CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A new approach of understanding intelligence has been put forth in recent times by Gardner (1983) and Sternberg (1985). The concept of EI became popular with the publication of Goleman’s book in 1995, which viewed the experience and expression of emotions as a domain of intelligence. Several competing models of EI have been proposed by different researcher and are mentioned in the previous chapter.

There are several research studies conducted to understand the nature and the correlates of EI. Taylor (2001) stated that if an individual is emotionally intelligent then he/she can cope better with life’s challenges and control their emotions more effectively, both of which contribute to good mental health. This statement of his makes us wonder whether low EI is a risk for mental health. The author has further reviewed empirical evidence of associations between alexithymia and various mental illnesses. ‘Alexithymia’ is a term coined by Peter Sifneous in 1970 (from Greek it means a – lack, lexis – work; thymos – emotion) to refer to the difficulty in identifying and describing subjective feelings (Cited in Taylor, 2001).
In contrast to EI, alexithymia has been precisely defined, well-validated, and much data from studies have shown how it affects our everyday lives. Based on studies, the common belief is that people with alexithymia do not relate well to other people or cope well, and are prone to several common mental illnesses that involved disturbances in the regulation of emotions.

EI came out of research findings on how people appraise, express and use emotions, alexithymia is derived from the clinical observations, some of the studies which brought out the same are as follows.

The index of EI is how well we react to stress. High EI corresponds to the ability to effectively maintain a balance of your emotional response and thereby protect yourself from any adverse effects of stress. Low EI corresponds to being frequently overwhelmed and acting out in unhealthy ways or becoming mentally or physically ineffective.

Parker, Taylor, & Bagby (1998) conducted a study with the undergraduate students and found that high alexithymia (i.e. low EI) students generally used more emotion-oriented coping and avoidance oriented coping than task oriented coping as compared to the low alexithymia students (Cited in Taylor, 2001).

Taylor (2001) also stated that high alexithymia individuals usually cannot use adaptive coping strategies, including talking to and seeking emotional support from family members or close friends, because they find it difficult to become emotionally close and share feelings with others. Bar-On (1997) considers this ability to be a critical aspect of EI and related it to handling of interpersonal relations. Alexithymia has been found to be related to several psychiatric disorders, like substance use disorder in which the addicts have difficulty managing their emotions; eating disorders; somatoform...
disorders; anxiety and depressive disorders; Borderline Personality disorder.

Goleman (1995) proposed that the more serious consequences involving a lack of EI include: expulsion or dropping out of school, clinical depression; eating disorders; alcohol and drug abuse or addiction; and violent acts leading to arrest.

There have been several validation studies conducted, for the different EI scales which have highlighted the various correlates of EI

Schutte, Malauff, Hall, Haggerty, Copper, Golden & Dorhneim (1998) conducted the validation studies for their EI measure viz. Schutte’s self report inventory. The authors found that higher scores on their EI scale were associated to less alexithymia as measured by the Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS) \( r = -0.65, \ p = 0.0001 \); greater attention to feelings subscale of the Trait Meta Mood Scale (TMMS) \( r = 0.63, \ p <0.0001 \); greater clarity of feeling as measured by the clarity subscale of TMMS \( r = 0.52, \ p <0.0001 \); better mood repair as measured by the mood repair sub scale of the TMMS \( r = 0.68, \ p <0.0001 \); greater optimism as measured by the Optimism scale of the Life Orientation Test (LOT) \( r = 0.52, \ p <0.0006 \); less pessimism, as measured by the pessimism scale of the LOT \( r = -0.43, \ p <0.025 \), less depression as measured by the Zung Depression Scale \( r = -0.37, \ p <0.021 \) and less impulsivity as measured by the Barratt Impulsiveness Scale \( r = -0.39, \ p <0.003 \). The researchers also conducted a longitudinal study based on the preposition of Goleman (1995), that emotional intelligence plays an important role in determining how successful they are after they enter a setting, and found that the score of the students on the test completed at the start of the academic year, significantly predicted grade point average at the end of the year \( r = 0.32, \ p <0.01 \).
Various researchers have described EI as an enduring, trait like characteristic (e.g. Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Such trait like characteristics are related to one of the big – five personality traits like neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience. (Digman, 1990; Ackerman & Heggestad, 1997) (Cited in Schutte et al. (1998). In order to examine the discriminant validity form the big five factors scores on the scale were related to the big five dimensions measured by the NEO Personality inventory (Costa and McCrae, 1992). The authors found that higher scores on the test were significantly associated with greater openness to experience ($r = 0.54$, $p <0.009$) and not significantly to the other dimensions.

Thingujam & Ram (1999) adapted the Schutte et al. self report inventory to the Indian setting and conducted the validation studies and found that the scores correlated to trait-anxiety ($r = -0.36$, $p <0.001$), coping with stress ($r = 0.50$, $p <0.001$) and belief in the social relationships ($r = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$).

Overlap between EI and personality traits has been located by comparing to the five factor model of personality. Digman (1990) & McCrae & John (1992) (Cited in McCrae, 2000) found that most of the traits identified as parts of EI can be located within a comprehensive taxonomy of personality from the five factor model (FFM).
Table 2.1  Conceptual Correspondence between NEO – PI – R Facets and Proposed Aspects of Emotional Intelligence

Means Reverse Correlation to the NEO – PI – R

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
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<tr>
<td>N1: Anxiety</td>
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<td>Ability to shake of anxiety</td>
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<td>N2: Angry hostility</td>
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<td>N3: Depression</td>
<td>Happiness</td>
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<td>N4: Self-consciousness</td>
<td>Self – Regard</td>
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<tr>
<td>N5: Impulsiveness</td>
<td>Impulse Control</td>
<td>Stifling impulsiveness</td>
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<td>N6: Vulnerability</td>
<td>Stress tolerance</td>
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<td>Extraversion</td>
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<td>E1: Warmth</td>
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<td>E2: Gregariousness</td>
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<td>E3: Assertiveness</td>
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<td>E4: Activity</td>
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<td>E5: Excitement seeking</td>
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<td>E6: Positive emotions</td>
<td>Optimism</td>
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<tr>
<td>Openness to experience</td>
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<tr>
<td>O1: Fantasy</td>
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<td>O2: Aesthetics</td>
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<tr>
<td>O3: Feelings</td>
<td>Emotional self-awareness</td>
<td>Monitoring feelings</td>
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<td>O4: Actions</td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
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<td>O5: Ideas</td>
<td>Reality testing</td>
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<td>O6: Values</td>
<td>Independence</td>
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<td>Agreeableness</td>
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<tr>
<td>A1: Trust</td>
<td>Interpersonal relationships</td>
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<td>A2: Straightforwardness</td>
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<td>A3: Altruism</td>
<td>Attunment to what others need or want</td>
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<td>A4: Compliance</td>
<td>Interacting smoothly with others</td>
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<td>A5: Modesty</td>
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<tr>
<td>A6: Tender-mindedness</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Empathic awareness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
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<tr>
<td>C1: Competence</td>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td></td>
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<td>C2: Order</td>
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<tr>
<td>C3: Dutifulness</td>
<td>Social responsibility</td>
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<tr>
<td>C4: Achievement striving</td>
<td>Zeal and persistence</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C5: Self-discipline</td>
<td>Ability to motivate oneself</td>
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<td>C6: Deliberation</td>
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The above table lists thirty traits measured by the Revised NEO personality inventory. (NEO-PI R) (Costa & McCrae, 1992) and also aspects of EI proposed by Bar-On and Goleman (summarized in Mayer Salovey & Caruso, 2000); corresponding concepts are given in the same row of the table same of the correspondences are probably very close (e.g. Assertiveness in the NEO-PI-R and in the Bar-On’s scheme). Overall it appears that there is a substantial overlap and some empirical data in support of this interpretation (Bar-On, 1997; Schutte et al., 1998).

The features of EI correspond to the personality traits listed in the five factor model. This can be observed with Bar-On’s version of EI, which was derived from a review of personality characteristics related to life success more, than Goleman’s version which was based more directly on the emotional ability conceptualization of Salovey and Mayer (1989-1990). Although these conceptualizations differ somewhat in specific facets involved, these suggest that EI should be associated with low scores for neuroticism and high scores for extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness.

Bar-On (1997) developed the EQ-i scale and also examined the correlates of the various subscales in the test. The self regard subscale which measures the ability to be aware of oneself and accurately appraise one’s self is a prerequisite of emotional awareness. Dawda and Hart (2000) found a negative relationship \((r = -0.60)\) of this scale with the NEO N factor. The Emotional self-awareness which taps the emotional awareness in general was found to have a positive relationship \((r = 0.41)\) with the TMMS. Clarity of feelings subscale (Henner, 1998) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000). The Assertiveness subscale which measures the ability to express oneself and ones emotions was found to have a significant negative correlation with the NEO N factor
(Dawda and Hart, 2000) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000). The authors stated that those with neurosis may have difficulty in freely expressing their emotions, perhaps because they feel ashamed of doing so or are fearful of the reaction that they may receive from others. The Empathy subscale measuring the ability of the individuals to be aware of and understand the feelings and needs of the others was found to be negatively related ($r = -0.46$) to the TAS-20 total score (Parker et al., forthcoming) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000), ($r = 0.33$) with the TMMS Clarity of Feelings Scale (Henner, 1998), ($r = 0.390$ with factor A on the NEO (Dawda and Hart, 2000) all of which are cited in Bar-On (1997). The Interpersonal relationship Subscale which taps the individuals social skills and the ability of the individual to be aware of emotions and the ability to create and maintain interpersonal relationships was found to be related to ($r = 0.48$) the Clarity scale of the TMMS (Henner, 1998), ($r = -0.50$) with the TAS-20, (Parker et al., forthcoming) and ($r = -0.48$) (Dawda and Hart, 2000) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000). The subscale has been found to be correlate positively ($r = 0.44$) with the MSCEIT Emotions in relationships scale (Mayer et al., forthcoming) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000) and also with the Factor E on the NEO ($r = 0.66$) (Dawda and Hart, 2000) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000). This was confirmed by significant correlation with the EPQ N ($r = -0.35$) (Bar-On, 1997). The Impulse Control subscale had a positive relationship with the TMMS Clarity of feelings scale ($r = 0.50$) and the mood repair scale ($r = 0.39$) (Henner, 1998) (cited in Bar-On, 2000). The Flexibility subscale was found to have a negative correlation with the factor N of the NEO ($r = -0.37$) (Dawda and Hart, 2000) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000). The Problem Solving subscale was found to have a relationship between the TMMS Clarity of feeling ($r = 0.41$) (Henner, 1998) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000). The Optimism subscale was found to be related to the NEO N ($r = -0.55$) and factor E ($r = 0.48$) (Dawda and Hart, 2000) this scale was also found to be
related negatively to Beck Depression inventory \((r = -0.69)\) (Dawda and Hart, 2000) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000). Lastly the Happiness subscale which measures the well-being and positive mood was found to relate to the factor E NEO \((r = 0.61)\) and NEO N \((r = -0.59)\) (Dawda and Hart, 2000) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000). Further it was also found that this subscale relates negatively to many of the Depression scales, with \((r = -0.52)\) Becks depression inventory (Dawda and Hart, 2000) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000), the SCL-90 depression scale \((r = -0.77)\), Zung self rating depression scale \((r = -0.54)\) and the PAI depression scale \((r = -0.74)\) (Bar-On, 1997) and the MMPI-2 D scale \((r = -0.51)\) (Dupertuis, 1996) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000).

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE INDIAN CONTEXT**

Sibia, Misra, & Srivastava (2004) suggested that EI in the Indian context cannot be viewed as a homogenous trait, or amount as ability devoid of social concerns like respecting elders, concern for others, fulfilling one's duties. These along with moral values of Ahimsa (non-violence), kindness, benevolence, provide the very basis of emotional expression and responsivity. They are built in ways an individual deals with situations emotional, social or otherwise. These culture specific ways of behaving, therefore, are basic to the notion of EI.

The responses of parents, teachers and children regarding desirable, and successful emotional qualities related to the category of pro-social values (respecting others, being cooperative, sincere etc), social sensitivity (which include social concern, control of negative emotion and showing empathy to others), action tendencies (such as perseverance, helpful, punctual and disciplined) and affective states (such as happiness, creativity and optimism).
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TEACHERS

Studies have been conducted on teachers to understand the influence of EI on themselves and the students.

Sutton & Wheatly (2003) conducted research to understand the EI among teachers and its implication on their own well-being and the mental health and learning among students. Emotional competence of teachers is necessary, both in general for their own well-being and for effectiveness and quality in carrying out teaching-learning processes in the classroom, and in particular for the socio-emotional development of students.

Weare & Grey (2003) addressed the teacher training for the personal development of emotional competencies, based on the idea that it is not possible to teach a competency which one has not acquired, just as it is not possible to have quality teaching in the absence of the teacher's own well-being. The study concludes by recommending explicit development of both social and emotional competencies not only at school but also at institutions which train teachers.

This study aimed at examining the relationship between EI and the mental health of degree college teachers. Hence a review of the literature was conducted to understand how EI has been found to be related to different mental health variables specially Subjective Well-being (SWB), Positive affectivity, Coping and Job satisfaction (JS).

SWB
Subjective well-being reflects individuals perceptions and evaluations of their own lives in terms of their affective states, psychological functioning and social functioning, well-being researchers often use
positive mental health synonymously with subjective well-being. (Diener, Lucas, & Oishi, 2002).

The literature of subjective – well-being includes research on happiness, life satisfaction and positive affect. Throughout history, philosophers considered happiness to be the highest good and ultimate motivation for human action (Diener, 1984). Utilitarian’s such as Jeremy Bentham argued that the presence of pleasure and the absence of pain are the defining characteristics of a good life (1948). Although there are other desirable, personal characteristics beyond whether a person is happy, the individual with abundant joy has are key ingredient of a good life (Cited Diener, Lucas and Oishi, 2002).

Research has identified several correlates of SWB. Diener (1984) stated that the highest correlation of SWB was with satisfaction with self (0.55) suggesting that the people must have self esteem to be satisfied in their lives.

Larsen (1978) has showed that there is an overwhelming amount of evidence that shows a positive relationship between SWB and income within countries (Cited in Diener, 1984). Research has examined the relationship between SWB and age as well.

Early studies on age and SWB found that young people were happier than the old (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965; Gurin; Veroff and Feld, 1960; Kuhlen, 1948; Wessman, 1957) (Cited in Diener, 1984). In later years however many researchers found virtually no age effects (Alston et al., 1974; Andrews & Withey, 1976; Cameron, 1975; Sauer, 1977; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1974) (Cited in Diener, 1984).

Studies on gender and SWB found that women report more negative affect, but they also seem to experience greater joys (Braun, 1977;

Culture too seems to have an influence on the SWB. Christopher (1999) argued that definitions of well-being are inherently culturally rooted. According to him all understandings of well-being are essentially moral visions, based on individual's judgment about what it means to be well. (Cited in Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Wright (1978) found that home makers are less happy than those who work in salaried jobs. (Cited in Diener, 1984).

Relationship between education and SWB has been studied by the following researchers. Campbell (1981) (Cited in Diener, 1984) suggested that education had an influence on SWB in the U.S. during 1957 to 1978. However Palmore (1979); Palmore & Luikart (1972) did not find a strong relationship between SWB and education (Cited in Diener, 1984).

Bradburn & Caplovitz (1965) found that this relationship between SWB and education seems to interact with other variables such as income (Cited in Diener, 1984).

Several studies have found that religious faith, importance of religion and religious traditionalism generally relate positively to SWB (Cameron, Titus, Kostin & Kostin (1973); Cantril, 1965, Wilson 1960). (Cited in Diener, 1984).
A number of large scale studies indicate that married people report greater SWB than any category of unmarried people (Andrews & Whithey, 1976; Glenn, 1975) (Cited in Diener, 1984).

Wilson (1967) (Cited in Diener, 1984) found that extraverted individuals are happier, and since then there have been various studies supporting the same view.

Decades of research has shown that the individuals cognitive interpretation styles (Davis, Lehman, Wortman, Silver and Thompson, 1995; Peterson and Seligman, 1987; Taylor, 1983; Thompson, 1981) coping patterns (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel Schetter, Delongis & Gruen, 1986; Lazarus and Folkman 1984; Zeidner & Hammer 1990) personality factors (Bolger, 1990; Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa, Maddi & Kahn, 1982; Mullen and Suls, 1982; Ormel, Sanderman & Stewart, 1988) one’s ability to control events in terms of the impact they have (Guttmann, 1978; Reich & Zautra, 1981) can mediate the ways in which these stressful life events will be experienced. All the researches are listed in Diener, Fujtta (Cited in Suh, 1996).

Despite of large volumes of research on life events, the potential influence of events on the SWB of individuals is not clear (Suh, 1996).

Other researches have emphasized that SWB is depended on personality characteristics than external circumstances (Costa & McCrae, 1980, 1984; Costa, McCrae & Zonder Man, 1987; Diener, Sandvik, Pavot, & Fujita, 1992) (Cited in Suh et al., 1996).

Also many other studies found that high self-esteem is one of the strongest predictors of SWB. (Anderson, 1977; Czaja, 1975; Prumgoole, 1981; Ginandes, 1977; Higgins, 1978; Kozma & Stones, 1978; Peterson, 1975; Pomerants, 1978; Reid & Ziegler, 1980; Vancoevering, 1974; Wilson, 1960) (Cited in Diener, 1984).
SWB is related to the way people construe or interpret the life events. Lyubomisky and Tucker (1998) (Cited in Ryan and Deci, 2001) demonstrated the trait like feature of SWB that make some people experience happiness chronically and vice-versa, they attributed this state to the way in which the people construe the events in their life. In 1999, they found that people who showed high or relative SWB tended to perceive events and situations in a positive light were less responsive to negative feedback and would strive to seek the opportunities that were available to them. Therefore they have attributional styles that are more self enhancing and more enabling which in turn contributes to the relative stability of their happiness. (Cited in Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Other researchers have argued that personality influences SWB. Lykken & Tellegen (1996) concluded that SWB is primarily determined by our inborn predispositions (Cited in Diener et al., 2003).

**Relationship between SWB and EI**
The present study is an attempt to relate SWB and emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence has been defined as the ability to adaptively perceive, understand, regulate and harness emotions in the self and others. (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Schutte et al., 1998). High levels of EI contributes to success in important realms of life, such as education, work, and relationships (Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) (Cited in Schutte et al., 2002).

Many researchers have pointed out that high emotional intelligence would lead to greater feelings of emotional well-being (Goleman, 1995; Saarni, 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey & Palfai, 1995) (Cited in Schutte et al., 2002).
Martinez-Pons (1997) & Schutte et al. (1998) found some empirical evidence that emotional intelligence is associated with emotional well-being in their research which indicated that emotional intelligence is associated with low level of depression (Cited in Schutte et al., 2002).


Emotional well-being has two important aspects, (i) mood, (ii) Self-esteem

Individuals with higher emotional intelligence would use their ability to understand and regulate emotions to maintain more positive mood and high self-esteem. Such an individual would be also better at resisting situational threats to positive mood and self-esteem.

Ciarrochi et al. (2000) found a correlation between emotional intelligence and characteristic self-esteem (Cited in Schutte et al, 2002).

Schutte et al (2001) (Cited in Schutte et al, 2002) found a relationship between emotional intelligence and closeness and warmth of relationship and marital satisfaction which are component of SWB.

Schutte et al. (2002) also found evidence for relationship between high emotional intelligence and positive mood and high trait self-esteem and also that individuals with higher emotional intelligence were better able to maintain positive mood and self esteem when faced with a negative state induction and maximize the positive mood impact of a positive state induction.
Verma & Alka (2003) also found that higher EI is related to higher general well-being. Several studies have examined the relationship between EI and life satisfaction or subjective well-being (Bar-On, 1997; Ciarrochi, Chan and Caputi, 2000; Martinez-Pons, 1997, 1999; Mayer et. al; 2000a) (Cited in Palmer, Donaldson and Stough, 2002).

Research with self report measures (e.g., the EQi, Bar-On; TMMS, Martinez-Pons) have found moderate positive correlations between EI and life satisfaction (e.g. the total EQ scale score of the EQ i correlated with Kirkcaldy quality of life questionnaire \( r = 0.41, p < 0.001 \), as reported by Bar-On, 1997).

Similarly, research with the performance based measure of EI (MEIS, Mayer et al., 2000a) has found low moderate positive correlations between EI and life satisfaction \( (r = 0.11 p <0.05; \text{Mayer et al., 2000a;} \) and \( r = 0.28, P<0.005; \text{Ciarrochi et al., 2000}) \). Importantly Ciarrochi et al. (2000), found that EI correlated with life satisfaction \( (r = 0.22, p <0.05) \) even after controlling for IQ and personality variables suggesting that EI accounts for unique variance.

Several other studies have found that components of EI overlap with the personality traits as mentioned earlier; it is found that personality traits are associated to SWB as well. Extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness has been found to be positively related to SWB also (Wilson, 1967) (Cited in Diener, Lucas, & Oishi, 2002); (Gorman, 1972; Joshi, 1964; H. C. Smith, 1961; Tolor, 1978) (Cited in Diener, 1984); (Pavot, Diener and Fujita, 1990; Furnham & Petrides, 2003); (Schmutte & Ryff, 1997) (Cited in Ryan, & Deci, 2001), Ryff (1997) (Cited in Ryan & Deci, 2001) (Costa & Mc Crae, 1991) (Cited in Bar-On, 2000).

Literature review has also suggested that the relationship between EI and SWB can be inferred on the basis of the social skills that individuals with high EI possess which enables them to have better
interpersonal relationships, which in turn contributes to life satisfaction.

Austin, Saklofske & Egan (2005) have stated that the EI has been found to be associated with a range of outcomes which can be regarded as related to quality of life. The enhanced interpersonal skills of high EI individuals would be expected to be associated with outcomes such as better social and personal relationships, and the intrapersonal aspects of EI such as mood regulation would be expected to link to, higher levels of life satisfaction and lower levels of depression.

Researchers have also studied the relationship between EI goal achievement and SWB.

Spencea, Oades & Caputia (2004) conducted a study to determine the influence of goal self-integration and trait EI on the individual’s sense of well-being. The authors found that individuals who report high levels of trait EI construct more congruent self-integrated personal goal systems. Though the global trait EI and goal self-integration were poor predictors of global emotional well-being, they found that two subscales: mood regulation (EI) and identified regulation (goal self-integration) were found to predict emotional well-being. Their result indicated that emotional experiences to some extent are influenced by one’s ability to regulate emotions and establishing goals that are congruent with core values or personal conviction.

The relationship between SWB and EI has been explained on the bases of the clarity of the mood of the individual. Clarity of mood and
mood repair are components of EI and is measured as a subscale in the TMMS.

Salovey et al. (in press) (Cited in Palmer et al., 2002) also found that the clarity and repair sub-scales are positively correlated with individual’s satisfaction with interpersonal relationships and self-esteem.

Extremera, Duran & Key (2009) examined the moderating effect of meta-mood skills and perceived stress on life satisfaction after controlling for dispositional optimism.

They also found that, when students reported a high level of perceived stress, those with high mood clarity reported higher scores in life satisfaction than those with low mood clarity.

Alexithymia which corresponds to low EI has been found to predict poor life satisfaction. This association may be found also because alexithymia has been associated with impairment in the recognition of pleasant and unpleasant emotions. (Lane, Sechrest, Kiedel, 2000) (Cited in Mattila et al., 2007). These impairments may cause difficulties in judging whether one’s life is happy or not.

Similarly the association between EI and SWB be established with the help of the empirical evidence that low EI is associated negatively with depression and also with life satisfaction suggesting that the individuals with low EI are depressed as they are not able to manage their negative moods and are vulnerable to stress. These findings point to the fact that individuals with lower EI scores typically are
poor at emotion management which leads to depression and therefore influences their judgment of L.S.

Similarly optimism has been found to predict L.S. in a positive way (e.g. Chan, 1998; Extremera, Duraa & Key, 2009; Scheier & Carver, 1993) (Citied in Diener, Lucas & Oishi, 2002); (Carver and Scheier, 2002).

Optimism has been identified as a part of EI which allows the individual to put difficulties behind and redirect their attention to conflict resolution. They also espouse a durable sense of success, despite setbacks and frustrations. Optimism rests on the premise that failure is not inherent in the individual; it may be attributed to circumstances that may be changed with a refocusing of effort (Abraham, 2004).

Positive mood and high self esteem are the characteristics of emotional well-being and has been found to be related to EI.

Several researchers have pointed out that mood is a cornerstone of emotional well-being (e.g. Ekman and Davidson, 1994; Salovey et al., 1995; Thayer, 1996). It has also been pointed out that other than being a state,mood has a lasting characteristic like a personality trait (e.g. Watson and Clark, 1994; Watson, Clark and Tellegan, 1984). High positive effect comprises feelings of sadness and lethargy; high negative affect involves feelings of calmness and serenity (e.g. Watson et al., 1988).
High self esteem has been identified as a strong predictor of SWB. Many studies found a relationship between self esteem and SWB (Anderson, 1977; Czaja, 1975; Drumgoole, 1981; Ginamdes, 1977; Higgins, 1978; Kozma & Stones, 1978; Peterson, 1975; Pomeranatz 1978; Reid & Ziegler, 1980; Van Covering, 1974; Wilson, 1960) (Cited in Diener, 1984). It is also found that self-esteem drops during periods of unhappiness (Laxer, 1964; Wessmen & Ricks, 1966) (Cited in Diener, 1984).

Schutte et al. (2002) stated that individuals with high EI may be able to maintain higher positive mood states and higher SE because their emotion regulation abilities enable them to counter some of the influence of negative situations and maximize the influence of positive situations. This enables them to experience a higher emotional well-being or L.S.

Researchers have also made an attempt to relate Trait EI and happiness. Furnham & Petrides, (2003) found a positive relationship between trait EI and happiness. They also found that neuroticism was negatively related to happiness, whereas extraversion and openness to experience were positively related to it. In their study the authors found that trait EI accounted for 50% of the total variance in happiness.

Hence from the empirical evidence presented herein it can be concluded that EI is associated with SWB.

Research also has thrown light on the relationship between EI and positive affectivity
Meehl studied the ability to experience positive feelings hedonic capacity and suggested that it was a stable individual difference rooted in genetics. He further hypothesized that hedonic capacity was linked to the personality trait of extraversion – being outgoing and oriented to others. Finally, he argued that hedonic capacity was largely distinct from the experience – habitual or not of negative emotions like anger and anxiety.

Subsequent research has supported most of Meehl's theorizing about hedonic capacity - now referred to as a positive affectivity i.e. the extent to which an individual experiences positive moods like joy, interest, and alertness (Watson, 2002).

Positive affectivity is found to be independent of negative affectivity, meaning that people can be high or low on one dimension whether they are high or low on the other. Positive affectivity and negative affectivity prove highly stable across weeks, months, years, and even decades (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Diener & Larsen (1984) compared positive affectivity ratings across situations, and found that there is a great deal of convergence. People who are in good moods when alone are also in good moods when with others, and vice versa (Cited in Suh et al., 1996).

Some folks show more of a range in their good moods than do other folks, and they do so consistently (Larsen, 1987; Watson, 2002) (Cited in Suh et al., 1996).

As suggested by Meehl, positive affectivity is indeed more likely to be observed among extraverted individuals, equally so among men and women (Watson, 2002). In general, people high in positive affectivity
are socially active. They have more friends; they have more acquaintances; and they are more involved in social organizations. Negative affectivity is unrelated to these indicators of social behavior.

People high in positive affectivity are more likely than those who are low to be married — especially happily so and also to like their jobs. Stated so simply, these are chicken and egg findings; it is unclear what causes what. However, studies that follow people over time suggest that positive affectivity foreshadows marital and occupational satisfaction and does not simply reflect it (e.g. Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986; Watson, Hubbard, & Wiese, 2000) (Cited in Watson, 2002).

There are other variables which emerge as significant predictors of positive affectivity like extraversion.

Firstly a number of studies have shown that positive affectivity is moderately correlated with various indicators of social behavior, including number of close friends and relatives, making new acquaintances, involvement in social organizations, and overall level of social activity (Argyle, 1987; Myers & Diener, 1995) Watson 2000; Watson and Clark, 1997) (Cited in Watson, 2002).

Further an analyses of large U. S sample revealed that married people are significantly more likely to describe themselves as very happy than those who have never married (Myers & Diener, 1995) (Cited in Watson, 2002) and this effect was found in both men and women (Lee, Seccombe & Shehan, 1991; Veroff, Douvan & Kulka, 1981) (Cited in Watson, 2002).

Therefore those who are high in positive affectivity tend to be extraverts who are socially active. It also appears that social activity
and positive affectivity mutually influence each other (Watson & Clark, 1997) (Cited in Watson, 2002).

Secondly, people who describe themselves as “spiritual” or “religious” report higher levels of happiness than those who do not, this effect has been observed in U.S. & Europe (Argyle, 1987; Myers & Diener, 1995; Inglehart, 1990 (Cited in Watson, 2002). Well-being levels are higher among individuals who report a strong, committed religious affiliation, attend religious services regularly and espouse traditional religious values.

Clark & Watson (1999), Watson & Clark, (1993) (Cited in Watson, 2002) found that religion and spirituality are positively related to positive affect but not negative affect.

The reasons why people who are spiritual religious are happier are as follows (Argyle, 1987, Myers & Diener, 1995, Watson, 2000) (Cited in Watson 2002).

Religion provides people with a sense of meaning and purpose of their life. It also provides the answers to existential questions like who am I? why am I here?

Religious activity may be a form of another set of social behaviors membership to religious groups allows individuals to come together, share views, and form supportive relationships.

Research has been conducted to examine the relationship between EI and positive affectivity. Yip & Martin (2006) examined association among sense of humor, emotional intelligence (EI), and social competence, by using measures of humor styles trait cheerfulness, social competence and an ability test of EI. Emotion management ability was positively correlated with self-enhancing humor and trait
cheerfulness, and negatively correlated with trait bad mood. Further they found positive humor styles and trait cheerfulness were positively correlated with various domains of social competence.

Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi (2000) stated that high EI people were more likely than others to retrieve positive memories in a positive mood (consistent with mood maintenance) and to retrieve positive memories in a negative mood (consistent with mood repair). They also found support for the notion that high EI people try to maintain their positive mood.

Tugade & Fredrikson (2001) have further stated that it is likely that an emotionally intelligent person can fully appreciate the advantages of positive emotions. An important determinant of intelligent management of emotions is having access to one's own emotional life (Mayer & Salovey, 1993) (Cited in Tugade & Fredrikson, 2001). This involves the ability to draw on one's feelings as means of understanding and guiding one's behavior. However, their data also suggested that emotionally intelligent skills might be taught and interventions developed to promote them. It is also conceivable according to them that emotionally intelligent individuals proactively cultivate positive emotions as paths towards development and growth.

The Bar-On EI (EQi) measure has a subscale Impulse control which indexes the impulsiveness, explosive behaviour, irresponsible behaviour low frustration tolerance, abusiveness, unpredictable behaviour (Bar-On, 2000). This points out to the idea that individuals with high EI score low on impulse control i.e. are individuals who do not engage in explosive or irresponsible behaviour.
Evidence for the relationship between EI and positive affectivity further comes from the explanation that individuals can experience an enhanced positive affectivity through the enjoyment of the process for striving for a goal than the attainment of the goal per se (Watson, 2000a) (Cited in Watson 2002).

Hence research has indicated a positive relationship between positive affectivity and EI.

Research has highlighted the importance of positive emotions among teachers. It is found that positive emotions in teachers can increase teacher well-being and also the students' level of adjustment (Birch & Ladd, 1996). This positive affect may also produce a spiral effect which in turn facilitates a more suitable climate for learning (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

Recently the relationship between EI and the teacher's personal adjustment and well-being has come under analysis. In a study carried out with secondary teachers in England, it was observed that the teacher's EI predict level of burnout (Brackett, Palomera & Mojsa, under way), confirming a recent study where teacher's ability to regulate emotions was related to their perceived levels of depersonalization, self-realization, and emotional wear and tear (Mendes, 2003). At the same time, teachers with high EI use more positive, well-adapted coping strategies when dealing with different sources of stress at school, and they feel greater satisfaction with their work. This influence of EI on stress levels and work satisfaction seems to be mediated by a greater amount of positive effect which the teacher experiences, and by the support of school authorities (Brackett, Palomera & Mojsa, under way).
Burnout has been shown to have negative repercussions not only to the teacher's well-being but also on the teaching-learning processes in which he or she is immersed. Prior studies show that burnout negatively influences student performance and quality of teaching (Vanderberghe & Huberman, 1999) and negatively affects interpersonal relations between student and teacher (Yoon, 2002).

On the other hand, training in emotional competencies for new teachers has proven effective not only in increasing their own emotional competency, but also in predicting a well-adjusted transition from the role of student to that of professional life (Byron, 2001).

**Coping**

The starting point of research of conceptualizing and analyzing stress and coping was by Lazarus (1966) (Cited in Lazarus, 1993). Lazarus argued that stress consists of three processes. Primary appraisal – the process of perceiving a threat to oneself. Secondary appraisal - the process of bringing to mind a potential response to the threat and third coping – the process of executing that response. Several research studies have been conducted to understand the nature of coping

Coping has multiple functions, including regulation of distress and the management of problems causing the distress (Parker, Endler 1996) (Cited in Folkman & Moscovitz, 2000).

Coping is influenced by appraised characteristics of the stressful context, including its controllability (Baum, Fleming, & Singer, 1983; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkell-Schetter, Deongis, & Gruen, 1986) (Cited in Folkman & Moscovitz, 2000).
Coping is influenced by personality dispositions including optimism (Carver & Scheier, 1999) neuroticism and extraversion (McCrae & Costa, 1986) (Cited in Folkman & Moscowitz, 2000).

Coping is influenced by social resources (Holahan Moos & Schaefer, 1996; Pleroe, Sararson & Sarason, 1996) (Cited in Folkman & Moscowitz, 2000).

Research has also highlighted the relationship between coping and EI.

Lazarus & Folkman (1984), Mayer and Salovey (1997) stated that managing the emotional experiences resulting from stressful situations is crucial for adaptive coping.

The framework of EI helps us to understand the individual differences in managing and regulating emotions. Mayer and Salovey (1997) proposed the framework of EI and stated that it is the competence to understand own emotions (including negative emotions, to be able to process emotional information accurately and efficiently, and have the insight to skilfully use emotions and manage them. This skill of regulating or controlling emotions and their expression could be associated with increased capacity for coping, as there regulatory processes can facilitate reduction of the frequency, intensity, and direction of distressing states.

Ciarrochi, Chan & Bajgar, (2001) & Scui Tek (1995, 2001) (Cited in Campbell and Ntobedzi, 2007) suggested that EI is related to coping. Components of EI, including social skills and managing emotions were found to be related to coping strategies, such as social support and involvement in activities in adolescents.
Conversely, individuals with deficits in EI are considered to be impaired in emotional and social functioning (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

**Job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is the extent to which employees like their work, has long been an important concept in the organizational study of the responses employees have to their jobs.

“Job satisfaction is a set of favourable or unfavourable feelings with which employees view their work” .“ Job satisfaction is defined as ‘a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job, or job experience.”

Several factors influencing JS have been identified. Individual differences theory postulates that some variability in job satisfaction is due to an individual’s personal tendency across situations to enjoy what she does, thus, certain types of people will generally be satisfied and motivated regardless of the type of job they hold (Weaver, 1978) (Cited in Aamodt, 1999).

An interesting and controversial set of studies (Arvey et. al, 1989; Keller et al., 1992) (Cited in Aamodt, 1999) suggested that job satisfaction not only may be fairly stable across jobs but also may be genetically determined. Arvey and his colleagues arrived at this conclusion by comparing the levels of job satisfaction of 34 sets of identical twins who were separated from each other at an early age, they found that approximately 30% of job satisfaction appears to be explainable by genetic factors.
Other research has been done to examine the dispositional factor itself. Some reviewers of studies of personality and emotion have concluded that a somewhat stable trait of negative affectivity exists in some people (Watson & Clark, 1984) (Cited in Berry, 1998). Such people tend to experience more negative emotions and distress, dwelling on the negative aspects of any situation, we might expect these individuals also to be less satisfied with their jobs. Some researchers have reported that they are, but the effect is not strong (Levin & Stokes, 1989) (Cited in Berry, 1998) others have found it strong enough to be detected over time.

Job satisfaction depends on the 'fit' between personality and job. If an individual's profile of needs matches the profile of rewards offered by the job he or she will be more satisfied (Furnham and Schaffer, 1984), (Cited in Ramakrishnaiah & Rao, 1998). The most obvious fit which is needed is between an employee's knowledge and skills, and those required by the job.

Researchers have proposed that individuals make core evaluations i.e. assessments of their circumstances and these core evaluations affect both job and life satisfaction (Judge, Locke, & Durham 1997; Judge & Bono, 2001, Judge Bono & Locke, 2000; Judge, Locke, Durham & Kluger, 1998) (Cited in Landy & Conte, 2005).

The elements of core evaluations include self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and the absence of neuroticism. Judge, Bono and Locke (2000) found that the self evaluations have effects on both job and life satisfaction, independent of the of the actual attributes of the job itself (Cited in Landy & Conte, 2005).
Job satisfaction has been found to be related to one's general life satisfaction. Judge and Watanabe (1993) found that the more people are satisfied with aspects of their lives unrelated to their jobs, the more they also tend to be satisfied with their jobs (Cited in Landy & Conte, 2005).

Another factor that is important to satisfaction at work is a person's emotional intelligence. Goleman (1995) suggested that a person's level of emotional intelligence may be one of the most important factors in career success as well as job satisfaction (Cited in Compton, 2005).

It seems quite obvious that positive social relationships at work should be related to emotional self-control and insight into one's own emotions and those of others.

Near, Smith, Rice & Hunt (1984) found that the higher one's position in an organizational hierarchy, the more satisfied that individual tends to be. This satisfaction stems, to some extent, from the fact that higher level individuals usually enjoy better working conditions and more generous rewards than lower level individuals. Moreover, people who are satisfied with their jobs tend to remain in them longer than those who are dissatisfied, the dissatisfied employees probably do not stay long enough to ever reach the highest echelons of their organizations (Cited in Greenberg & Baron, 2000).

Job satisfaction is related to the extent to which people are performing jobs congruent with their interests. Fricko and Beehr (1992) measured the job satisfaction levels of 253 fulltime employees on several occasions within seven years after graduating from college. They found that the participant's job satisfaction was related to the degree to which they held positions in keeping with their vocational
interests and their college majors. These better their positions fit with their interests the more satisfied they were with their jobs (Cited Ramakrishnaiah & Rao, 1998).

The Positive association between age and job satisfaction appears to be quiet well established. Rhodes (1983) found that older workers are more satisfied than younger workers (Cited in Berry, 1998).

Bange (1944), Stockford and Kunze (1950) found that women workers were more satisfied than men. Morse (1953) observed that a higher overall level of job satisfaction has been reported in various studies for women than for men. According to him work is generally a less consuming element in the lives of women and hence somewhat lesser important to their status in the society (Cited in Ramakrishnaiah & Rao, 1998).

Generally, married adults are better adjusted than their unmarried counterparts (Srole et al., 1962; Orden and Bradburn, 1968; Bradburn; 1969) (Cited in Ramakrishnaiah & Rao, 1998). Kates (1950), Herzberg et al. (1957); Anand (1977); Balasubramanyam and Narayanan (1977); Venkatarami Reddy and Krishna Reddy (1978) found that adjustment is positively related to job satisfaction (Cited in Ramakrishnaiah & Rao, 1998). Smith (1977) found that husband's marital adjustment was correlated with women's job satisfaction. Those who were generally happy and satisfied tended to reflect that feeling in both the major areas of their lives-work and family (Cited in Ramakrishnaiah & Rao 1998).

Fred Emery (1964) proposed that there are six intrinsic factors of the work environment that make work satisfying (Emery, 1964, quoted in Weisbord, 1987) (Cited in Compton, 2005).
He found that workers needed

(i) Variety and challenge
(ii) Room for decision making
(iii) Good feedback to enhance learning.
(iv) Mutual support and respect.
(v) Wholeness and meaning to work
(vi) Scope to grow, or an optimistic and bright future.

Studies have been done to evaluate the different organizational components of job satisfaction which are as follows:


Supervision satisfaction with superiors is the second source of social satisfaction at work. Herzberg et al. (1959) found that supervision was mainly a source of periods of dissatisfaction (Cited in Argyle, 1989), Locke (1976) (Cited in Argyle, 1989).

Grove and Kerr (1951) found that when people are worried about losing their jobs, it causes discontent with all other aspects of their work (Cited in Argyle, 1989).

Spector (1956) assessed the impact of promotional opportunities on job satisfaction in a laboratory situation and concluded that meagre chances of promotion were causing dissatisfaction.

Research indicates that people who enjoy working with their supervisors and co-workers will be more satisfied with their jobs (Newsome & Pillari, 1992; Repetti & Cosmas, 1991) (Cited in Aamodt, 1999). Bishop and Scott (1997) found that satisfaction with supervisors and co-workers was related to organizational and team commitment which in turn resulted in higher productivity, lower intent to leave the organization, and a greater willingness to help (Cited in Aamodt, 1999).

The relationship between EI and JS also has been examined. Emotional intelligence (EI) is proposed as an important predictor of organizational outcomes including job satisfaction (JS) (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Van Rooy & Visweshwaran, 2004; Goleman, 1995). Research has found evidence for both EI as ability and as a trait having its influence on JS (e.g. Carmeli 2003; Sy, Tram, & O’Hara, 2006).

Further, it has been found that EI can be continuously developed with age training and experience (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Nelson & Low, 2003) (Cited in Hwang, 2006).

Nelson & Low (2003) (Cited in Hwang, 2006) have also stated that the faculty members can benefit from learning positive stress management skill.

Goleman (1998) has proposed that organizations have a necessity of supporting the social & emotional development of members (Cited in Hwang, 2006).

Kaur & Kaur (2006) examined the teacher's efforts to promote EI among adolescent students, and found that there is a need for the teachers to realize that they are not putting in sufficient efforts to promote EI among adolescents. The authors also further suggested that the schools and the teachers training institutes are urgently required to put in some special efforts for the promotion of EI of adolescents by training their teachers for this purpose and launching special programming for the same.

Same may be the expectations from the teachers. Singh and Manser (2008) examined the perceived emotional intelligence (EI) of school principals and their leadership strategies affecting the job satisfaction of teachers in a collegial environment.

The authors found that teachers have expectation of empowerment and collaboration that will enhance their levels of job satisfaction. The teachers strongly believed that they would feel satisfied at school if their principals created the opportunity to develop their skills in a collegial environment that nurtures effective communication, healthy relationships, empathy and trust.
Many researches have found a relationship between EI and performance or productivity organizational commitment (Lopes et al., 2006; Guleryuza et al., 2008; Hosseinian et al., 2008 & Jayan, 2006).

There is evidence that individuals benefit out of training for EI skills and that there is an improvement in their health & well-being. Slaski & Cartwright (2003) examined the role of EI as a moderator in the stress process. Their study involved training the managers to enhance their EI skills and observing the effect on their health & well-being. The results of their study were encouraging suggesting, that EI can be taught, can be learnt and that it may be useful in reducing stress and improving health, well-being and performance.

In their study the authors found that majority of the participants benefited from the programme and achieved gains in EI scores. Also, that this training was no different from other forms of developmental training which require individual effort and willingness to change.

An overview of the literature review suggests that the EI is related to SWB, positive affectivity, coping, and J.S. The present study will explore the relationship between these variables in the degree college teachers.