. Non-working women have more life satisfaction than of working women.
Kalia and Sahu (2010) revealed in a study of general well-being in relation to gender, birth order and academic achievement of postgraduates students that the main effect of birth order and achievement on general well-being is significant; later born students are higher on general well-being than first born students; high achievement students are higher in their general well-being than low achievement students. They also found that interaction between gender and birth order and academic achievement and birth order and academic achievement does not affect general well-being and interaction among birth order, gender and academic achievement of the students does not affect general well-being.

Tali (2010) studied the impact of well-being on perspective teachers in relation to their learning and decision making styles. A sample of 200 perspective teachers was selected. The results indicated that prospective teachers have high, average and low levels of well-being exhibited similar magnitude of preference for activist, reflective, theorist and pragmatist style of learning. Well-being of prospective teachers was significantly related with learning styles and decision making styles of prospective teachers.

Kaur (2011) conducted a study on well-being of school going adolescents in relation to gender and moral judgment. A representative sample of 250 school adolescents selected. The result found that the adolescents have an above average level of well-being and no significant gender difference in well-being of adolescents. It also indicated that there is a positive significant relationship between well-being and moral judgment among school going adolescents.

The Economic Survey (2010-11) dealing with all as aspects of national development puts a priority to well-being in human development process. It encompasses both
economic and non-economic dimensions. It is also stated that pro-social behavior promotes development and it is possible through humane approach to development.

2.4. STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN RELATION TO AGE

The older children displayed greater emotional competence than their younger counterparts. It has been found that emotional intelligence increases with age or grade. It has been also reported that emotional maturity was positively related with physiological maturity. Salovey and Mayer, 1990) found that the EI developed with increasing age and experience.

Goleman (1995) found that the signs of EI appear among very young children.

Goleman (1996) also stated that emotional intelligence increases with age and it can be learned, cultivated and increased in adulthood.

In a series of longitudinal studies, it was shown that people can change their EI competencies over two to five years (Boyatzis, 2000).

Mayer et al. (2000) also showed with a series of studies that emotional intelligence increased with age and experience which qualifies it as an ability rather than a personality trait.

Wong and Law (2002) working with different samples have found that, age is positively correlated with emotional intelligence across different job situations.

Kafetsios (2004) had reported in his study among 239 adults aged between 19-66 years, that older participants scored higher on three out of four branches of EI i.e. facilitation, understanding and management. This study supports the view that emotional intelligence develops with age.
Srivastava and Bharamanaikar (2004) concluded from their study on a sample of 291 Indian army officers regarding the relationship between EI and their age, that EI increased with age.

To measure the emotional intelligence and its relation with age among secondary school teachers, Tyagi (2004) have conducted a study and found that the level of emotional intelligence is low and independent of age.

Another study examining the long term stability (32 months) of emotional intelligence-related abilities over the course of a major life transition (The transition from high school to university) was reported by Parker, Saklofske, Wood, Eastabrook et al. (2005). During the first week of full time study, a large group of undergraduates completed the EQ-i: short; 32 months later a random subset of these student (N=238), who had started their postsecondary education within 24 months of graduating from high school, completed the measure for a second time. The study found EI scores to be relatively stable over the 32 month time period. EI scores were also found to be significantly higher at time 2; the overall pattern of change in EI-levels was more than can be attributed to the increased age of the participants.

Van Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005) have made a study in which a common measure of emotional intelligence was administered to 275 participants (216 female) to examine how different groups score on a test of EI differences were compared for age. Results indicated that emotional intelligence scores tended to increase with age.

Chapman and Hayslip (2006) have made a cross sectional analysis in order to measure emotional intelligence in young and middle adulthood. Differentiation of the construct of emotional intelligence was investigated in young and middle-aged adults. Mid-life adults reported significantly greater use of optimism (a component of
emotional intelligence) as a moodregulation strategy than was reported by young adults.

Another study on relationship between emotional intelligence and age reported by Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) among B.Ed. teacher trainees (N= 300) have revealed a significant effect of age on emotional intelligence. Contradictory to this finding, Jacques (2009) had reported that age did not predicted emotional intelligence among a sample of 221 college students.

2.4.1 STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN RELATION TO GENDER

Thingujam and Ram (2000) in their attempt of Indian adaptation of Emotional Intelligence Scale (Schutte et al, 1998) had developed Indiannorms (N=811) for males and females separately and found that women were significantly scoring higher than men.

Similarly Ciarrochi, chan and Bajgar (2001) found that EI was reliable measured in adolescents and was higher for females than males. The relationship between emotional intelligence and sex differences among 134 adolescents involved in a six week training camp run by the military was investigated by Charboneau and Nicol (2002). Results revealed that girls scored somewhat but not significantly higher than the boys on emotional intelligence.

Brackett, Mayer and Warner (2004) have also been reported in their study of 330 college students that women scored significantly higher in emotional intelligence than men. Lower emotional intelligence in males shows principally the inability to perceive emotions and to use emotion to facilitate thought was associated with negative
outcomes including illegal drug and alcohol use, deviant behaviour and poor relations with friends.

In the study reported by Uma Devi and Rayal (2004) based on gender differences among EI (N=224) it was revealed that seventy six percent of girls have scored EI above average. Whereas, eighty one percent of boys have scored their EI above average. This concluded that boys have scored slightly higher on their emotional intelligence as compared to their counterparts.

Hunt and Evans (2004) have reported in their study on individuals [N=414 (181 male and 233 female)] having traumatic experiences and simultaneously studied on their emotional intelligence level, and the results showed that males have higher EI than females.

However, Kafetsios (2004) had reported gender differences in emotional intelligence from a sample of 239 adults aged between 19 to 66 years who completed the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT V2.0) in which females scored higher than males on emotion perception and experimental area.

Moving ahead to next review on sex differences in emotional intelligences, study reported by Pandey and Tripathi (2004) on a sample of 100 individuals (50 males and 50 females) completing the measure of EI, consisting of identification of emotion, perception and recognition of emotion with probing, perception and recognition of emotion without probing, understanding emotional meaning and emotion intensity rating. Results revealed that females scored significantly higher than male and were more proficient in managing and handling their own emotions as well as of others.

Pant and Prakash (2004) studied gender differences in emotional intelligence for Indian participants (N=60). 30 male and 30 female subject/individuals were approached for the study from personnel and human resources departments of both
government and non-government organizations; as well as students with an educational level of post-graduation. Multifactor emotional intelligence scale was used for assessment process. Results showed no substantial gender differences on the various EI dimensions. More specifically indicating that both males and females do not differ significantly on the two sub-tasks of ‘managing emotions’. Whereas, on the sub-tasks of ‘Managing others’ (sub-tasks) the males (M=0.28, S.D. = 0.08) scoring higher than the females (M=0.26, S.D.=0.08) on the sub-task of ‘managing self’, both the males and females have the same mean (m=0.25). However, women scored higher, though not significantly than men on total EI (Mwomen = 5.13, M men=4.86).

Petrides, Furnham and Martin (2004) examined participant’s estimates of own and parental psychometric intelligence quotient (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EI). About 224 participants (82 male, 138 female and 4 who did not report their gender) were asked to estimate their own and their parent’s IQ and EI scores on a normal distribution ranging from 55 to 145 points. The results confirmed the hypothesis supporting the view that people perceive psychometric intelligence as a primarily masculine attribute in contrast with emotional intelligence, which they perceive as a primarily feminine attribute. But this result has been altered when the participants had estimated their scores on a range of specific EI facets instead of overall self estimate.

In order to measure the relationship between emotional intelligence and gender, Tyagi (2004) have conducted a study among secondary teacher.

The results revealed that emotional intelligence is independent of gender.

Contrary to this, Hunt and Evans (2004) have reported in their study on individuals [N=414 (181 male and 233 female)] having traumatic experiences and simultaneously...
studied on their emotional intelligence level, and the results showed that males have higher EI than females.

**Mathur, Malhotra and Dube (2005)** have evaluated the gender differences in the selection variables of emotional intelligence, which were attribution, taking responsibility and scholastic achievement in high school students (N= 83, M = 36, F = 47) with an age group of 13 to 15 years. The study does not reveal any significant gender differences on the dimensions of emotional intelligence. So, the study concluded that there is no significant difference among boys and girls on the selected components of EQ.

Assessing on an ability measure of EI, **Brackett, Warner and Bosco (2005)** find out in their study on 86 heterosexual couples that female partners were significantly higher on their emotional intelligence scores than male partners, and EI scores were uncorrelated within couples.

**VanRooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005)** in their study examined gender differences on emotional intelligence by administering a common measure of emotional intelligence on 275 participants (216 female). Results indicated that females scored slightly higher than males.

Similarly, **Austin, Evans, Goldwater and Potter (2006)** studied on a group of 156 first year medical students who have completed measures of emotional intelligence and physician empathy, and a scale assessing their feelings about a communications skills course component. Results showed that females scored significantly higher than males on EI.

**Depape, Hakim-Larson, Voelker, page et al. (2006)** examined the gender as the predictor of emotional intelligence, in a diverse sample of 126 undergraduate...
participants (42 male, 84 female) and reported that gender was not a significant predictor of emotional intelligence, as contrary to their expectation.

Miville, Carlozzi, Gushue and Schara (2006) examined culturally relevant variables including, universal-diverse orientation (UDO) - an attitude characterized by awareness and acceptance of similarities and differences between self and others, and emotional intelligence. 211 counseling graduate students completed measures of these variables as well as demographics sheets. Hierarchical regression analysis indicated that UDO and emotional intelligence along with gender, significantly explained variance in empathy.

Study done by Saranya and Velayudhan (2008) on 30 male and 30 female, university students regarding gender differences in emotional intelligence revealed that there exists no significant difference in self-awareness, self-regulation, social awareness and social skills among dayscholar boys and girls. There exists a significant difference in the dimension of motivation. Girls are better motivated than boys, this is because girls have a better driving and pulling forces which result in persistent behaviour directed towards certain goals.

Another study made by Singh Chaudhary and Asthana (2008) on impact of gender on emotional intelligence of adolescents, on a sample of 400 adolescents (200 male and 200 female) from various schools and colleges. The results revealed that male and female adolescents exhibit some emotional intelligence, concluding that both male and female adolescents are caring, giving, supportive and enriching.

Mishra and Ranjan (2008) studied whether the gender difference affects emotional intelligence of adolescents (N=80, 40 male, 40 female). The results showed that adolescent boys and girls differ significantly on emotional intelligence and boys were found to be significantly higher on emotional intelligence than the girls. The higher
scores of adolescent boys indicated that they are better on interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptability and stress management skills and their overall general mood (happiness and optimism) are of higher order than the adolescent girls.

To observe emotional intelligence levels of undergraduate male and female college students (N=200) (100 males and 100 female) of 17-20 years, Nasar and Nasar (2008) made an attempt and the results ensures the presence of higher emotional intelligence in the adolescent girls students in comparison to the boys.

Carr (2009) studied sex differences in emotional intelligence among a sample of medical schools students (N= 177). Results indicated that male candidates had higher emotional intelligence scores than females. However, Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) reported a significant effect of gender on emotional intelligence, in their study on 300 B.Ed. teacher trainees.

Jadhav and Havalappanavar (2009) investigated the level of emotional intelligence among male and female police constable trainees (N=200). Results revealed that women police constable (WPC) trainees have scored significantly high on emotional intelligence than their counterparts. It may be because of the fact that men spend most of their time with peers and home, whereas, women spend most of their time from the childhood in the home, with family members and even in their later life at house. Hence they learn how to behave with others and how to control their emotions. Women are keener in every aspect and they utilize opportunities properly etc.

Furthermore, the results also revealed that the women police constable trainees (WPC) scored high on self-motivation, emotional stability, commitment, altruism empathy and self-awareness factors of emotional intelligence in comparison of male candidates. Tatawadi (2009) studied the differences in emotional maturity among male and female students studying in a management school. The results revealed that the females are...
emotionally stronger than the males. The girls score higher with regard to empathy, social responsibilities and interpersonal relationships than boys. They are more sensitive towards their relationships with parents, friends and siblings. All these traits help them to acquire more emotional intelligence as compared to boys.

Similarly, Mohanty and Devi. L (2010) revealed in their study on gender differences about EI (N=60) that girls are more optimistic and well aware of their feelings in comparison to boys. Girls are more aware and understand their own feelings (Components of EI) than boys.

2.5 STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN RELATION WITH SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

An exploratory study of the relationship between emotional intelligence and socio economic status was done by Holmes (2007) in which emotional intelligence was considered as criterion variable and SES as predictor, and measured by household income, parent education and occupation. Bivariate and multivariate correlation analysis revealed significant positive relationship except mother’s occupation and household income. Further Namdar, Sahebihagh, Ebrahimi and Rahmani (2008) have found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence score and the student’s satisfaction of their family socioeconomic status among nursing students. In order to find out the effect of monthly income on the level of emotional intelligence among B.Ed. teacher trainees (N=300) Gowdhamanand Murugan (2009) executed an empirical study and results showed that the socio economic status or monthly income do not have any significant effect on the emotional intelligence.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and socio economic status was studied by Jacques (2009) among 221 college students and the study reported that socio economic status is not the predictor of emotional intelligence.
Mohanty and Devi, L. (2010) in their study, revealed that good education and occupation of parents positively and significantly affects the interpersonal relationship (EI) of the adolescents. It means that parents having good occupation have adolescents having the ability in establishing and maintaining mutually satisfying relationship characterized by emotional closeness and intimacy.

2.6 STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN RELATION TO LOCALE


Study locating the discourse on emotions in the context of culture and human development by Sharma and Sharma (2004) explored the notion of emotional competence on a sample of adolescents (N=70) aged 12-18 years included boys and girls studying in class VI to class XII in a senior secondary school in a rural zone of New Delhi. The children lived their sharing of common ecology, facilitative of greater interaction among each other and were much less exposed to the spaces and lives outside. On the basis of open ended interview and classroom-based enactments as well as written exercises accompanied by group discussions it was concluded that the developing awareness of emotions in children as means of describing oneself is revealing of the interplay of developmental aspects of thought and feeling. The study enabled to discern the varied understanding and use of emotion in children's everyday lives.

To delineate the human ecological factors affecting emotional intelligence skills of school teachers (N=60) a study was made by Duhan and Chhikara (2007). Study
revealed a significant association between the developmental facilities (exosystem, variables), provided in community surrounding and emotional intelligence skills of teachers. The results also revealed that most of the high category respondents (16.7%) were having more developmental facilities (i.e. hospital, bank, park, club, market etc.) in their surroundings, whereas nearly about 19% (out of 28%) of low category respondents were having less number of development facilities.

Carr (2009) found in her study that Asian students demonstrated higher emotional intelligence in total and branch scores than white students. The highest and lowest emotional intelligence scores were obtained for the branches understanding emotions (mean = 110, SD = 19.0) and perceiving emotions (mean = 94, S.D. = 15.6) respectively.

Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) studied the locate effect (mentioned as community) on the emotional intelligence of 300 B.Ed. teacher trainees and inconsistently found that there is no significant effect of community on the emotional intelligence.

2.7 STUDIES RELATED TO SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Extensive research in the sociology of education offers conclusive evidence of a positive relationship between family socio-economic status and the academic achievement of students (Sirin, 2005; White, 1982).

In this research strand, it is fairly standard to define family SES as the relative position of individuals or families within a hierarchical social structure, based on their access to, or control over, wealth, prestige, and power (Mueller & Parcel, 1981), although no strong consensus exists on the conceptual meaning of SES (Bornstein & Bradley, 2003). And, as a single variable is
operationalized through measures characterizing parental education, parental occupational prestige, and family income (Gottfried, 1985; Hauser, 1994; Mueller & Parcel, 1981). The relationship between family SES and academic achievement is referred to in the literature as a socio-economic gradient because it is gradual and increases across the range of SES (Adler et al., 1994; Willms, 2002, 2003), or as a socio-economic gap because it implies a gap in academic achievement between students of high and low SES families. Scholars have shown that socioeconomic gap in the early school years has lasting consequences. Particularly, as low SES children get older their situation tends to worsen. Because of their relatively poor skills, they are prone to leave school early (Alexander, Entwisle, & Kabbani, 2001; Battin Pearson et al., 2000; Cairns, Neckerman, 1989; Janosz, Le Blanc, Boulerice, & Tremblay, 1997; Rumberger, 2004; Schargel, 2004) and are less likely to be assigned to the college assigned to the college preparatory track (Condron, 2007; Davies & Guppy, 2006; Krahn Taylor, 2007; Maaz, Trautwein, Lüdtke, & Baumert, 2008; Schnabel, Alfeld, Eccles, Köller, & Baumert, 2002). In the longer term, they are less likely to enter the labour market successor pursue post-secondary education. (Alexander, Entwisle, & Olson, 2007; Cabrera & La Nasa, 2001; Kerckhoff, Raudenbush & Glennie, 2001; Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] & Statistics Canada, 2000; Raudenbush & Kasim, 1998). That educational and labour opportunities are unequally distributed among individuals of varying SES poses concerned and challenges in societies that value challenges in societies that value equal opportunity irrespective of socioeconomi
c background. Therefore, a great deal of effort has gone into explaining and understanding the processes that configure socio-economic gradients.

For instance, Willms (2002, 2003, 2006) has proposed a framework to examine socioeconomic gradients, which consists of three critical aspects:

(a) The degree of inequalities in educational outcomes attributable to SES (the slope),

(b) The extent to which variation in educational outcomes is explained by SES (the R-squared), and

(c) The functional form of the relation between SES and educational outcomes (i.e., linear or curvilinear).


Furthermore, researchers have examined the underlying family processes that mediate the relationship between SES and educational outcomes (Chao & Willms, 2002; Guo & Harris, 2000; Hanson, McLanahan, & Thomson, 1997; Lareau, 2002; Yeung, Linver, & Brooks-Gunn, 2002; Willms, 2003); the extent to which socioeconomic gaps in academic achievement are consistent across subject areas the school practices effectively reduce achievement inequalities across SES group (e.g., Cohen, 1982; Rutter & Maughan, 2002; Scheerens, 1992); the extent to which the effect on SES on student performance varies communities and why (OECD, 2003, 2004, 2007;
Willms & Somers (2001); and how economic and political forces act upon the relationship economic background and schooling outcomes over times (1990; Willms & Raudenbush, 1989). What has been less extensively investigated is whether socio-economic gradients change with increasing age and how. Understanding this topic is crucial for policy research because it can offer insights into how and when inequalities reproduce and it can be altered over the life course. Researchers know that a gap in academic achievement between children of high and low SES families emerges early in life (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1982; Hertzman, 1994; Hertzman & Weins, 1996).

The purported phenomenon of a widening gap with age is often referred to in the literature as the cumulative advantage process. Merton (1973) first invoked this term to explain increasing success in scientific careers; his research has been extended the research has been extended to investigate stratification in other social domains. The central claim of this process is that the advantage of one individual over another accumulates over time. The advantage in question is typically a key resource in the stratification process, for example, academic achievement for school success. The cumulative advantage process explains growing inequality when current levels of accumulation process explains growing inequality when current levels of accumulation directly affect future levels of accumulation. And, an individual who is behind at a point in time has difficulty in catching up with the rest. Psychologists and sociologists draw on the observation that inequalities between children of low SES families and high SES families tend to increase as they move from kindergarten to high school to explain that learning follows a cumulative advantage process (Bast & Reitsma, 1998; DiPrete & Eirich, 2006; Jensen, 1966, 1974). They argue that learning develops in a
hierarchical fashion: more complex forms of learning build on simpler forms of learning. Therefore, inequalities at any stage create still greater inequalities at later stages. Although the cumulative advantage theory does not adopt a theoretical or explanatory notion, scholars have examined several school and non-school processes that may underlie this phenomenon.

Socio-economic status (SES) is probably the most widely used contextual variable in education research. Increasingly, researchers examine educational processes, including academic achievement, in relation to socioeconomic background (Bornstein & Bradley, 2003; Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997; Coleman, 1988; McLoyd, 1998). White (1982) carried out the first meta-analytic study that reviewed the literature on this subject by focusing on studies published before 1980 examining the relation between SES and academic achievement and showed that the relation varies significantly with a number of factors such as the types of SES and academic achievement measures. Since the publication of White’s meta-analysis, a large number of new empirical studies have explored the same relation. The new results are inconsistent: They range from a strong relation (e.g., Lamdin, 1996; Sutton & Soderstrom, 1999) to no significant correlation at all (e.g., Ripple & Luthar, 2000; Seyfried, 1998). Apart from a few narrative reviews that are mostly exclusive to a particular field (e.g., Entwisle & Astone, 1994; Haveman & Wolfe, 1994; McLoyd, 1998; Wang, Haertal, & Walberg, 1993), there has been no systematic review of these empirical research findings. The present meta-analysis is an attempt to provide such a review by examining studies published between 1990 and 2000. McLoyd (1998), in her review of recent research on SES and child development, and Entwisle and Astone (1994), in their review of SES measures, identified a number of major factors that differentiate the research published during the 1960s and the 1970s.
from that published in recent years. The first of these is the change in the way that researchers operationalize SES. Current research is more likely to use a diverse array of SES indicators, such as family income, the mother’s education, and a measure of family structure, rather than looking solely at the father’s education and/or occupation. The second factor is societal change in the United States, specifically in parental education and family structure. During the 1990s, parental education changed dramatically in a favorable direction: Children in 2000 were living with better-educated parents than children in 1980 (U.S. Department of Education, 2000). Likewise, reductions in family size were also dramatic; only about 48% of 15-to-18-year-old children lived in families with at most one sibling in 1970, as compared with 73% in 1990 (Grissmer, Kirby, Berends, & Williamson, 1994). A third factor is researchers’ focus on moderating factors that could influence the robust relation between SES and academic achievement (Mc. Loyd, 1998). With increased attention to contextual variables such as race/ethnicity, neighborhood characteristics, and students’ grade level, current research provides a wide range of information about the processes by which SES effects occur. Thus, because of the social, economic and methodological changes that have occurred since the publication of White’s (1982) review, it is difficult to estimate the current state of the relation between SES and academic achievement. This review was designed to examine the relation between students’ socioeconomic status and their academic achievement by reviewing studies published between 1990 and 2000. More specifically, the goals of this review are: (a) to determine the magnitude of the relation between SES and academic achievement; (b) to assess the extent to which this relation is influenced by various methodological characteristics (e.g., the type of SES or academic achievement measure), and student characteristics (e.g., grade level, ethnicity, and school location);
and (c) to replicate White’s meta-analysis with data from recently published studies. Measuring Socioeconomic Status Although SES has been at the core of a very active field of research, there seems to be an ongoing dispute about its conceptual meaning and empirical measurement in studies conducted with children and adolescents (Bornstein & Bradley, 2003). As White pointed out in 1982, SES is assessed by a variety of different combinations of variables, which has created an ambiguity in interpreting research findings. The same argument could be made today. Many researchers use SES and social class interchangeably, without any rationale or clarification, to refer to social and economic characteristics of students (Ensminger & Fothergill, 2003). In general terms, however, SES describes an individual’s or a family’s ranking on a hierarchy according to access to or control over some combination of valued commodities such as wealth, power, and social status (Mueller & Parcel, 1981). While there is disagreement about the conceptual meaning of SES, there seems to be an agreement on Duncan, Featherman, and Duncan’s (1972) definition of the tripartite nature of SES that incorporates parental income, parental education, and parental occupation as the three main indicators of SES (Gottfried, 1985; Hauser, 1994; Mueller & Parcel, 1981). Many empirical studies examining the relations among these components found moderate correlations, but more important, these studies showed that the components of SES are unique and that each one measures Socioeconomic Status and Academic Achievement substantially different aspect of SES that should be considered to be separate from the others (Bollen, Glanville, & Stecklov, 2001; Hauser & Huang, 1997). Parental income as an indicator of SES reflects the potential for social and economic resources that are available to the student. The second traditional SES component, parental education, is considered one of the most stable aspects of SES because it is typically established at
an early age and tends to remain the same over time. Moreover, parental education is an indicator of parent’s income because income and education are highly correlated in the United States (Hauser & Warren, 1997). The third traditional SES component, occupation, is ranked on the basis of the education and income required to have a particular occupation (Hauser, 1994). Occupational measures such as Duncan’s Socioeconomic Index (1961) produce information about the social and economic status of a household in that they represent information not only about the income and education required for an occupation but also about the prestige and culture of a given socioeconomic stratum. A fourth indicator, home resources, is not used as commonly as the other three main indicators. In recent years, however, researchers have emphasized the significance of various home resources as indicators of family SES background (Cole- man, 1988; Duncan & Brooks-Gunn, 1997; Entwisle & Astone, 1994). These resources include household possessions such as books, computers, and a study room, as well as the availability of educational services after school and in the summer (McLoyd, 1998; Eccles, Lord, & Midgley, 1991; Entwisle & Astone).

2.8 STUDIES RELATED TO MENTAL HEALTH

Robert Roser et al (1999) found that there is a relationship between mental health and achievement. Sri vastava (1999) inferred that there is significant difference between the mental health of Hindi and English medium students. Alli (2001) found that the mental health of students studying in government and private, rural and urban schools do not differ significantly. Sivaguru (2002) observed that the attitude towards
teaching and their mental health is significantly related to each other. **Clavos and Bedregal (2002)** conducted a study on mental health status of teachers. The result revealed that the numbers of working hours were directly related to mental health problems. **Elisa Epel (2002)** conducted a study on mental health and ageing. The study revealed that chronic stress and suffering women shows more ageing.

Mental health is increasingly seen as fundamental to physical health and quality of life and thus needs to be addressed as an important component of improving overall health and well-being of an individual. It is determined by multiple and interactive social, psychological, and biological factors, just as health and illness in general (Desjarlais et al., 1995).

Gender is an area of concern while looking at the mental health. Males have better mental health than females (Thomas, Corinne and Natacha2000), as there are multiple roles, which are bound to impact mental health of females falling to capture the gender differences causes omissions in complexity and diversity of human health, and errors in understanding that can lead to poor evidence and inappropriate potentially injurious outcomes (Doyal, 2002; Greaves, et. Al., 2000). Mental health outcomes differ in sexes (Finch, Kolody and Vega, 2000). On the contrary it is undeniably easier to record sex rather than measure the relevant body dimensions, but it may not be as good a predictor (Messing & Stellman, 2006). Women involved in health care are liable for more professional health hazards and infections and more exposed to psycho-social risks (Arcand et al., 2000) and its causative towards mental health (Arcand et al., 2000). Gender has significant impact on adjustment level of the
students (Arvind& Kumar, 2000). Therefore a concerted and articulated action can be evolved on the basis of gender.

2.8.1 Mental Health and Age

Age is another parameter which does play a role in mental health. Consistent associations exist between mental health and age. Family is considered the cradle of future society. It is within the family that adolescents learn who and what they are (Veena&Khadi 2004). Youth aged between 12 and 29 had the lowest prevalence of positive mental health and highest prevalence of mental health problems (Thomas,Corinne &Natacha, 2000). Research reveals a substantial rise in psychosocial disorders affecting young people over the past 50 years. Child development studies show substantial increase in adolescent conduct problems over the 25-year study period that has affect males and females. In all social classes and all family types (Pronczuk&Garbino, 2004).

There was also evidence for a recent rise in emotional problems, but mixed evidence in relation to rates of hyperactive behavior (Staphan, et al., 2004). Analyses using longitudinal data showed that long-term outcomes for adolescents with conduct problems were closely similar. This provided evidence that observed trends were unaffected by possible changes in life styles. (Gottlieb, et al., 1987) suggests that health behaviors associated with sex and age differences should be generally looked in for future research.

2.8.2 Mental Health and Region
When considering the subcontinent India, which has inflow of various practices associated with culture and a wide diversity. It is necessary to further look into the cultural issues or the mental health of people from various regions. In India, people come forward for treatment only if treatment is readily available. Government’s role lies in incorporating the formulation and re-modulation of National Mental Health Programme and the Mental Health Act. For example, rehabilitation camps for addicts in the community, rehabilitation of opium addicts in the high prevalence areas, introduction of yoga in prisons are a few futuristic vision examples (WHO, 2007).

In classical Indian tradition, health is conceptualized as a state of delight or a feeling of physical, mental and spiritual well-being, which is at the proximity towards a mind which is peaceful serene, free from conflicts and desires’ (Ram 1998; Sinha 1990).

The understanding of what health is differs among various strata of people. For a middle class and upper middle class people in India, health includes spiritual striving and is seen as a value or a norm in itself, something to be sought and achieved i.e. the equilibrium (Sama or a balanced state Samyavastha) but for poor in remote villages, illness-free bodies and economic well-being constitute health and happiness (Chakraborti, et al., 1999; Priya, 2002). The spiritual dimension of mental health also gains concern in the subcontinent due to its culture.

On the basis of above description it can be said that the studies related to well-being, mental health, emotional intelligence and socio-economic status of secondary school students and the students of other areas are available but no study was available done on well-being among teacher educators in relation to mental health, emotional intelligence and socio-economic status. The teacher educators are responsible for making the future teachers in of the nation, so, the researcher was interested to take this study.
The review of related literature has helped the investigator developing insight with the right kind of design to be adopted for the present study.