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Introduction

Emotion is an important part of our life, as it affect all aspects of life. Most truly, it is the soul of every relationship. Even Plato wrote about 2000 years ago that “All learning has an emotional base”. Being an integral and significant aspect of human nature and the motivation for behaviour, emotions serve as one of the most important ingredient of human nature. Emotion is the experience that demonstrate a person’s existence as a living being. It is not only a psychological experience, but it effects the body as well. The Oxford English dictionary defines emotion as ‘any agitation or disturbance of mind, passion, any vehement or excited mental state’. Psychologically, it refers to a feeling with its distinctive thoughts, psychological and biological states and ranges of propensities to act (Singh, 2001)

The English word ‘EMOTION’ is derived from the French word emouvoir. This is based on the Latin emovere, where, e means ‘out’ and mover means ‘move’ the word ‘emotion’ can mean several things, but most of the time, it refers to positive or negative feelings that are produced by particular situations. This consist of patterns of physiological responses and species- typical behaviors. In humans, these responses are accompanied by ‘feelings’. Emotions are intimately associated with feelings. Feelings are the internal expression of the emotion and can be differentiated from body sensations and status. More specifically, feelings are what one experiences as the result of having emotions.
Descartes (1649) defined emotions as the passion of the soul. Whereas, Darwin (1872) has treated emotions as mainly communications or means for that purpose. Later on, Tomkins (1962), Plutchik (1982) and Izard (1984) claimed that emotions are a group of similar processes of certain brain structures and that each of these has a unique concrete emotional content.

Previous research results indicate that there are at least seven basic emotions; namely, happiness, interest, surprise, fear, anger, sorrow and disgust (Ekman et al. 1982). Each of these basic emotions are, according to Leventhal (1982) both a control mechanism and a monitor for one of the main aspects of human life. They act directly through the intraorganismic, behavioural and expressive functions and indirectly by supplying input or other subsystems of the brain. Emotions are associated with mood, temperament, personality and disposition, and motivation. Emotions motivate for intellectual and social progress, generating trust and confidence by their understanding. According to Akinboye (2002), emotions are to the base of human integrity, honesty, fairness, dignity and other important human actions. Furthermore, emotions drive human behaviours and actions, and no human action is emotion free, whether good or bad. Infact, emotions determine an individual’s feeling and conditions and can set the stage for an internal sense of motivation to do more (Franken, 2002).

Historically, emotions have been largely viewed as disorganizing forces that disrupts one’s ability to reason and think. It was once regarded as a base instinct to be repressed. But now, it is thought that emotions provide information, direct attention, and facilitate the attainment of goals. Emotions were considered as higher order intelligence by Mowrer (1960). The expression of emotions act as a natural healing system for our pains and traumas as Siegal (1991) says “when you put your feelings outside, you may heal inside. And you will certainly heal your life, if not your disease; for
emotional repression prevents the healing system from responding as a unified entity to threats from inside or outside” (P.188).

Emotion is the complex psycho physiological experience of an individual’s state of mind as interacting with biochemical and environmental influence. In humans, emotion fundamentally involves, “Physiological arousal, expressive behaviours and conscious experience” (Myers, 2004). Interestingly, there is no generally accepted theory of emotions among psychologists though there are areas of agreement. Psychologists have described and explain ‘emotion’ differently, but all agree that it is a complex state of the human mind involving a variety of bodily changes such as sweaty palms, high pulse rate, glandular secretions etc. Mentally, it is a state of excitement or perturbation marked by strong feelings (Singh, 2006). Emotions are internal events that coordinates many psychological subsystems including physiological responses, cognitions, and conscious awareness (Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 1999).

We can be emotionally creative by paying attention to our feelings by cultivating certain habits of thought and by encouraging desired emotional stances in others (Sibia, Misra and Srivastava, 2004). In recent years emotions are increasingly being viewed as signals that provide information, direct attention and facilitate attainment of goals and are seen as organizing processes that enable people to think and behave adaptively (Sibia, Misra, and Srivastava, 2005). In the present scenario, the world is changing rapidly and due to these sudden changes lots of emotional disturbances are occurring as a result of stress, excessive fatigue and technological advancement. Emotions can not be stopped, they happen instinctually and immediately in response to situations and people. Now-a-days, emotions are viewed as the potential to serve us as a delicate and sophisticated internal guidance system. Even, they are valuable source and help us for making decision. Furthermore,
emotion plays an important role in pushing individual to produce and perform the best. It is critical in motivating, persuading, communicating, leading and controlling individuals and groups. But, due to lack of mutual understanding, extreme impulsiveness, lack of delay of gratification and tolerance, leads the individual to greater extent of emotional turbulence.

The suppression of one’s feelings leads to abnormal behaviour across the life span (Plutchik, 2000). Therefore, expression of emotions, is necessary for our well-being. But it is noticeable and also very important to express the emotions at the right time, at the right place, to the right person and to the right extent. Expression of emotions in the above mentioned way must require the ability to understand one’s own emotions and that of others, and to deal effectively with them; more specifically, termed as ‘Emotional Intelligence’. The emergence of emotional intelligence is comparatively recent in the field of psychology. This is the merger of both emotion and intelligence, as a cognitive ability and was proposed by psychologists, John Mayer and Peter Salovey in the year 1990. Before defining the term and describing its conceptual shades, it is worthwhile to mention its historical aspects.

History of Emotional Intelligence

The historical roots of emotional intelligence can actually be traced back to the nineteenth century when Darwin worked on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation (Darwin 1872 / 1965). The importance of the relationship between emotion and cognition was already recognized by the earlier philosophers (Aristotle, 1984; Spinoza, 1677) as well as psychologists (Ellis, 1962, Mowrer, 1960; Tomkins, 1962). Two thousand years ago, Socrates declared that the attainment of self knowledge is humanity’s greatest challenge. Aristotle added that this challenge was about
managing our emotional life with intelligence (Lajoie, 2002). According to Spinoza (1677), both the emotion and the intellect together contribute to the ultimate cognitive tool. He talked about three levels of cognition (or knowledge), that are emotional cognition, intellectual cognition and a kind of intuition. Ellis (1962) points out that human emotion and thinking are not separate processes, but that they significantly overlap and can never be viewed completely apart from each other. Tomkins (1962) believed that “reason without affect would be impotent and affect without reason would be blind.” The foundation of emotional intelligence had already laid down by earlier psychologists and philosophers, when Edward Thorndike identified his concept of social intelligence in the year 1920. Further in 1940s Wechsler suggests that affective components of intelligence may be essential to success in life. Humanistic psychologists such as Maslow (1954) describe how people can build emotional strength in his ‘theory of self actualization’. This is relevant to emotional intelligence, by knowing that self-actualizers naturally have stronger EQ. Those peoples who are struggling to meet lower order needs tend to have lower emotional intelligence than self actualizers. ‘Alexithymia’, from the Greek, meaning ‘no words or feelings’ is a personality construct that has been related theoretically to emotional intelligence. It is an old term in clinical psychology coined by Sifneos (1973) which consists of difficulty identifying feelings and distinguishing between feelings and the bodily sensations of emotional arousal; difficulty describing feelings to others; constricted imaginal processes, as shown by a lack of fantasy; and a stimulus-bound, externally oriented cognitive style (Lolas and VonRad, 1989; Nemiah, 1977; Lesser, 1985, Taylor, Bag-by, and Parker, 1991,1997). Therefore, an inverse association is found to be existing between the constructs of alexithymia and emotional intelligence as it neglects positive feelings and focuses on negative emotions.
In the past twenty years, the field of psychology broadened the ‘non-intellective’ paradigm of these early psychologists as, Howard Gardner (1983) introduced the idea of multiple intelligences in his book “The Shattered Mind”, including ‘personal intelligences’ which encompasses intrapersonal intelligence (knowing yourself) and interpersonal intelligence (knowing how to get along with others). Additionally, Saarni (1990) describes emotional competence as including eight interrelated emotional and social skills. Mohoney (1991) also states that cognitive constructivists view feeling, Knowing, and acting as inseparable experiences of our adaptation and development. In the last decade emotional intelligence has received much attention as an aspect that is potentially useful in understanding and predicting individual performance and success in the workplace.

The first academic use of the term ‘emotional intelligence’ is usually attributed to Wayne Leon Payne’s doctoral thesis, “A study of emotion: Developing emotional intelligence” in the year 1985 (Payne, 1983/1986). Afterwards, in the year 1990, the work of two American university professors, John. D Mayer (university of New Hampshire) and Peter Salovey (Yale University) was published in two academic journal articles. They were trying to develop a way of scientifically measuring the difference between people’s ability in the area of emotions, and found that some people were better than others at things like identifying their own feelings, identifying the feelings of others, and solving problems involving emotional issues. Further, Reuven Bar-On talks about emotional-social intelligence, which is composed of a number of interpersonal and intrapersonal competencies, skills and facilitators that combine to determine human behaviour (Bar-On 1988, 1997). However, the person most commonly associated with the term ‘emotional intelligence’ is actually a writer and consultant of New York, named Daniel Goleman. In 1992 he was doing research for a book about emotions and
emotional literacy when he discovered the 1990 article by Salovey and Mayer. Further in 1995 Goleman’s book came out under the title “Emotional Intelligence” which became an international best seller. Some criticisms has been made regarding Goleman’s definition of emotional intelligence, as ‘the definition has been broadened to such an extent that it no longer has any scientific meaning or utility’ (Mayer and Salovey, 1995). In his book he collected a lot of interesting information on the brain, emotions and behaviour. On the other hand, Mayer and Salovey have been very cautious about making claims as to what emotional intelligence means on a practical level and what it might predict in terms of success, happiness or the ideal member of society.

After reviewing the history of emotional intelligence it can be stated that the theoretical idea behind emotional intelligence is not totally new in the field of psychology. Though emotional intelligence is one of the recent development in the area of intelligence the existing models of emotional intelligence are somewhat overlapping with many other constructs such as social intelligence, intra and interpersonal intelligences, and practical intelligence.

**Intelligence: An overview**

Intelligence is the potential for learning something, and technical skills learnt depend on the academic intelligence. However, psychologists don’t entirely agree on the definition of intelligence.

Wechsler (1958) defined intelligence as “the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his emotions.”
Intelligence is basically individual’s ability or abilities to understand complex ideas, to adapt effectively to the environment, to learn from experience, to engage in various forms of reasoning and to overcome obstacles by careful thought (Neisser et al., 1996). Therefore, intelligence is a broad concept presumably generalizing across, many domains of human functioning. It has to do with a person’s number of ways to deal with tasks involving discriminations, abstractions and problem solving.

However, enormous researches have been endeavored to know the true nature of intelligence and recent researchers have made an opinion that intelligence of a person is a composite organization of abilities to learn, to grasp broad and subtle facts, especially abstract facts with alertness and accuracy. When psychologist began to think about intelligence, they focused attention on cognitive aspect such as memory and problem solving. Traditionally, intelligence was treated as predominantly a cognitive affair with little or no concern for emotional and motivational components of behaviour. Now with growing interest in concept like wisdom (Sternberg, 1990) attention is being paid to many neglected aspects of intelligence. Regarding the unitary and multifaceted characteristic of intelligence, psychologists often disagreed. As Spearman (1927) believed that performance on any cognitive task depended on a primary general factor (g) and one or more specific factors (s) relating to particular tasks. In contrast, other researchers believed that intelligence is composed of many separate abilities that operate more or less independently. According to this multifactor view, a given person can be high on some components of intelligence but low on others and vice versa. For instance, Thurston (1938) suggested that intelligence is composed of seven distinct primary mental abilities.
Cattell (1963) concluded that two major clusters of mental abilities exist, that are fluid and crystallized intelligence. The former refers to our largely inherited abilities to think and reason, and the later one refers to accumulated knowledge or information that we store over a lifetime of experience, as well as the application of skills and knowledge to solving specific problems.

Psychologists have proposed numerous theories to articulate and explore the notion of intelligence. A number of psychometric theories of intelligence such as the two factor theory (Spearman, 1927), the theory of primary mental abilities (Thurstone, 1938), hierarchical theories (Vernon, 1971), the structure of intellect model (Guilford, 1967, 1982) and human cognition abilities (Carroll, 1993), have been proposed. These theories are based upon the statistical method of factor analysis and consider IQ as an indicator of intelligence. According to Thorndike (1920) intelligence should be divided into three component abilities:

a. **Verbal (prepositional) intelligence**- It includes measure of vocabulary, verbal fluency and the ability to perceive similarities and to think logically.

b. **Spatial (performance) intelligence**- It include abilities of assembling objects and recognizing and constructing design and patterns.

c. **Social intelligence** – It is the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls to act wisely in human relations. Further Thorndike (1920) realized that social intelligence was a complex mixture of several abilities, or of several number of specific social habits and attitudes. He included three elements to social intelligence.
a. The individual’s attitudes towards society such as politics, economics, science and values such as honesty.

b. Social knowledge, such as being versed in contemporary issues and general knowledge about society.

c. The individual’s capacity for social adjustment, such as interpersonal relations and family bonding.

However it may be clarified that Thorndike’s definition of social intelligence included almost everything relating to human intelligence ranging from social, psychological, economic, emotional personality types, affective and non affective.

Gradually, new theories of intelligence have been introduced and replacing the traditional ones. Recent advantages in conceptualizing intelligence has adopted altogether a different perspective which has blurred the distinction between cognition (intelligence) and affect (emotion). Today the domain of theorizing intelligence is presenting a spectrum of diversities. Gardner (1983,1999) has tried to widen the notion of intelligence and has incorporated many significant realms that have traditionally been beyond its scope. According to Gardner, intelligence is “the bio psychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultured setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture”. Gardner (1983) proposed the ‘theory of multiple intelligences’ to analyze and better describe the concept of intelligence. For this, Gardner has articulated seven basic types of intelligence:

1) **Spatial** :- It includes skills involving spatial configurations such as those used by artists, designers and architects.
2) **Linguistic**: It includes the skills involved in the production and use of language. People with high linguistic intelligence are typically good at reading, writing and memorizing words along with dates.

3) **Logical mathematical**: It includes skills in problem solving, scientific thinking, reasoning and abstractions. It correlates strongly with traditional concepts of intelligence or I.Q.

4) **Bodily-Kinesthetic**: The core elements of this type of intelligence are control of one’s bodily motions and the capacity to handle objects skillfully. e.g. dancers, athletes, surgeons, soldiers etc.

5) **Musical**: People with a high musical intelligence have sensitivity to sounds, rhythms, tones and music, as found in good singers, disc-jockeys, instrumentalists, writers and composers.

6) **Interpersonal**: This area includes skills in interacting with others. People who have a high interpersonal intelligence characterized by their sensitivity to other’s moods, feelings, temperaments and motivations, they communicate effectively and empathize easily with others.

7) **Intrapersonal**: This area deals with knowledge of the internal aspects of oneself, access to one’s own feelings and emotions, people with intrapersonal intelligence are intuitive and have a deep understanding of the self and can predict their own reactions or emotions.

Later on, Gardner added another type of intelligence in the previous list of multiple intelligences, that he called ‘naturalist intelligence’, which is an ability to recognize flora (plants) and fauna (animals) and making distinction in the natural world, which deals with nature, nurturing and relating
information to one’s natural surroundings as found in, farmers, naturalists and biologists (Gardner, 1999). However, he has also considered existential intelligence as another type of multiple intelligences, but does not found sufficient evidence for articulating this. It includes ability to contemplate phenomena or questions beyond sensory data, such as infinite and infinitesimal, as in cosmologists and philosophers (Slavin, 2009).

Another important modern theory of intelligence was proposed by Sternberg (1985) which is known as ‘Triarchic theory of Intelligence’. This theory is an attempt to go against the psychometric approach to intelligence and take a more cognitive approach.

Sternberg defined intelligence as “a mental activity directed towards purposive adaptation to, selection and shaping of real-world environments relevant to one’s life” (Sternberg, 1985). Sternberg’s theory comprises three parts:

1) **Componential or Analytical intelligence**: It involves the abilities to think critically and analytically. It consists of internal mental mechanisms that people use to analyze, judge, compare and contrast, and evaluate information. Persons high on this dimension usually excel on standard tests of academic potential and become excellent students.

2) **Experiential or Creative intelligence**: It emphasizes insight and the ability to formulate new ideas. This type of intelligence deals with creativity, intuition and new ideas to create and solve new problems (i.e. novelty and originality). It focuses on the relationship between the person’s inner mental world and the outer external world.

3) **Practical or Contextual intelligence**: It deals with the mental activity involved in attaining fit to context (Sternberg, 1985). This refers to the
individual’s intelligence as it relates to his/her environment on socio-cultural context. Persons high on this dimension are intelligent in a practical, adaptive sense, are adept at solving the problems of everyday life. This type of intelligence often refers to as ‘street smarts” or situationally smart.

These emerging concepts in the area of intelligence points towards a novel and even broader aspect which is as important as the previous ones. EI researchers credit E.L Thorndike as the first to propose such a construct when he suggested that social intelligence is independent of abstract or academic intelligence. Compared with social intelligence, emotional intelligence may be more clearly distinguished from general intelligence as involving the manipulation of emotions and emotional context. Thorndike’s definition of social intelligence did contain elements like ‘ability’ to deal with people and ‘introversion’ and ‘extraversion’ types of personality, which is more similar to today what we call ‘Emotional Intelligence’.

Similarly, Wechsler (1952) has also pointed out that the adaptation of the individual to the environment in which he lives is made both through cognitive and non-cognitive elements. The non-cognitive aspects of intelligence are including the affective, personal and social factors, being essential for the individual’s success in life (Rocco, 2001). He saw intelligent behaviour as a result of many non-intellective aspects of personality such as emotional states, and believed that such behavior represented a broad concept still inadequately measured. Wechsler further emphasized that the non-intellective abilities are essential for predicting one’s ability to succeed in life.

Also, Gardner’s inter and intrapersonal intelligences may be related to emotional intelligence in the form of self awareness, empathy and handling
relationships. The fact remains that, Gardner did mention emotional intelligence as a concept to define ‘interpersonal’ and ‘intrapersonal’ intelligence.

The third component of Sternberg’s Triarchic theory - the contextual or practical intelligence overlaps with emotional intelligence. Because it is concerned with the management of our ability to handle everyday life affairs in an efficient and practical way.

Eventually, psychologists realized that this ability, which ensures the success in daily life is distinct from the academic intelligence. On the other hand, it constitutes a sort of specific sensibility towards managing interpersonal relationships. Studying the interrelation between emotion and intelligence, for the first time, both merged into a single construct, thus appearing a new form of intelligence termed as ‘Emotional Intelligence’ by Salovey and Mayer (1990).

**Emotional Intelligence**

**Definition**

Emotional intelligence has been defined as “A form of intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

This was the initial definition given by Peter Salovey and John Mayer, who originally used the term emotional intelligence in their published writing. Later on, they revised their definition of emotional intelligence as:

“The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought understand emotions, and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth” (Mayer and Salovey, 1997).
This definition is now being the most widely accepted one among so many definitions of emotional intelligence, as proposed by numerous researchers in this field.

**Concept**

Emotional intelligence is discovered as a result of series of studies undertaken by researchers and psychologists with an attempt to understand why people who was intellectually the most intelligent are often not the ones who are the most successful in life. It is the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, creativity, innovation, cooperation, communication, collaboration, information and influence (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997).

The concept of emotional intelligence is multifaceted in nature, including individual skills and insights, regarding inter- and intrapersonal factors which influence the competency profile of a person (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2004). It implies that humans are both rational and emotional beings. The term ‘emotional intelligence’, then implies something having to do with the intersection of emotion and cognition. Hence, adaptation and coping abilities in life are dependent on the integrative functioning of both rational and emotional capacities (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler, and Mayer, 2000). It involved the ability to reason using emotions, and of emotions to enhance reason.

Emotional intelligence is a highly important skill that numerous individuals have accounted for their success. It is a dynamic yet practical concept. It is a set of skills which contribute to the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion, the effective regulation of emotion, and the use of feelings to motivate, plant and achieved the processes involved in the recognition, use, understanding and management of one’s own and other’s
emotional states, to regulate behaviour and solving emotion-laden problems are the core constituents of emotional intelligence (Salovey, Brackett and Mayer, 2004). In academic literature various terms have been employed as a substitute for emotional intelligence. Such terms include emotional literacy, emotional competence, emotional maturity and emotional creativity.

Emotional intelligence is closely aligned with emotional literacy and can be described as being about a set of non-cognitive abilities that influence the individual’s capacity to succeed in life. It involves the integration of head and heart. The concept of emotional intelligence predominantly deals with the following areas:

1. The ability to understand and express emotions constructively.
2. The ability to understand other’s feelings and establish cooperative interpersonal relationships.
3. The ability to manage and regulate emotions in an effective manner.
4. The ability to cope realistically with new situations and solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature as they arise, and
5. The ability to be sufficiently optimistic, positive and self motivated in order to set and achieve goals. (Bar-On, 2002).

Therefore, emotional intelligence is the ability to acquire and apply knowledge from our own emotions and the emotions of others in order to be more successful and lead a more fulfilling life. It is the innate potential to feel, use, communicate, recognize, remember, describe, identify, learn from, manage, understand and explain emotions (Hein, 2007). Researchers assert that emotional intelligence plays an important role to perception how person carries himself and connects with others (Goleman, 1995; Matthews, Zeidner
and Roberts, 2002). Furthermore, people of higher EI succeed at communicating their goals, ideas, and intentions in more interesting and assertive manners (Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts, 2004). EI creates passion, confidence, friendliness, motivation, pride and energy in individuals (Goleman, 1998). It is the foundational character for the control of undesirable behaviour. Douglas et al. (2004) regard the emotional intelligence construct as a forum of social effectiveness, a set of skills enabling one “to read and understand others, and utilize such knowledge to influence others in the pursuit of individual and organizational goal”.

The concept of EI refers to a comprehensive package of individual skills and dispositions, usually considered as soft skills or inter and intrapersonal skills, which make up the competency profile of person. Such skills are beyond the traditional areas of specific knowledge, general intelligence and technical or professional skills (Perkins, et al., 2005).

In simple terms, EI can be explained as knowing what feels good, what feels bad and how to get from bad to good. It is the ability to balance emotion and reason so as to maximize productivity and happiness. It is not about being nice all the time; but it is about being honest with our emotions. Moreover, it is not about being touchy-feel, but about being aware of our feelings and those of others. Finally, it is not about being emotional, but it is about being smart with our emotions.

Models

The models of emotional intelligence keenly describe its various dimensions, consequently clarifying the concept more appropriately. The emotional intelligence models are classified under two categories:-

1. Ability model
2. Mixed model

1. **Ability model:** The ability model of emotional intelligence is proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997) and called as pure model by them. It may also be termed as cognitive model of emotional intelligence because it perceives EI as a form of pure intelligence, or more specifically a cognitive ability. This model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. According to this model, EI is comprised of two areas:

   i. **Experiential:** The ability to perceive, respond and manipulate emotional information without necessarily understanding it.

   ii. **Strategic:** The ability to understand and manage emotions without necessarily perceiving feelings well or fully experiencing them.

   Each area is further divided into two branches that range from basic psychological processes to more complex processes integrating emotion and cognition:

   a) Perception, appraisal and expression of emotion.

   b) Emotional facilitation of thinking.

   c) Understanding and analyzing emotions and employing emotional knowledge.

   d) Reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

   Therefore this model is also known as ‘four branch model’ All the four branches are described as under:
(a) Perception appraisal and expression of emotions

The first branch of ‘EI ability model’ talks about the ability to perceive and identify emotions in oneself and others, as well as in other stimuli including people’s voices, stories, music and works of art (e.g. Ekman and Friesen, 1975; Nowick and Mitchell, 1998; Scherer, Banse and Wallbott, 2001).

Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of EI, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible. It is the ability to be self aware of emotions and to express emotions and emotional needs accurately to others; ability to distinguish between honest and dishonest expressions of emotions. It includes the core capacities of identifying feelings and thoughts through proper and appropriate words in self as well as in others and discriminating between real and unreal emotional expression.

(b) Emotional facilitation of thinking

The second branch of EI ability model concerns about the ability to use emotions to focus attention and to think more rationally, logically and creatively. It is the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities such as thinking, problem solving, decision making and interpersonal communication. Furthermore, it includes the core abilities of using emotions in appropriate judgement and memory concerning feelings. This ability also includes emotional facilitation to be optimistic, using emotions in tasks requiring reasoning as well as creativity.

(c) Understanding and analyzing emotions and employing emotional knowledge

The third branch of EI involves a fair amount of language and prepositional thought to reflect the capacity to analyze emotions. It is the ability to
understand complex emotions (feeling two emotions at a time) and the ability to recognize transitions from one to the other. Also, it is the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. The core capacities of this branch are understanding the difference between emotions, the consequences of emotions, identifying complex feelings and understood the transition of emotions.

(d) Reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth

The ability to regulate moods and emotions in oneself and in other people constitutes the fourth branch of EI model. It is the ability to connect or disconnect from an emotion depending on its usefulness in a given situation (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). The core capacities of this branch includes the ability to stay open to feelings, capacity to monitor emotions and ability to manage emotions in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones, without repressing or exaggerating information they may convey. So, this last branch of EI ability model concerns about the ability to be open to feelings, to modulate them in oneself and other so as to promote personal understanding and growth.

2. Mixed model: This model is considered as mixed model because it combines personality aspects, such as motivation, with abilities. The mixed model of EI constitutes the models proposed by Goleman (1995) and Bar-On (1997).

Goleman’s Model of emotional intelligence

It is also known as ‘Model of Affective Regulation’. According to Goleman (1995) emotional intelligence consists of “abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations, to control
impulse and delay gratification, to regulate one’s mood the ability to think, to empathize, and to hope”. This definition of EI includes self control, zeal and persistence and the ability to motivate oneself.

The model proposed by Goleman (1998 b) focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. This model includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence. Instead of believing that this kind of intelligence is something that we are born with, this is an ability which we can learn. Furthermore, emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman’s conceptual model of EI and corresponding emotional competencies are described as under:-

(i) **Personal competence**:- Recognition and regulation of emotions of self. It deals with two skills:
   a. Self awareness
   b. Self management

(ii) **Social competence**:- Recognition and regulation of emotions of others. It also deals with two skills:
   c. Social Awareness
   d. Relationship management

(a)**Self awareness**:-

Self awareness is the first skill deals with the ability to read one’s emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decision. In simple terms, it is to be aware of what one feel and being able to name which emotion is happening at any given time. It further includes the following sets of skills:-
(i) **Emotional awareness**: It deals with recognizing one’s emotions and their effects and recognize how feelings affect performance.

(ii) **Accurate self assessment**: It deals with knowing one’s strengths and limits that means, to be aware of personal strength and weaknesses, and to be reflective and able to learn from experience.

(iii) **Self confidence**: It deals with the ability to be self assured, to be decisive and make decisions despite uncertainties.

(b) **Self Management** :- It involves regulating one’s emotions and manage them further adapting to changing circumstances. It is the ability to use the awareness of our emotions to stay flexible and direct behaviour positively. Following are the components of self management:

i. **Self Control**: It deals with managing disruptive emotions and impulses, staying composed, positive and unflappable even in difficult moments.

ii. **Trustworthiness**: Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity, building trust through reliability and authenticity.

iii. **Conscientiousness**: It is about taking responsibility for personal performance; meet commitments and keep promises.

iv. **Adaptability**: It concerns about flexibility in handling changes by smoothly handling multiple demands, shifting priorities and rapid change.

(c) **Social awareness**: It deals with the ability to sense, understand and react to other’s emotions while comprehending social networks. Following are the components of social awareness:
(i) **Empathy** :- It deals with sensing other’s feeling and perspective and taking an active interest in their concerns; to show sensitivity and understand other’s perspective.

(ii) **Service orientation**:- It is about anticipating recognizing and meeting needs of peoples and try to match response to need. By grasping the other person’s perspective, seek ways to increase other’s satisfaction and loyalty.

(iii) **Organizational awareness** :- It deals with reading a groups emotional current and power relationships, accurately read situations and organsational realities.

(d) **Relationship management**:- This includes interacting with people and being adept at managing emotions in others.

It is the ability to inspire influence and develop others while managing conflict. Following are its components:-

(i) **Influence**:- It includes using effective tactics and persuasion; to use complex strategies like indirect influence to build consensus and support.

(ii) **Communication** :- It deals with sending clear and convincing message, listen well, seek mutual understanding and welcome sharing information fully.

(iii) **Conflict management**:- It deals with negotiating and resolving disagreements by handling difficult people and tense situations with diplomacy and tact.

(iv) **Collaboration and co-operations**:- It deals with working well with others towards shared goals, balance a focus on task with attention to relationships by promoting a friendly cooperative climate.
Bar-On’s Model of emotional intelligence:

Bar-On (1988, 1977) has put forth the concept of emotional-social intelligence as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands. According to Bar-On (1997) EI is “an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures”. It focuses on an array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities that influence our overall ability to effectively relate with environmental demands, further to be aware of, understand and express oneself, the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of a social or personal nature (Bar-On, 1997). This model constitutes five major components of emotional intelligence which are further divided into their sub components as described under:

(a) **Intrapersonal aspect** :- it includes self awareness and self expression. Following are its sub components :-

(i) **Emotional self awareness** :- The ability to recognize one’s own emotions.

(ii) **Assertiveness** :- The ability to defend what is right, to express one’s own thoughts, beliefs, feelings, in a non destructive manner.

(iii) **Self regard** :- The ability to respect and accept what is basically good.

(iv) **Self actualization** :- The ability to realize one’s own potential capacities, to strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one’s potential.

(v) **Independence** :- To be self directed and self controlled in one’s thinking and actions, to be free of emotional dependencies.
(b) **Interpersonal aspect:** - It includes social awareness and interpersonal relationship. Following are its subcomponents:

(i) **Empathy:** - To understand, appreciate and be aware of the feelings of others.

(ii) **Interpersonal relationship:** - To establish and maintain positive, mutual relationships that are characterized by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection.

(iii) **Social responsibility:** - To identify with one’s social group and co-operate with others.

(c) **Stress management:** - It includes emotional management and regulation. Following are its subcomponents:

(i) **Stress tolerance:** - To withstand adverse events and stressful situations without falling apart and to cope with stress actively and positively.

(ii) **Impulse control:** - To resist or delay impulsiveness, by controlling emotions effectively and constructively.

(d) **Adaptability:** - It includes the change management. Following are its subcomponents:

(i) **Problem solving:** - To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature.

(ii) **Reality testing:** - To objectively validate one’s feelings and thinking.

(iii) **Flexibility:** - To adapt and adjust one’s feelings and thinking to changing situations and conditions.
(e) **General mood:** It deals with ‘self motivation’ following are its sub components:-

(i) **Optimism:** To look at the brighter side of life and to maintain a positive attitude even in the face of adversity.

(ii) **Happiness:** To feel satisfied and content with one self, others and life in general

This model relates to the potential for performance and success, rather than performance and success itself, and is considered process oriented rather than outcome oriented (Bar-On, 2002). Consistent with this model, to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express oneself to understand and relate well with others and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person’s general intelligence which then offers an indication of one’s potential to succeed in life (Bar-On, 2006).

The ability model as proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997) has both emotion and intelligence perspective with more emphasis on intelligence. In contrast to ability model, mixed models do not classify EI as an intelligence but rather as a combination of intellect and various measures of personality and affect. In this connection, Petrides et.al., (2001) proposed a trait based model of emotional intelligence giving a conceptual distinction between this and the ability based model. This model looks at the personality framework. EI is seen as personality trait and something completely separate from the more widely recognized cognitive intelligence.
**Trait EI model:**

Trait EI is “a constellation of emotional self perceptions located at the lower levels of personality”. In simple terms trait EI refers to an individual’s self perceptions of their emotional abilities. This definition of EI encompasses behavioral dispositions and self perceived abilities. The trait EI model is general and subsumes the Goleman and Bar-On models. Research suggests that people with high levels of EI are likely to be habitually assertive, confident, controlled, disciplined, driven to achieve, emphatic, energetic, organized, optimistic and sociable (Petrides and Furnham, 2001). Rather models that link emotional abilities to our existing understanding of personality, trait models use aspects of our personality to predict how likely it is that we will be able to skillfully apply emotional abilities. Trait model of EI attempts to isolate personality, attribute or personal tendencies that are associated with higher levels of EI. Therefore, they are not technically models of emotional intelligence. (Mayer, Robert and Barsade, 2008).

However, some well known scholars (Locke, 2005) are critics of this approach, because they fail to see how such a diverse list of traits can be meaningfully unified under the term emotional intelligence.

A distinction was made between different models of emotional intelligence, that are mixed and pure (ability model) by Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000). They argued that mixed model constitutes a varied mixture of abilities, behaviours and general disposition, and combine personality attributes, such as optimism and persistence, with mental ability. While, their own model i.e. ability model is pure in the sense, it draws upon a psychometric tradition that, intelligence must meet three criterions to be defined as such, and these criterions are:-
i It must be conceptual; as it must reflect mental aptitudes, rather than behaviour.

ii It must be correlational; as it must share similarities yet remain distinct from other established intelligences.

iii It must be developmental; as the aptitudes that characterize it must increase with an individual’s experience and age (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000).

Despite the existence of these different models of EI, there are theoretical and statistical similarities between the various conceptions. On the whole, all of these models aim to understand and measure the elements involved in the recognition and regulation of one’s own emotions and the emotion of others (Goleman, 2001).

Assessment of Emotional Intelligence

Different models of emotional intelligence have led to the development of various instruments for its assessment. Currently a number of assessment devices are available for the measurement of emotional intelligence. These devices are based on the models of emotional intelligence proposed by various researchers. Following are the important assessment devices used for the measurement of EI: -

(1) Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS)

The four EI abilities were first measured with an assessment tool called the multifactor emotional intelligence scale (MEIS; Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 1999). The MEIS consists of 12 tasks divided into four classes or branches of abilities including: -

(a) Perceiving and identifying emotions
(b) Facilitation of thought
(c) Understanding emotions
(d) Managing emotions

Further examination of this scale found evidence for discriminant validity, in that EI was independent of general intelligence and self reported empathy, indicating its ability to measure unique qualities of an individual not encompassed by earlier tests. Moreover, this scale is too lengthy (402 items) and also failed to provide satisfactory evidence for the integration branch of the four branch model (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2002). Due to these reasons, Mayer and Salovey decided to design a new ability measure of EI.

(2) Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence test (MSCEIT)

MEIS was improved upon, leading to a briefer test that was released in year 2002 is called Mayer-Salovey-Caruso EI test (MSCEIT). The MSCEIT is an ability test, which assesses demonstrable skills or knowledge; and if designed scientifically should provide systematic, objective and standardized samples of performance of a task (Magill, 1999). The items developed for the MEIS saved as the starting point for the MSCEIT and it is based on a series of emotion based problem solving items (Salovey and Grewal, 2005). The MSCEIT assesses the four branch model of EI (perceiving, using, understanding and regulating emotions) with 141 items that are divided among 8 tasks (two for each branch). It was normed on a sample of 5000 men and women. The MSCEIT is designed for individuals 17 years of age or older. The test yields seven scores, one for each of the four branches, two area scores and a total EI score. The two area scores are termed as experiential EI (branches 1 and 2 combined) and strategic EI (branches 3 and 4 combined). Each score is expressed in terms of a standard intelligence with
a mean score of 100 (average score obtained in the general population) and a standard deviation of 15. Additionally, the manual provides qualitative ratings that correspond to each numeric score.

Description of MSCEIT subtests:

The first branch of EI, ‘perceiving emotions’, is measured by asking respondents to identify the emotions expressed in photographs of people’s faces (Faces) as well as the feelings suggested by artistic designs landscapes (Pictures).

The second branch of EI, ‘use of emotion to facilitate thought’, is measured by two tests that assess people’s ability to describe emotional sensations and their parallels to other sensory modalities using a non-feeling vocabulary (Sensations), and identify the feelings that might facilitate or interfere with the successful performance of various cognitive and behavioral tasks (Facilitation).

The third branch of EI, ‘understanding emotion’ is measured by two tests that pertain to a person’s ability to analyze blended or complex emotions (Blends) and to understand how emotional reactions change overtime or how they follow upon one another (Changes).

The fourth branch of EI, ‘managing ‘emotions’, has two subtests that assess how participants manage the emotions of others (Social Management) and how a person would regulate his or her own emotions (Emotional Management).

Psychometric properties of MSCEIT- The test-retest reliability of MSCEIT (after 3 weeks) was reported as $r_{(59)} = .86$ (Brackett and Mayer, 2003). The authors report internal consistency (in the form of split half reliability) as ranging from $r = .80$ to $.91$ for the four branches and $r = .91$ for the entire test
(Mayer et al., 2003). Content validity is reported by the authors as being good, with two subtasks of the MSCEIT. Criterion related validity (expressed through concurrent & predictive validity) was found to be good, with scores correlating significantly with job performance ($r = .28$), higher levels of customer service ($r = .46$), rankings of team leader effectiveness ($r = .51$) and parental warmth ($r = .23$) (Rice, 1999; Mayer et al., 1999). Construct validity was illustrated through measures of convergent & discriminant validity. Furthermore, the MSCEIT has also been shown to possess incremental validity.

(3) Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI)

It is a multirater instrument, giving 360 degree feedback that generates self, manager, direct report and peer ratings on a series of behavioral indicators of EI. It is based upon Goleman’s model of EI and was created in 1999. The ECI encompasses 20 competencies, organized into four clusters: self awareness, social awareness, self management and social skills (Boyatzis et al., 2000). Each respondent is asked to describe themselves or the other person on a scale from 1 to 7 for each item, and in turn these items are composed into ratings for each of the competencies the respondent is left with two ratings for each competency. First one is a self rating and second is a total rating which is made up of an average of all other ratings (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee, 2000).

*Psychometric properties of ECI*- The ECI was normed on approximately 6000 respondents in the North American and U.K. ECI databases. The technical manual reports internal consistency (in the form of Cronbach’s alpha) as ranging from .73 to .92 for the total others ratings & from .60 to .85 for the self ratings (Sala, 2002). Evidence for content validity is reported in the technical manual through an accurate self assessment study in which
those individuals who were not aware of their strengths and weaknesses, had trouble evaluating themselves on emotional intelligence competencies (Sala, 2002).

Structural Validity (tested through factor analyses) has not been promising due to high intercorelations and theoretical interrelations among competencies (Sala, 2002). Furthermore, criterion validity and construct validity were also established and no tests of incremental validity were reported for the emotional competence inventory.

(4) Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (EIA)

The EIA measure was developed by Bradberry and Greaves (2001). Based on Goleman’s model of EI, the EIA uses 28 items to measure the four main components of the model (self awareness, social awareness, self management and relationship management) and takes an average of 7 minutes to complete, using a six point frequency scale. It results in five final scores, an overall EQ score as well as a score for each of the four EI components. It is also available in three different formats and that are- self report, 360 degree format & the team Edition (EQ of intact group) (Bradberry, Greaves, Emmerling et al., 2003).

**Psychometric properties of EIA**- It has three normative samples one of each version of the test (N = 13,000 for Me edition, N = 1300 for MR edition & N = 350 for Team edition) between the ages of 30 & 49, North American men and women. The technical manual reports internal consistency (in the form of Cronbach’s alpha) as ranging from ·86 to ·99 for the Me edition, from ·73 to ·94 for the MR Edition and from ·77 to ·99 for the team EQ Edition. Content validity was established through expert development of items related to each of the subscales. Structural validity (as tested through factor analysis) to determine if the 28 items clustedred around Goleman’s emotional
competencies suggested the best fit for the measure was a one-factor overall EQ score, with some support for a two-factor model made up of personal and social competencies (Bradberry et al., 2003). Construct validity was established through convergent validity studies with an alternative measure of emotional intelligence (the Mayer-Salovey Caruso Emotional intelligence test). The EIA (MR Edition) was not significantly correlated with MSCEIT. Further, no tests of incremental validity were reported for the EIA (Bradberry et al., 2003).

(5) Work Profile Questionnaire-EI version (WPQ-ei)

The EI version of the WPQ was designed by Cameron (1999) as a self report measure of seven competencies in Goleman model of EI. It is 84 item questionnaire intended as a measure of competencies essential for effective work performance; giving participants a score (out of 10) for total EI and a score (out of 10) for each of the seven competencies of interest: innovation, self awareness, intuition, emotions, motivation, empathy and social skills. No evidence for the reliability or validity of the WPQ-ei could be found.

(6) Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)

Another prominent measure of EI is Reuven Bar-On’s Emotional Quotient inventory, developed as a measure of emotionally and socially competent behavior that provides an estimate of one’s emotional and social intelligence, the EQ-i is not meant to measure of personality traits or cognitive capacity, but rather to measure one’s ability to be successful in dealing with environmental demands and pressures (Dawda and Hart, 2000; Bar-On, 2002). EQ-i is a paper pencil test that has 133 brief items and a 5 point likert response metric, corresponding to the 5 main component of the Bar-On model: Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Adaptibility, Stress management and general mood. Total raw scores are converted into standard scores with a
mean of 100 and standard deviation of 15, similar to that of IQ scores (Bar-On, 2002).

The intrapersonal scale measures self awareness and self expression. The interpersonal scale measures social awareness and interpersonal relationships. The stress management scale involves emotional management and regulation. The Adaptibility scale measures change management, and the General mood scale involves self motivation. In this way, the overall EQ scale is the sum of the five composite scales (Bar-On, 2002). Bar-On has developed several versions of the Emotional Quotient Inventory to be used with various populations and in varying situations. Among these are the EQ interview (to be completed after the self report), the EQ-i short version (a 52 item version of the original), the EQ-i : 125 (a 125 item version of the original which excludes the negative impression scale), the EQ-i Youth version (for children and adolescents 7-15 years of age), and the EQ-360 Assessment (a multi-rater instrument used in conjunction with the regular self report EQ-i to give a more complete assessment.

Psychometric properties of EQ-i - Stability estimates of the Emotion Quotient inventory (in the form of test-retest reliability after 1 and 4 months, respectively) were reported as .85 (N=44) and .75 (N=27). Based on seven population samples, the authors report internal consistency (in the form of Cronbach’s alpha) as ranging from .69 to .86 for the 15 subscales and an overall internal consistency of .76 (Bar-On, 2002). Content Validity is reported as being adequate in that items for each subcomponent were generated and selected in a systematic approach. Structural validity was established through factor analysis to test the hierarchical structure of Bar-On’s model of EI. Analyses supported the five components of emotional intelligence (GFI=.971), however, exploratory factor analyses found support for a 13-factor model of sub-components rather than Bar-On’s proposed 15
factor model (Bar-On, 2002). Further, it possess criterion, construct & incremental validity.

(7) Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue)

It is one of the more comprehensive and widely researched measure of emotional intelligence which is a self report and an open access measure that was specifically designed to measure the construct comprehensively and is currently available in many languages. The TEIQue provides an operationalization for Petrides and colleague’s model that conceptualizes EI in terms of personality (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). The test encompasses 15 subscales organized under four factors: - Well-Being, Self-control, Emotionality and sociability. The psychometric properties of the TEIQue were investigated in a study on a French population, where it was reported that TEIQue scores were globally normally distributed and reliable (Mikolajczak, Luminet, Leroy and Roy, 2007). Furthermore, TEIQue scores were positively related to some of the Big-five personality traits (Extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness) as well as inversely related to others (alexithymia, neuroticism).

Apart from there measures based on the proposed models of EI there are some other assessment tools for EI as listed below:

(1) Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS)

SEIS is a 33 item self-report measure of emotional intelligence developed by Schutte et al., (1998). It is initially based on early writings on emotional intelligence by Mayer and Salovey. Participants are asked to indicate their responses to items reflecting adaptive tendencies toward emotional intelligence according to a five point scale, with “1” representing strong agreement and “5” representing strong disagreement (Schutte et al., 1998). No normative data for the self SEIS could be found. It has a satisfactory
internal consistency reliability (alpha = .87) as well as test-retest reliability (r = .78) over a two week interval. The content validity is found adequate with the 33 items representing all portions of the Salovey and Mayer original concept of emotional intelligence. Factor analysis of the original 62 items found a sound one-factor model comprised of 33 items, establishing structural validity. Criterion related validity was reported as being good r (63) = .32. Evidence for construct validity is reported through convergent and discriminant validity, as the test was found to correlate significantly with alexithymia (r (24) = - .65) and several elements of the Trait meta mood scale including attention to feelings (r (48) = .63), clarity of feelings (r (47) = .52), and increased mood repair (r(47) = .68).

(2) EQ map

Another measure which has been promoted commercially is the EQ-map (Orioli et al., 1999). It is composed of facets such as current environment, awareness, competencies, values/beliefs and life outcomes that make up a person’s EI as well as performance, creativity and success outcomes. It is made up of 20 scales measuring EI and the effect it has on one’s life, both personally and professionally. The factors in the EQ map are related to one’s ability to remain healthy when under pressure, the development of trusting relationships and the creative pursuit of opportunities for future advancements.

Indian Adaptation of EI measures:

Various researchers have emphasized on the adaptation of the assessment tools of EI to make it suitable to the Indian Socio cultural context (e.g. Shanwal, 2002; Pant and Prakash, 2004; Singh, 2004; and Sibia, Misra and Srivastava, 2005). All of these are a good attempt to create EI measures based on Indian norms. However, some of them are needed to be further
validated, particularly discriminant validity (Singh, 2004) in consonance with most of the reliabilities for the Indian Sample (e.g. Pant and Prakash, 2004).

**Neurological Aspects of Emotional Intelligence**

Neuroscientists and evolutionists have done brilliant work to explain the reasons underlying some of the most unreasonable behavior. In the past decade, scientists had learned enough about the human brain to make judgements about where emotion arises and why it is necessary. The latest research in neurobiology has shown that human beings operate from two minds. First one is the emotional mind and the second is rational mind. The harmony between these two minds is what constitutes emotional intelligence and is the key to a richer and more fulfilling life (Singh, 2006).

The emotional mind is the source of basic emotions: anger, sadness, fear, lust, surprise, disgust and so on. Earlier species including humans operated exclusively from the emotional mind, that is situated in the old sub-cortical limbic system lying beneath the grey matter. Emotions are thought to be related to activity in brain areas that direct our attention, motivate our behaviour, and determine the significance of what is going on around us. Pioneering work by Broca (1878), Papez (1937) and MacLean (1952) suggested that emotion is related to a group of structures in the centre of the brain called the limbic system which includes the hypothalamus, Cingulate cortex, hippocampi and other structures. More recent research has shown that some of these limbic structures are not as directly related to emotion as others are, while some non-limbic structures have been found to be of greater emotional relevance. The limbic brain can be expressive and can intuit, but it doesn’t reason and it is not logical. The role of the limbic brain is pivotal to human functioning because it is what makes our relationships possible. The limbic system is involuntary and respond chemically and instinctively in
ways that we don’t fully understand, whether we are consciously aware of them or not.

Whereas, the rational mind is centered in the neo-cortex, the outer part of the brain, and allows humans to plan, learn and remember. This neo-cortex was developed about a million years ago. The ability to control behaviour and actions in the face of very strong emotions is created in this neo-cortex, which is the largest part of the brain and also most recently evolved. It is the seat of our thinking, logic and reasoning. This is the centre for all our higher level civilized functioning. It can modulate feelings and integrate them (Becker, 2005). Research done in the early 1990s reveals that messages from the senses are, in fact, registered by the brain in emotional memory, the amygdala, where emotions are stored. The amygdala is the region in the inner brain located just above the end of the spinal cord, involved in producing and responding to non-verbal signs of anger, avoidance, defensiveness and fear. It is the key structure in the brain’s integration of emotional meaning with perception and experience, constantly inform us about what we feel about anything and everything in our daily lives. The amygdala complex is composed of two almond shaped, fingernail sized structures that are richly and reciprocally connected to most brain areas, especially advanced sensory processing areas. It is also a storage place for the accumulated experience, explaining why older people seem to have stronger intuition, as life experience adds up. Furthermore, it is capable of initiating a sequence of chemical reactions, which create extreme energy. Its principal task is to filter and interpret incoming sensory information in the context of our survival and emotional needs, and then to help initiate appropriate responses such as fight or flight. The inner brain – and more precisely the amygdala is responsible for triggering the emotional feelings, which sometimes are responsible for pre-programmed “primitive” impulsive actions. This means that emotional
intelligence actually contributes to rational intelligence. It is our emotional brain that analyses emotional decisions of our life. Emotional intelligence would depend much more on the emotional centers of the lower brain, the more primitive sub-cortex.

It is now believed that our emotions take priority over our thoughts in making decisions, because the rational mind takes a little longer to register and respond than the emotional mind. Different neurotransmitters of our brain are linked to different moods. Higher levels of dopamine, serotonin, and nor epinephrine are linked to positive mood and lower levels of these neurotransmitters are linked to negative emotions. The functions of neurotransmitters are understood as information transmission and moods regulation (Franken, 2002). Besides, limbic system plays a very important role in regulating emotion (Berrstein, Roy, Srull, and Wickens, 1991). Cognitive neuroscience research suggests that human emotions and social skills depend on a multitude of neural circuits serving many behaviors, including empathy, emotion recognition, emotional sensation and emotional expression. These neural networks are the basis of emotional intelligence, which is the link between one emotion and another, between emotion and bodily feelings, and between emotions and environment (Isharupachaitanya, 2009). The brain interweaves emotion and intellect in order to facilitate flexible behaviour based on the maintenance of homeostatic boundaries in a dynamic demanding environment.

Although prefrontal cortical areas subserve the cognitive functions measured by IQ tests, subcortical systems are more crucial for emotional and social functions such as empathy. Researches had shown that neurological patients with lesions to the ventromedial prefrontal cortex, the amygdala, and insular regions display normal levels of cognitive function as assessed by IQ tests, while having impairments in social judgements and decision making
Patients with Asperger’s Syndrom display normal or superior intelligence on IQ measures, despite gross deficits in EI abilities such as empathy, reading facial expressions and “mind sight” that is, taking other’s perspectives (BarOn-Cohen, 1995). Related research also reveals, the human brain coordinates with a distributed network including the amygdala, medial prefrontal cortices, and the superior temporal gyrus, which together interpret for us how to read and react during social interactions. This network performs the critical task of recognizing people and reading their emotions, as well as understanding relationships (Schultz, 2003).

**EQ and IQ: A comparison**

The intelligence quotient (IQ) is a score derived from one of several different standardized tests to measure intelligence, developed by German Psychologist William Stern (1912). It is a measure of mental age and chronological age that typically corresponds to a given level of performance (Mayer 1998). It has been used to assess giftedness, and sometimes underpin recruitment. It has been argued that IQ or conventional intelligence, is too narrow as some people are academically brilliant yet socially and interpersonally inept or unskilled. The IQ scores are often used for selection, classification and promotion of individuals in various programs, courses and job placement etc.

Despite these useful aspects of IQ, some psychologists do not favour its concept as, Maslow (1954) stated that “the whole concept of IQ is a highly irritating concept because it has nothing to do with wisdom, it is a purely technological concept”. Furthermore, McClelland (1973) stated that the conventional concept of IQ simply could not predict how well people would perform in the workplace. After a long period of popularity, intelligence
quint (IQ) has started decline, because of its failure to explain real life experiences (Sternberg, Wagner, Williams and Hovarth, 1995). For long, it has been believed that success at the workplace depends on the level of intelligence or IQ as reflected in the academic achievement, examinations, marks obtained etc. All these are aspects of intelligence of academic significance, but when an individual encounters with life’s difficult moments, outside the classroom, a different kind of resourcefulness is needed to know how bright he/ she is and this is termed as emotional intelligence, which is a different way of being smart (Singh and Kumar, 2009).

Emotional intelligence is recognized to be one of the most important predictors of personal, business and professional success. EI competencies can be improved, contrarily to IQ, people can improve their EQ by receiving feedback, practice and correct training and guidance (Goleman, 1998). EQ is twice as important as IQ and is four times as important in terms of overall success. The term emotional quotient (EQ was used by Bar-On (1985) which is not at all a numerical test score like IQ, but it represents a relative measure of a person’s healthy or unhealthy development of their innate emotional intelligence. It is more practical than the academic concept of EI, as it can be determined by using scientific psychological tests that have been developed to measure emotional intelligence. EQ has been generally recognized as equally, if not more, important than intellectual intelligence (IQ) as an indicator of personal and professional success (Covey, 1996; Goleman, 1998).

Studies are in abundance which established that general intelligence measured as IQ and emotional intelligence of a person are far from to be equal or the same (Singh, 2001). However, it is evident that presence of high EI may ensure more success and happiness in one’s life, as well as in professional life, than having only high IQ. For a student as well as for a
worker, success can be found out not only by high intelligence quotient rather than a high or moderate level of emotional intelligence is also needed, to be well adjusted in a highly competitive world.

This does not imply that general intelligence (IQ) is irrelevant to successful business endeavour as cognitive and non-cognitive abilities, not being significantly correlated, make distinct contributions to an individual’s work performance (Ciarrochi et al., 2000). While research exists supporting the contention that EI does contribute to individual cognitive based performance over and above the level attributed to general intelligence (Lam and Kirby, 2002). Current theories tend to be more judicious regarding the incremental benefits of EQ over IQ. Recent studies have revealed that EI predicts about eighty percent of a person’s success in life (Goleman, 1998).

According to Goleman (1995) IQ and EI are not contrary. These two are separate. People with high EI may generate more success and happiness in comparison to high IQ. He further reported that people with high IQ but low EI or low IQ and high EI are despite the stereotypes, relatively rare. Indeed, there is a slight correlation between IQ and some aspects of EI. Furthermore, emotional intelligence abilities were four times more important than IQ in determining professional success and prestige (Goleman, 1998).

In view of the widely held notion that IQ does not change in adulthood (Cohen and Swerdlik, 2002), EQ can be further developed through training. The malleability of EQ may make it more important in determining long term successful managerial outcomes than the more fixed IQ factor (Tori, Nauriyal and Bhalla, 2006). Even, IQ and EQ interrelate with each other, which creates and ever changing tension from one to the other, stabilizing their respective energies (Goleman, 1995, 1998). When emotions are acknowledge and guided constructively they enhance performance. EQ can be learned and gradually
developed unlike IQ which after a particular age cannot be developed. EQ can be developed at any age through experience which makes people better in handling emotions.

It may be concluded that EQ is not opposite to IQ. Some people have high IQ as well as EQ, while others are low on either. However, it is now widely believed that EQ rather than IQ may be the true measure of human intelligence. It should be appropriate to say that cognitive and non cognitive abilities are closely related, as research suggests that emotional and social skills help improve cognitive functioning.

**Emotional Intelligence in Indian Context**

Individuals approach emotions differently across cultures, sub cultures, within societies or families (Sibia, Misra, srivastava, 2004). Therefore regulation of emotion is the attempt of the individuals to change their behaviors, actions etc. and also to adapt themselves according to the environment. Indian culture is different from that of the western culture in many respects, in the sense, that the in-built capacities develops a sort of shock absorbing power in them which is expected to result in better adjustment in comparison to the counterpart of other cultures of the world both in quantity and quality. An Indian family is based on emotion bonding which is unlimited and everlasting. Social concerns such as well being of others and fulfilling one’s duty constitute a dominant part of Indian traditions, along with social skills such as respecting elders or helping others constitutes the salient features of Indian culture.

Emotion learning in Indian context is being viewed as a life-long process of investigating him/herself, towards the discovery of true self. The moral values like non violence, caring, kindness, benevolence are actually the emotional expressions valued by Indians. These moral values provide the
basis for emotional expression and response. The Indian view of emotional learning may therefore be related to the construction of ‘self’ through the process of self-perception and self-monitoring in accordance with the socio-cultural context. Models of emotional intelligence originated in the west but it could be applied effectively in the Indian context. There are rich resources within these two traditions for addressing the issues of emotional intelligence and various strategies for altering it (Larson, 2004). The concept of EI in Indian context is enriched with highly valued social concern, virtues, religious traditions, and cultural practices. In Indian context, the use of EI concept is extremely important because Indians, by and large, have high affiliation need which, if effectively tapped through the appropriate use of concept of EI, can lead to significant gains in the productivity. The Indian traditions has from time to time and through different systems of beliefs and practices, emphasized certain independent but interrelated concepts with reference to stress and suffering. It was also found that EI helps to minimize the negative impact of emotions on failure (Kumar and Bhatia, 2006).

Emotional intelligence, according to western view, is a mental ability or skill to be acquired by an individual through hierarchical progression of these abilities. It is, however, distinguished from socially valuable traits like warmth, trustworthiness, sociability etc. This view of EI holds that an individual is competent or successful if a person can regulate the external environment. The direction of emotional regulation is outwardly, i.e. changing the environment for personal benefit. This has implications in the development of self (i.e. Independent) in western cultures as compared to extended or interdependent self prevailing in non western culture which endorse a transpersonal and cosmocentric world view (Sibia, Misra and Srivastava, 2004). In western culture ‘self’ is considered as an independent, self-contained and autonomous entity (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). In
contrast to this, ‘self’ in non-western societies, particularly in India, is defined in relation to others, as the person is not considered separate from the social context but more connected and less differentiated from others (Srivastava and Misra, 2007). Studies (e.g. Kakar, 1978; Miller, Bersoff, and Horwood, 1990; Misra, 1994; Ramanujan, 1990) endorses the view of ‘self’ in Hindu conceptions as an open entity that is given shape by the social context. The Indian society prefers social identity to highly preferred self accomplishments evaluation in the western agenda of self actualization. As for, peace of mind and being free of worries have been emphasized as aspects of self in India (Roland, 1984). The private self is more organized around ‘we’, ‘our’ and ‘us’ in India than in west. India posses a collectivistic culture, where mostly life-long intimate relationships are the basis for living. Here the people develop “a morality of caring which emphasizes broad and relatively non-contingent interpersonal obligations, a familiar view of interpersonal relationships, and a contextual sensitivity” (Miller, 1994). These moral values determine the emotional responsivity which are culture specific (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Sibia, Srivastava and Misra (2003, 2004, 2005) have proposed a model of emotional intelligence in Indian cultural context. This model has five dimensions:

1) **Social sensitivity**: showing respect for significant others, prosocial activities, expressing and experiencing affection, building social support for oneself, and expression and control of negative emotions.

2) **Time orientation**: preparedness to meet future contingencies and ability to monitor progress in one’s life course.

3) **Prosocial values**: values related to the welfare of the society such as patience, affect, tolerance, kindness, endurance etc.
4) **Action tendencies:** competencies such as persistence, dedication, discipline, punctuality etc.

5) **Affective states:** quality of emotional life such as, being happy, contended, creative, open to exposure, optimism etc.

The Indian tradition has emphasized some independent but interrelated concepts in relation to stress and suffering, from time to time and through different religions and health customs. These are Detachment, Impulse control, and Transcendence (Palsane and Lam, 1996). One of the important among these is the principle of ‘Detachment’, which involves one viewing pleasure as well as suffering with equanimity; that means, neither being too involved in the objects of pleasure and nor being too concerned about avoidance of suffering or pair. This is seen as part of one’s essential nature and this helps to minimize the emotional impact of success and failure (Paranjpe, 1996). It is the foundation for emotional stability. Next is the concept of ‘impulse control’, which is related to the theme of desires. The religious practices in Indian culture help an individual to develop this one. These virtues of Detachment and Impulse control are combined in the ‘Bhagvadgita’ describing this a personality type called ‘Sthitaprajna’ which refers to “one whose intellect is stable”. The empirical evidence to support this view is drawn by Naidu, 1986; Srivastava, Naidu and Misra, 1986. Further, ‘Transcendence’ implies consideration of something beyond oneself, of other people, other things and the world. This type of thinking takes one away from one’s selfishness and is therefore, consistent with the course of development of a civilization from one’s own self to a larger collective self.

Eventually it may be realized that the concept of EI has linkages with the indigenous thinking of self-control. For example, the concept of ‘Jitendriya’ refers to a person’s ability to manage and regulate one’s emotions. Such
person has full control over his impulses and actions. Similarly, the concept of ‘Nishkam karma’ also refers to the quality of non-attachment, which may be viewed as emotional self-regulation central to cognitive functioning and health. In addition to this, certain religious practices as conceived in Indian tradition help an individual to control and regulate his emotions by own. Consequently, these moral values and cultural traditions provide a frame for emotional competencies.

**Importance of Emotional Intelligence**

Emotional intelligence plays a very important role in our emotional social and personal life. By developing EI in childhood stage, one can make a happier and more successful adult. During stressful and terrible situations “emotionally intelligent” people manage their emotions better and react with clearer, more rational minds and make better decisions. In difficult situations, transmitting positive emotions can help people cope with negative circumstances. EI moderates conflict by promoting understanding and relationships, and fostering stability, continuity and harmony. It also links strongly with concepts of love and spirituality. EI adds emotional stability that makes us more capable and efficient in establishing successful interpersonal relationships as, it is a requirement for dispute resolution.

When EQ is high, one is able to experience feelings fully as they happen. Emotional awareness brings inner world into focus which enables the person to make good choices and how to strike a mutually healthy balance between own needs and that of others. Some of the characteristics of those with high EQ, as identified by Hein (1996), encompassed clarity in thoughts and expressions, high optimism, ability to read non-verbal communication, emotional resilience, moral autonomy and high levels of self-motivation. Those people having high emotional intelligence balance their feelings with
reason, logic and reality. People with high EQ know the art of expressing emotions as much as controlling them (Barsade, 1998) whereas, people with lower EQ tend to blame others for their feelings and do not articulate their feelings and are more prone to criticize and judge others.

**Applications of Emotional Intelligence**

The concept of emotional intelligence has found a number of different applications apart from the psychological research arenas. Nowadays, professional, educational and community institutions have integrated different aspects of EI into their organizations in order to promote more productive working relationships, thereby, gaining better outcomes and enhancing personal satisfaction. EI has been identified as one of the important behavioral constructs considered to be a major contributor to performance (Goleman, 1995, 1998; Hay group, 2003). Professionally hiring and training a staff with high EI is thought to be helpful in optimizing productivity, teamwork and overall employee satisfaction. It was claimed that EI accounts for 85 to 90 percent of outstanding performance in the top management, resulting in 20 percent more earning for companies (Goleman, 1998; Kemper 1999; Watkin, 2000). EI has also evoked a keen interest among practitioners because of its wide applicability to lots of work place issues including job satisfaction, absenteeism, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Gates,1995; Megerian and Sosik, 1996; Sosik and Magerian, 1996; Wright and Staw,1999). It is more relevant to important work related outcomes such as individual performance, organizational productivity and developing people because its principles provide a new way to understand and assess the behaviors, attitudes, management styles, interpersonal skills and potential of people. Stress tolerance, leadership, communication, social responsibility, collaboration, creativity and self actualization, all require high emotional
intelligence. Moreover, it is an increasingly important consideration in human resource planning, job profiling, recruitment, interviewing and selection, learning and development, client relations and customer service among others (Serrat, 2009).

Emphasis on EI in the educational field, as in classroom focuses on problem solving, conflict resolution, empathy, coping and communication skills. It is also frequently implemented in violence prevention programs. Additionally, it is valuable in healthcare settings, where both patients and healthcare providers are emotionally charged and stressful as a result of anxiety which arise from physical emotional and perhaps financial challenges (in case of patients) and feeling of under supported, over worked or insufficiently equipped to handle daily challenges (in case of healthcare staff). Application of EI approach may help staff members to more easily and effectively adapt to change and also to meet patient needs.

**Enhancement of Emotional Intelligence**

Emotional intelligence is recognized to be one of the most important predictor of personal and professional success. With appropriate education and training, emotional intelligence can be developed over our lifespan (Becker, 2005). It is the human ability to align instincts, emotions and thoughts that gives us the capacity to increase our emotional intelligence. As emotional intelligence is a skill not a trait and through training and intervention, one can develop a deep understanding of oneself and others, so becoming emotionally matured. Levels of emotional intelligence, measured as an emotional intelligence quotient (EQ), can be improved at any time through appropriate training. In a series of longitudinal studies it was shown that people can change their EI competencies over two to five years (Boyatzis, 2000). New research by the Hay Group has also established that
managers and executives can effectively enhance critical EI competencies through a combination of workshops and ongoing personal development (see http://www.Haygroup.co.uk/expertise/downloads/developing_EI_blindspots.pdf). EI skills can be learned and developed, further modified and enhanced, which requires the elimination of previously learned undesirable behavior and embrace the new, desirable behaviors in oneself. Helping people to use new emotional management skills requires the application, over a time period of improved, sustained and reinforced personal skills that manifest themselves in new, positive behaviors. If the emotional competencies are harnessed appropriately, the overall EQ of a person can be enhanced.

By developing active emotional awareness, that means fully experiencing every emotion we feel everyday and further using it along with our powers of cognition to set a course in life takes acute sensitivity. Studies revealed that training which developed EI skills helped people to learn and use new emotionally analytical or technical skill enhancement (Stock, 2001). It further revealed that after attending a conventional training program for one to three days, people learnt to use new emotional management skills. Emotional intelligence is an ability which when intervened properly can be developed or attained. In the various dimensions of EI, the ‘self’ has a very important role. If an individual takes the responsibility of judging, analyzing, and correcting himself, he can surely attain high EQ, which in turn will improve his meaning in life. It will also help him to make effective interpersonal adjustments and increase his adaptive functioning (Pareek, Mittal, Hingar, and Kaur, 2005). Furthermore, one can boost his own EQ by learning how to rapidly reduce stress, connect to one’s emotions, communicate nonverbally, use humor and play to deal with challenges, by diffusing conflicts with confidence and self assurance (www.helpguide.org).
Emotional intelligence may not be learned in the standard intellectual way, while it must be learned and understood on an emotional level. For this we need to engage the emotional parts of the brain in ways that connect us to others. The development of EI depends on sensory, nonverbal learning and life practice. EI increases when people commit themselves to building practical competencies in the context of everyday situations. Nowadays individuals need to learn how to intelligently use emotional happenings as a guide, and they need to learn how to regulate them so they will not be controlled by undesirable emotions. For this they need to evaluate their emotional demands. Just controlling emotions, or getting rid of them is not going to be fair enough. In fact, peoples need to be helped to learn that some emotions should be expressed out loud, others need to be controlled, others reflected on, and still others are best allowed and used to guide decision and action (Greenberg, 2004). A specific emotional intelligence course could include instructions and actual practice in some of the following areas related to emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998; Petrides and Furnham, 2006) : assertiveness; adaptability; emotion expression; emotion regulation; emotion management (others); emotion perception (self and others); impulsiveness; relationships; self-esteem; self-motivation; social awareness; stress management; trait optimism; trait happiness; trait empathy; networking; organizational citizenship behavior; sensing/reading subtle emotional cues; inspiring/influencing others; managing time and priorities; negotiating; managing conflict and recognizing personality traits in others.

Training programs aimed at improving emotional intelligence can occur in several different areas of training and development within an organization, including management training, communication and empathy training, conflict resolution and stress management training as well as self-management training and training provided to unemployed workers.
(Cherniss, 2000). Many programs and initiatives have been developed for use in organizational settings in an effort to improve the EI of staff and management, for instance, ‘Mastering Emotional Intelligence Program (MEI)’, by Goleman and Boyatzis, 2001; Emotional Competence Training Program (by American Express Financial Advisors); Customized Leadership Development Program (by Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee, 2002).

A Brief Introduction of the Independent Variables

The present study is aimed at investigating the role of some psycho-social factors in determining the level of emotional intelligence among the adolescent boys and girls. For this purpose, some psycho-social factors viz. Aggression, self-concept, extraversion, neuroticism, home-environment, social support, sex, and locale, were taken as independent variables to see their influence upon the dependent variable i.e. emotional intelligence. Following is the brief introduction of the independent variables included in the study:

Psychological Variables

1. Aggression

Aggression is overt behavior intended to inflict damage on another individual either physically, or verbally or to destroy property. It is influenced by a variety of internal and external factors. It is often due to a conflict between the interests of two or more individuals. Human aggression is any behavior directed toward another individual that is carried out with the proximate (immediate) intent to cause harm (Bushman and Anderson, 2001; Baron and Richardson, 1994). The term aggression has so many meanings and connotations, that it is so difficult to define the term. McDougall attributed aggression to the instinct of pugnacity in man so that he is by
nature prone to fight. Dollard et al. (1939) defined aggression as an act whose goal response is injury to an organism. Aggression was thus regarded as response directed towards the infliction of injury; the injury may be mental as well as of physical nature and the target of aggression may be animate as well as inanimate. Human aggression has historically been conceived as being impulsive, thoughtless, driven by anger, having the ultimate motive of harming the target and occurring as a reaction to some perceived provocation. It is sometimes called affective, impulsive or reactive aggression (Berkowitz, 1993; Geen, 2001).

Aggression is a potential problem area of life that negatively affects relationships. It was found to be associated with difficulties to adjust. Aggression involves the emotion of anger and needs to be understood and converted to the emotional skill of anger control and management. Anger control and management is a key emotional skill essential to the healthy and constructive expression of anger in relationship to self and others. Simply viewing, aggression is behavior that is socially defined as injurious to health. It may be ‘hostile’ and ‘instrumental’. Hostile aggression has conceived as the deliberate infliction of injury or suffering up-on another. While, instrumental aggression is conceived as a premediated means of obtaining some goal other than harming the victim, and being proactive rather than reactive (Berkowitz, 1993; Geen, 2001).

Drive theories suggests that aggression stems from externally elicited drives to harm or injure others. The most famous supporter of this theory was Sigmund Freud, who held that aggression stems mainly from a powerful death wish (thanatos) possessed by all persons. This instinct initially aimed at self-destruction but it soon redirected outward, toward others. Freud considered aggression as an innate drive, similar to hunger and thirst drives that builds up until it is released. During the last decade, the study of
adolescent aggressive behavior has increasingly focused upon the fact that aggression is not only physical by its nature, but it may take a wide variety of forms. Adolescents were significantly more aggressive in their reactions to frustration than were adults (Malviya, 1977). Connor (2002) suggested four subtypes of aggressive behaviors which are defensive, offensive, rational and harmful. Defensive aggression is a reaction to danger and it is impulsive and higher vigilant. This kind of aggression is related to peer rejection and exposure to violence. Depression, social withdrawal, anxiety, fear and fighting are associated to defensive aggression and it may result from harsh parental discipline, family instability or abuse. While, offensive aggression is motivated by reward (e.g. dominance, territory, food etc.). Harming a victim’s relation with other is relational aggression and suicidal ideation is linked to harmful aggression to oneself (Connor, 2002). Aggressive behavior appears to stem from a wide range of social, personal and situational factors. Research findings indicate that all of these factors can play a role in human aggression. Social determinants of aggression includes, frustration, provocation (e.g. insults, slights, other forms of verbal aggression, physical aggression, interference with one’s attempt to attain goal, and so on), displaced aggression, media violence, and aggressive cues. Personal determinants of aggression includes all the characteristics a person brings to the situation, such as personality traits, attitudes, genetic predispositions. While, situational factors includes pain and discomfort, drugs, incentives etc. various drugs such as alcohol and caffeine can also increase aggression (Bushman, 1993). Likewise consuming alcohol can increase aggression and appears in individual normally show low levels of aggression. Most psychologists today believe that human aggression is largely a learned response, and that there is no innate aggressive drive that periodically builds up until it is released (Laub and Lawritson, 1993). One way we learn aggression is by observing aggressive models, especially those, who get what
they want after behaving aggressively (Bredemeir and Sheilds, 1985). Children who grow up in homes where aggression and violence are prevalent are at particular risk. Children who witness domestic violence learn aggressive behavior and are more likely to behave aggressively in future whenever they believe that violence will serve their purposes (Feldman et al., 1995). Findings by Patrick, Bradely and Lang, (1993), stated that aggression may linked to disorders in neural mechanisms that regulate our emotions. Since it is widely related with emotions, therefore it seems to be an important factor in determining emotional behavior of an individual.

2. Self-concept

Self-concept is an important attribute of understanding and predicting behavior. It may be thought of as an organized configuration of perception of the self, which are admissible to awareness. According to Jersild (1960), “It is a composite of a person’s thoughts and feelings, strivings and hopes, fears and fantasies, his views of what he is, what he has been, what he might become, and his attitudes pertaining to his worth.” Self-concept is the more or less organized perceptual object resulting from present and past self observation. It is what a person believes about himself. It is the cognitive-affective map of an individual which helps him in understanding himself, especially during moments of crises or choices. When a person feels good about himself in any terms whether it is physical appearance, love, achievement, economic status, he approves himself, feels more cheerful, energetic, tolerant, forgiving and caring. On the contrary, if a person sees himself as falling short, he tends to feel inferior, guilty and insecure. All these affect his self. It has been assumed that the pattern of self-concept, which an individual possesses, depends on his degree of psychological adjustment along with a number of dimensions such as personality type and level of anxiety.
Ambron (1975) defined self-concept as the description of oneself including a person’s mental image of a physical self, his expectations about his own behavior and other such expressions of the person’s sense of himself. Bandura (1977) found self-concept as a very important component responsible for the personality of an individual. In broad term it can be defined as person’s perception of himself. These perceptions are formed through his experience with his environment and are influenced especially by environmental reinforcements and significant others.

According to developmental psychologists, age is considered to be a very important factor in self-concept. In fact some believe that self-concept is developed before the age of five and remain basically constant (Wylie, 1961). Changes in the individual self-concept may occur at any time during his life but specifically they occur at the beginning of each developmental phase. The idea of self-concept and changes in self-concept are central to the psychology of adolescence. Adolescence has been considered as a time when self-concept increases in prominence. The development of self-concept completed in early childhood. The adolescent is faced with sometimes difficult task of forming and maintaining a coherent sense of who he is and what purpose he will ultimately serve in this world. The self-concept appears to play critical role in general psychological adjustment among adolescents. There is substantial evidence that those who make good adjustment have stable and realistic self-concept (McDuit, 1950). Rosenberg’s (1972), extensive study on children between 8-18 years made some generalizations regarding the development of self-concept. Primarily it was found that early adolescence represent a period of turmoil and stress in terms of the self-concept. At this time, the individual tends to experience lower self esteem, high self consciousness, and feelings of instability regarding the self. At the same time he feels unhappy. Whereas, Marsh et al. (1983) found that self-concept is relatively stable even for pre-
adolescent children. They also found that changes in self-concept were systematic and reliable and there is a clear logical and predictable ordering of self-concept factors. Children’s self-concept plays a very important role in moulding and shaping their psychosocial behavior and overall adjustment. The self is continually modified, undergoing elaboration as the individual moves through successive phases of development. As the adolescence progresses, the self-concept usually becomes more stable. Physical changes, skill developments, skill evaluations and multiple role expectations are the main sources for the development of self-concept. The self-concept is associated with some personal characteristics- temperament, motivation, intelligence and talents, which interact with social and physical environment. Thus, the personal identification depends upon the individual’s value system, creativity and his/her previous creative imagination. An individual’s evaluations depend upon, the way in which he thinks and also how others view him and these two aspects of self esteem constitutes the whole self of the individual. Furthermore, the dimensions of self-concept constitutes of, health and physique, temperamental qualities, academic status, intellectual abilities, habits and behavior, emotional tendencies, mental health, and socio-economic status (Sherry, Verma and Goswami, 1988). The study of self-concept during adolescence is very important. Because of their growing autonomy and physical strength, adolescence acquired a sense of freedom. Their self-concept is built on limited experience and it is tough for them to relate themselves with changed social world. The adolescent’s self-concept is also importantly affects his capacity to cope with his personal and non personal environment. If he thinks of himself as competent and successful, he is likely to persist longer against difficulty.
3. Extraversion and Neuroticism

Each person is unique and complex with his/her own characteristics, abilities, preferences, opinion etc. which comprises a personality. “A personality is a product of the dynamic and characteristic organization within the individual of psychological structures, or system and their interaction with the environment (Allport, 1961). It is a two-way process dynamically relating the person and his environment. Hence, it can be meaningfully interpreted as not only individual characteristic but also as interplay between the person and his environment (Satapathy and Nanda, 2010). Personality is a successful predictor of many human attributes because it refers to traits within the individual that determine or affect one’s behavior. Modern personality psychologists preferred to study personality in terms of personality traits. The trait of extraversion-introversion is a central dimension of human personality. The terms extraversion and introversion were first proposed by Carl Jung (1921). Further, comprehensive models of personality include these concepts, for e.g. Eysenck’s three factor model, Cattel’s 16 personality factors, and more recently the big five personality traits. Eysenck (1947) views personality as organized in hierarchy. He found two basic dimensions of personality referred as “extraversion- introversion” and “neuroticism-stability”. These two dimensions of personality are statistically independent of each other. Extraversion and introversion are viewed as a single continuum, which means high on one is necessarily to be low on the other. Similarly neuroticism and stability are also viewed as a single dimension, low on one meant to be high on another.

**Extraversion:** Extraversion is characterized by positive emotions, surgency, and the tendency to seek out stimulation and the company of others. It is marked by pronounced engagement with the external world. Extraversion is the act, state or habit of being predominantly concerned with and obtaining
gratification from what is outside the self. Extroverts enjoy being with people, and are often perceived as full of energy. They tend to enjoy human interactions and are generally enthusiastic, talkative, assertive and gregarious. Moreover, they take pleasure in activities that involve large social gatherings, community activities and public demonstrations. An extraverted person is likely to enjoy time spent with people and find less reward in time spent alone. They are likely to be attracted to ‘people work’ jobs, given the dimension’s characteristics of activity, social involvement, warmth and positive affect. Positive affect refers to feelings of contentment and satisfaction and can be viewed as a component of extraversion (Costa and McCrae, 1980). A typical extravert person is sociable, takes chances, acts on the spur of the moment, impulsive, likes challenges and optimistic. Presumably, extraverts tend to emerge as informal group leaders because they are relatively assertive, more interactive with others and slightly more popular.

Introversion is the tendency of toward being predominantly concerned with and interested in one’s own mental life. Introverts lack the social exuberance and activity levels of extraverts. They are relatively quiet and introspective and tend to be deliberate and less involved in social world. They are more reserved and less outspoken in large groups. An introvert person likes a well ordered mode of life, taking pleasure in solitary activities such as reading, writing, music, along with some more reserved outdoor activities such as fishing and hiking. They prefer to concentrate on a single activity at a time and like to observe situations before they participate, especially observed in developing children and adolescents. Introverts are easily overwhelmed by too much stimulation from social gatherings and engagement, and are more analytical before speaking (Laney, 2002). Extraverts are action oriented, while introverts are thought oriented. Eysenck (1967) has suggested that this
difference between introverts and extraverts depends on a part of the brain called the ascending reticular activating system (ARAS), which is responsible for activating and deactivating higher parts of the brain (i.e. cerebral cortex). When the ARAS is functioning at a high level the person feels sharp and alert; when it is functioning at a low level, the person feels drowsing. Eysenck proposed that the typical levels of ARAS activity among introverts are higher than those of extraverts. Introversion-extraversion is closely linked to levels of cortical arousal. Introverts are characterized by higher levels of activity than extroverts and so are chronically more cortically aroused than extroverts.

Extroverts and introverts have a variety of behavioral differences. Generally extroverts are considered self-disclosing personalities. Literature points out that extroverts tend to be less avoidant of stressful situations than introverts (Furnham, 1981). Researches have revealed that more extraverted people tend to report higher levels of happiness than introverts; extraverts simply report experiencing more positive emotions, whereas, introverts tend to be closer to neutral (Myers, 1992; Pavot et al., 1990). Introverts are perceived as having the qualities of honesty, stability and reliability more than extraverts (Hendrick and Brown, 1971).

**Neuroticism:** Neuroticism is the name Eysenck gave to the dimension that ranges from normal, fairly calm, and collected peoples to those who tend to be quite “nervous”. These nervous people tend to suffer more frequently from a variety of nervous disorders, we call “neuroses”. But it does not mean that people who score high on the neuroticism scale are necessarily neurotics; only that they are more susceptible to neurotic problems. This was a genetically-based, physiologically-supported dimension of personality. Neuroticism implies negative emotions, and it hints a personality problem. It is the tendency to experience negative emotions such as, anger, anxiety, or
depression. It is denoted as emotional instability. Those who score high in neuroticism are emotionally reactive and vulnerable to stress. They are more likely to interpret ordinary situations as threatening, and minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult. Their negative emotional reactions tend to persist for unusually long periods of time, which means they are often in a bad mood. These problems in emotion regulation can diminish the ability of a person to think clearly, make decisions, and cope with stress. Eysenck’s interest in the area of abnormal psychology leads to the formulation of the concept of neuroticism. Eysenck assumes that ‘neuroticism’ is a continuous trait ranging from ‘normal’ to the neurotic end (Eysenck, 1962). The personality characteristics of a neurotic person can be described as being low in emotional stability, tend to show dependence, low energy, narrow interests, and usually do not belong to groups. A neurotic person tends to be anxious and have little frustration tolerance. At the other end, individuals scoring low in neuroticism are less easily upset and are less emotionally reactive. They tend to be calm, emotionally stable, and free from persistent negative feelings; but it does not mean that they experience a lot of positive feelings. They are likely to have a cheerful, even disposition which is not disturbed by stress or any kind of distractions. Furthermore, Eysenck (1947) described neurotic personality in terms of a “badly organized personality, dependent, abnormal before illness, boarded out, narrow interest, poor muscular tone, lack of personality integration, lack of adaptability, and lack of general drive”. Persons high on neuroticism tend to react more quickly to painful, novel, disturbing, or other stimuli than do more stable persons. Such persons also exhibit a more persistent reaction than do highly stable persons. Neurotic individuals react more negatively to stress than those who are not (Bolger and Schilling, 1991) and they are also more likely to become ill as a result of their neurotic reactions (Larson and Kasimatis, 1991). Eysenck links this dimension with the brain’s visceral or feeling system, which influences
motivation and emotional behavior. The sympathetic nervous system (visceral brain), have active thresholds, which is responsible for the fight-or-flight response in the dangerous situations. Neurotic people who have low activation thresholds, and unable to inhibit or control their emotional reactions, experience negative affect (fight-or-flight) in the face of very minor stressors; they becomes easily nervous or upset. Emotionally stable people, who have high activation thresholds, and good emotional control, experience negative affect only in the face of very major stressors; they are calm and collected under pressure. Persons high on neuroticism tend to react more quickly to painful, novel, disturbing, or other stimuli than do more stable persons. Such persons also exhibit a more persistent reaction than do highly stable persons.

Social Variables

4. Home environment:

Psychologists, sociologists and educationists, all agree that the family furnishes the basic environment for building healthy personality of a child by satisfying their emotional needs. The persistence of family relationships reinforces the effect of the emotional tie. While a child or adolescent may have a strong emotional attachment to a teacher or a friend, this attachment rarely has the permanency that family relationships have. Family is the most significant and primary unit of society having a strong influence upon the social, emotional development of an individual. It is the cradle of socialization and the strongest factor in moulding one’s personality. Family is typically a context that reinforces adult values, promotes school success and supports emotional security. So greater degree of family interaction especially with adolescence, is developmentally beneficial (Larson and Richard, 1991).
The home environment is influenced by a number of factors like nature of family constellation, number of family members, parental employment and income, sibling relationship, and socio-economic and religious background of the family. Large families are less capable to support the physical as well as the emotional demands of the adolescents. Conflicts among parents or other family members threaten the sense of security and emotional stability of the adolescents. Adolescents express themselves better when their parents were warm and more involved in their children’s lives. A warm cohesive home environment with low level of interpersonal conflicts do a better job of meeting children’s physical and psychological needs as compared to the families characterized by high level of conflict and disengagement from each other (Sandler, Miller, Shart, Wolehik, 1989). Families in which intellectual cultural orientation is given raise more emotionally stable adolescents. Such families develop analytical attitudes in the family members which helps analysis of the situation thus emotional control is higher. The sympathetic attitude of parents and guardians is necessary for a good development of adolescent’s personality. In the absence of this sympathetic approach, the emotional difficulties of the adolescents are aggravated. Parental expression of emotion related to the development of socio-emotional competencies of children as it shapes the children’s feelings about themselves and others (Eisenberg et al., 1997). Children sharing healthy and warm relationships with their parents were found to be more intelligent and get an advantage of getting parental suggestions, ideas and communication skills and critical sense of security during the development of symbolic thought which is an important cognitive ability of preschoolers (Mehta, 1995). Also, an individual from highly cohesive and expressive family will maintain good inter-personal relations. The adolescents having parents with high emotional intelligence may be less prone to self destructiveness because the home environment is rich and permissible for the adequate personality development of child. If
home environment is favorable, it could make an average person into a
distinct personality but on the other hand poor home environment could
destroy all the chances for success of a brilliant person. More educated and
socially advantaged parents have proved as the better psychological and
practical support to their children. The parents should guide rather than
directly control the adolescent’s actions. Adolescents who feel warmth and
support from their parents are less likely to engage in risky behaviors.
Perceived loving behavior or neglecting behavior of parents affects the
personality of children to a great intent. Adolescent who perceived behavior
as loving, develop good personality, good social contact, more outgoing,
more intelligent, emotionally stable, tender minded, competitive, etc.
whereas, who perceived parental behavior as neglecting, develop personality
like reserved, less intelligent, serious, etc.

Parents can have fulfilling and enjoyable relationships with their
children by adopting emotionally intelligent parenting. It means, parenting
with love, laughter, and limits to raise emotionally intelligent teenagers
(Elias, 2004a). It will raise self-disciplined, responsible and socially skilled
children. This strengthens and deepens the bonds between parents and
children. The impulsive behavior of children can be modified by developing
emotional intelligence in children. Emotional intelligence allows children and
parents to know how they and others are feeling; to regulate strong emotions;
set goals and make effective plans to reach them; show empathy and caring;
and function soundly in relationships (Elias, 2004b) With emotional
intelligence parents can escort their children through a positive portal to
adulthood. By providing them supporting and stimulating environment which
provides them with a platform to exploit their talents in various educational
and creative fields and developing their “multiple intelligence” (Gardner).
Thus by fostering child’s emotional intelligence, parents can make a life changing difference.

5. Social support

Social support is usually defined as the existence or availability of people on whom we can rely, people who let us know that they care about, value, and love us. It refers to one’s social bond and social integration. Social support can also generally be defined as the availability and dependability that a person gets from people closely associated with him, people who believe they belong to a social network of communication and mutual obligation experience social support (Cobb, 1976). Withdrawl from primary contacts would be seen as dangerous to an individual’s cognitive and emotional states. Social support has been conceptualized as structural integration into a social network of relationships as well as functional resources provides as a part of ongoing interpersonal relationships and these two approaches seem to represent sociological and psychological perspectives (Cohen and Syme, 1985 ; Barrena, 1986 ; Cutrona, 1986). Usually social support refers to helpful social transactions that make people feel better. People who interact closely with friends and relatives are better able to avoid illness, and if illness occurs, to recover from it sooner than those who are interpersonally isolated. This cushion of helpful others is termed as social support. It means turning to other people for support in times of personal crisis. A major aspect of social support is the type of help a person receives from others i.e. emotional, personal, informational or instrumental and is concerned with quality of help extended by different resources. People with social support believe they are loved and cared for, esteemed and valued, and part of a social network that can provide goods, services and mutual defence at times of need or danger (Cobb, 1976). Sarason, Sarason and Pierce (1994) defined social support as ‘the physical and psychological
comfort provided by other people’. Thus, it is a multidimensional construct that includes not only the number of friends supplying support but also the satisfaction with the support. Basically social support constitutes three main aspects:

1. Emotional support
2. Informational support, and
3. Instrumental support

Emotional support was the common element across most conceptualizations, that it was what most people meant when they spoke of being supportive, and that indeed, it seemed to be the most important dimension. House (1981) distinguished between emotional, appraisal, informational, and instrumental support. Emotional support includes affective participation, empathy, liking, or respect. Appraisal support can be expressed through shared opinions and provides information relevant to self evaluation, such as a supervisor telling a person that he or she is doing a good job. Informational support includes offering information needed to get a job done, and instrumental support may include various sorts of direct help. Furthermore, the most significant aspect of the social support is not its actual availability but the perception of availability of support. The perception or belief that someone is ready to extend help or provide assistance either in emotional, informational or in practical terms generally helps to reduce stress experience and may also enhance the psychological and physical well being of the individual. A number of researches suggest that social support has a positive effect on health regardless of the level of stress experienced (Cohen and Wills, 1985; Shumaker and Brownell, 1984). Researches demonstrating the positive main effect of social support suggest that it promotes health and well being by satisfying the needs of affiliation and affection as well as by enhancing self esteem and self efficacy (Cohen and Wills, 1985). Social
support has a direct positive impact on health and also it has a negative impact on stressors at work and thus has a positive impact on health. It moderates the relationship between stressors and strains by working as a buffer and prevents stressors from developing their impact on strains (Cohen and Wills, 1985). Studies have shown that social support performs the stress protective role i.e. studies on the college students have indicated that the perceived availability of material aid (tangible support) does not operate as a buffer, although the perceived availability of persons to talk to about one’s problems (appraisals), person who make one feel better about oneself (self esteem), and others with whom do things (belonging) are generally effective buffers (Cohen, McGown, Fooskas, and Rose, 1984; Cohen and Hoberman, 1983; Cohen, Mermelstein, Kamarack and Hoberman, 1985; Graham and Gottlieb, 1983). Social isolation may result in worsening of an illness and hastening of death (Seligman, 1991). Some studies have indicated the individuals with high level of social support are less likely to develop serious illnesses (e.g. Berkman and Syme, 1979; Wallston et al., 1983). Caplan (1974) suggested that influence of loving and caring relationships provide a sort of protective web around the individual, hence reducing his likelihood of falling ill. Person with high level of support show less psychological disorders under high level of perceived stress than do those with low levels of support (Cohen and Williamson, 1988). Though a person facing stress may need support, awkward attempts to provide help and comfort can actually make things worse. Unhelpful support efforts include trying to minimize the problem, suggesting that the difficulty is the person’s own fault and simply bumbling effects to help (Ingram et al., 2001). Social support systems provides us with emotional sustenance, tangible resources and aid, and information when we are in need. People who are secured in their attachments perceive social support which helps them to cope with their problems and to be less affected by stress which in turn produce happiness.
Emotional intelligence helps a person to feel secure in his relationships which provide a support system. This support system leads an individual to a step further to achieve his life goal or purpose by enhancing meaning and social support itself is a potential source of meaning.

6. Sex

Sex is the demographic factor considered under the category of social variable in this study. Sex is naturally dichotomous biological variable that has been measured in the present research in order to study the sex difference in emotional intelligence. A sex difference is a distinction of biological or physiological characteristics typically associated with either males or females of a species in general. The members of many species of living beings are divided into two or more categories called sexes; male and female. In mammals sex is determined by the sex chromosomes X and Y. Males typically have one X and one Y chromosome (XY), while females typically have two X chromosomes (XX). Psychologists and sociologists make a distinction between sex and gender. Sex is used to refer to the biological and unchangeable component of human sexuality while gender is the socially constructed and malleable component of human sexuality. Both the sexes (male and female) differ biologically in several ways, and further these differences may reflect in various psychological differences. Each individual inherits the body structure, internal body organs, and pattern of biological functioning that are appropriate to his or her sex. Sex differences have been reported for almost every physical variable, including body built, physiological functioning, anatomical characteristics and biochemical composition. These biological differences are direct responses to the levels of circulating hormones which differ significantly between the sexes. The specific biological factors which influence sexual differentiation and later social behavior are the gonadal hormones. Males possess testosterone and
androgen while females possess estrogen and progesterone as sex hormones. Typical masculine traits include strength, assertiveness, rationality and biologically driven sex needs, whereas feminine characteristics included softness, dependence, passivity, emotionality, and physical attractiveness. These physiological differences predispose males and females to certain behavioral and aptitude leanings. Further neurological differences are also evident among males and females. Human males on average have larger brain than females. Female brains are more compact than male brains in that, though smaller, they are more densely packed with neurons, particularly the region responsible for language (Witelson, Glezer, and Kigar, 1995). A proposed alternative way of measuring intelligence is by using grey matter or white matter volume in the brain as indicator. The former is used for information processing, whereas the later makes up the connections between the processing centers. It was reported that compared with men, women show more white matter and fewer grey matter areas as related to intelligence (Haier et al., 2005). However it was further concluded that there is no singular underlying neuroanatomical structure to general intelligence and that different types of brain designs may manifest equivalent intellectual performance. Neurobiological differences in men and women exists in brain lateralization and emotional processing (Llyod, 2006; Cahill et al., 2005; Motluk, 2002). Women show a significantly greater activity in the left amygdala when encoding and remembering emotionally arousing pictures (Motluk, 2002). Some evidence exists that certain areas of the brain dedicated to processing emotions could be larger in women than in men (Baron-Cohen, 2003,2005; Gur, Gunning-Dixon, Bilker and Gur, 2002) and that there is a difference in cerebral activity based on sex (Jausovec and Jausovec, 2005). Studies on sex differences in memory reported that females have been found to have an advantage in recalling auditory and olfactory stimuli, experiences,
faces, names and the location of objects in space; however males show an advantage in recalling masculine events (Ellis, 2008).

Researches have been investigated cognitive and behavioral differences between men and women, because social and environmental factors affect brain activity and behavior. In addition to biological differences between men and women, there are also documented differences in socialization that could contribute to sex difference in emotion and to differences in pattern of brain activity. Boys are generally expected to suppress emotions and to express anger through violence, rather than constructively. They are taught to shut down their feelings such as empathy, sympathy and other key components of positive and pro-social behavior. In this context, gender roles play an important part. The gender roles are internalized by children at very young ages, for e.g. girls understand that they are supposed to be nice, caring, and nurturing, whereas, boys understand that they are supposed to take command and assert themselves.

Stereotypes about difference between men and women have been shown to affect a person’s behavior (Fine, 2010; Gallagher and Kaufman, 2005). The stereotype of women as being the more emotional sex survives to this day (Grewal and Salovey, 2006). Females are bonded typically with the image of a sensitive being that easily feels emotions and expresses her feelings. Common stereotype characterize men as aggressive and angry, and women as emotionally sensitive and irrational. Females are viewed as friendly, gracious, tactful, sensitive, caring, helpful, and supporting while males are viewed as strong, independent, active, disciplined, objective, logical and practical. Studies have evidenced that girls become adept at reading both verbal and non verbal emotional indicators, as well as expressing and communicating their feelings, showing their superiority in the ability, among others to capture feelings reflected in someone’s face, in the
tone of voice and in other non-verbal messages. Men on the contrary are socialized since they were children to avoid expressing their emotions. Male competitiveness, homophobia, avoiding vulnerability and openness, and the lack of appropriate role models have all been highlighted as obstacles that prevent men from expressing themselves emotionally. Boys therefore specialize in minimizing any emotions linked to vulnerability, guilt, fear and pain (Brody and Hall, 1993; Hall, 1978, 1984; Lewis, 1978; McClure, 2000; Rosenthal et al., 1979). Women reported greater intensity of both positive and negative affect than men, and are also have a more intense and more frequent experience of affect, joy, and love but also experienced more embarrassment, guilt, shame, sadness, anger, fear and distress (Niedenthal, Kruth-Gruber, and Ric, 2006). Moreover, women perform better than men in tests involving emotional interpretation such as understanding facial expressions and empathy (Hall, 1978; Hall, 1984; Hall, Carter, Horgan, 2000; Fisher and Manstead, 2000).

7. **Locale**

Locale is a demographic variable considered under the category of social variable in this study. People inhabit different parts of the world and lead different types of lives. Their lifestyle change across the various regions of this world and so do their thought processes. People all over the world have been divided into two distinct groups, classified as rural or urban depending on the density of human-created structures and resident people in a particular area. The resources found in their regions or areas have a direct impact on their way of living. Mostly the rural culture inhabits small size of community and simple living with the importance of primary relations, religion, customs and morals. While, urban areas are equipped with all the modern facilities. The modern-day facilities like the internet, telephone, cell phone, television and satellite communication facilities are widely available.
in the urban areas. A majority of the households of the urban areas are blessed with these technological advancements. Due to a greater availability of all the modern facilities along with an increase in the number of educational facilities and career opportunities, people of the urban areas lead an economically more stable and a luxurious life. Some of the most important criteria for distinguishing the rural social world from the urban are occupational and environmental differences, differences in the size of communities, in the density of population, homogeneity and heterogeneity of the population, and differences in social mobility. Moreover, differences in the social differentiation and stratification are also observed. Rural life acquires comparative simplicity and sincerity of relationships with predominance of personal and relatively durable relations. While, urban lifestyle acquires greater complexity, manifoldness, superficiality and standardized formality of relationships (Singh, 2004).

With the spread of education, the institutional arrangements of the urban areas also changed. The urban areas gradually grew up as the centers of new social and political ideas, diverse economic activities and of heterogenous population. Unlike rural areas, urban settlements are defined by their advanced civic amenities, opportunities for education, facilities of transport, business and social interaction and overall better standard of living. The stress that results from a fast life in urban areas is not a part of the peaceful and relatively slow paced life of the rural locale. The rural family is composed not only of the members of the family but also frequently includes distant relations which hardly happens in the urban lifestyle. Rural family is more disciplined and integrated unit than the urban family which is in contrast, less authoritarian but also less co-operative. Educational, recreational and number of other needs of its members are satisfied by extra-family institutions like school, club and others. The Indian rural society is
undergoing transformation under the impact of numerous forces today. Government’s programs for industrialization, electrification, land reforms, commercialization, and unification of the country through development of means of communication, are producing important changes in the rural areas also. Besides these variations, the urban and rural areas also possess differences on psychological ground. Psychological processes are assumed to be culturally constituted and may vary with differences in cultural meaning and practice. For instance, in a rural family the solidarity of its members is organic and spontaneous. It emerges naturally as a result of co-living, co-working, co-feeling and co-believing. They have generally stronger social urges, a stronger felling of social-cohesion and possess greater ability for co-operation. The members of the urban family on the other hand have separate interests as well as individualistic psychologies. Spontaneous co-operation and solidarity feeling are found to be appreciably less among the urban people than among the rural people.

Culture influences the emotional adjustment of individual. Rural peoples develop more collectivistic family consciousness and less individualistic emotion. The interdependence of the family members strengthens their emotions making it a compact unit. Recent literature has revealed that the character and meaning of emotions are systematically related to the kind of ethic prevalent in a cultural community (Schweder and Haidet, 2000). One major contrast between rural and urban living is the type of emotional connections and bonds rural people have with their friends and neighbors. Another is the sense of community and community participation. The way people relate to one another in rural communities is more personal, emotional, direct and socially supportive, with a feeling of genuine affection and belongingness. While, social interaction pattern in cities are more impersonal, indirect and often conflicting. People in cities operate at both
personal and impersonal level. They have their social network of friends and relatives for social support. However the number of primary relationships to formal relationships is smaller than in rural communities (Farmer, 2003). Furthermore, the rural value system is primarily communitarian and relational. These values are found primarily in ethnic neighborhoods, agricultural communities and tribal communities. These communities underpin the psychology of being rooted in a particular place and having lifelong relationships with friends. While the dominant value system in the cities is that of individualism. These values flourish in western industrial mobile societies, and are embedded in the economy, schools, media and other institutions. The main attributes of the rural value system are belonging, emotional support, security and predictability. Study regarding measurement of certain non verbal abilities of urban and rural children have revealed that the rural children are superior in mechanical ability, musical ability and speed of performance; while the urban group was superior in verbal ability and in tests involving maximum time limits (Shepard, 1942).

Since there were found evidences for locale difference among various psychological attributes, therefore locale difference is considered as one of the important variable in determining the emotional intelligence of adolescents.

**Adolescence**

Adolescence is a period of multidimensional, biosocial transition between childhood and adulthood. It is characteristically an important period of the lifespan. Brusell (1970) defines adolescence as the period of time spent as it is were the last flying at life rather than a preparation for it. Adolescence is the stage of development between childhood and full adulthood, representing the period of time during which a person is biologically adult but emotionally not at full maturity. The word has been derived from the Latin
verb: *adolescere* – “to grow up”. Since it is a period of growth and exploration, the adolescent wants to experiment and experience life. The period of adolescence encounters dramatic developmental changes due to spurt in the growth and development. Entire body goes through a metamorphosis both externally and internally, in structure as well as in function. According to WHO, adolescents are those between the age group of 10-19 while those amongst 15-24 age groups are in the category of youth. Level of adolescence, in terms of ‘pre-adolescence’, ‘adolescence’ and, ‘late-adolescence’ speak about a very important age period in the growth of a person which has marked characteristics of growth of personality in various dimensions. Adolescence denotes growth of maturity and spans between 13-25 years of life (Hurlock, 1955). Though adolescents are neither adult nor completely out of their childhood stage, it becomes very crucial time for them. During this stage of development, child undergoes a number of physical as well as mental changes which among other things give rise to a number of problems related to emotional, social and other aspects of behavior. As a result of rapid physical and emotional change, this stage is characterized by stress and tensions. When the individual faces lots of stress arising from physical, cognitive development, social and emotional changes, their problems do affect their mental health. The ‘adolescence’ is therefore referred as ‘problem age’ as it is manifested with emotional tensions rebelliousness, destructiveness, non-conformity, and defiance to a marked degree. It is a time of transition from a relatively dependent and secure childhood to the psychological, social, and economic, self dependent adulthood. Therefore it is the most challenging and complicated than all periods of life. The period of adolescence is often marked by struggles in social and emotional development. That’s why psychologists have defined adolescence as a period of stress and strain. When adolescents are unable to confront and deal with a developmental challenge successfully, they are
likely to become victim of number of emotional and behavioral problems which will affect their personal and professional growth. Physical changes and development greatly influence the emotions of adolescents. The reasons for these emotional and behavioral problems can be traced back to interplay between heredity and environmental factors like faulty parenting, family disharmony, poor role models, lack of affection, strict discipline at home or school, fear of failure, and excessive restrictions on freedom in early stages of development. The development of adolescent’s personality depends to a large extent on his emotional life. Any type of emotional disturbance has tremendous influence on their attitude and behavior, resulting in feeling of insecurity, tension, anxiety, academic failure, loneliness, depression, suicidal thoughts and various kinds of psychosomatic problems.

During this period, adolescents are required to develop personal values and sense of identity to fulfill new roles and responsibilities with the peer group, members of the opposite sex, complete the requirements of school, and make decisions regarding a career (Frydenberg and Lewis, 1993). Adolescence has been manifested with many qualities like vigorous energy, idealism, high aspirations, spirit of adventure, creative thinking and keenness to assure responsibilities. Also, they are having wandering ideas and fluctuating emotions. Adolescence has a special significance as the last stage before adulthood. Psychologists evaluate adolescence as a period in which a person strives for emotional maturity. The adolescent has a weak ego with fragile, vulnerable ideas, high expectations and is in constant search of identity (Erikson, 1956). In this period intelligence almost reaches its maximum limit. Abstract reasoning, logical thinking, greater power of concentration, wider memory span and great interest in reading is exhibited.
Adolescent development can be considered in terms of biological challenges, cognitive challenges (i.e. creative and abstract thinking), psychological challenges (i.e. formation of new identity, psychological adjustment, emotional responses), social challenges (i.e. expectations of society, parents and their own), moral and spiritual challenges. The adolescents face a number of psychological and emotional problems such as that of variety of role expectations and inadequate self-concept. These problems are often overlooked by the teachers and parents. Sometimes they think adolescents too young to take independent decisions and at the other moment they scold him when he is unable to arrive at their expected decision, which leads to emotional conflict among adolescents. Now-a-days a majority of adolescents are facing this crucial stage of development. Extensity, fluctuation and instability of feelings and emotions is very strong which made them showing symptoms of emotional distress, which may include fearfulness, social withdrawl, low self-esteem, anxiety, low frustration tolerance, a lack of self-confidence and poor social skills. Emotions in their crude form are harmful to the individual and the society. Factors like health, intelligence, family and school environment, peer group relationships, neighbourhood, etc. exert a significant influence upon the emotional development of the individual.