CHAPTER-II
RESUME OF RESEARCHES

The resume of related studies has been presented under following heading: The resume of related researches appears under three headings:

1. Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence.
2. Emotional Intelligence and Personality.
3. Social Intelligence and Personality.

1. Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence.

Mayer and Salovey (1993) initiated the pioneering work in the field of emotional intelligence. They addressed criticisms of previous authors linking emotion and intelligence by explaining that many intellectual problems contain emotional information that must be processed. (Salovey and Mayer's (1990) regarded emotional intelligence as a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's thinking.) It is argued that intelligence is an appropriate metaphor for the construct. The abilities and mechanisms that underlie emotional intelligence are described. These mechanisms are (1) emotionality itself, (2)
facilitation and inhibition of emotional information flow, and (3)
specialized neural mechanisms. Emotionality contributes to
specific abilities, and emotional management influences
information channels and problem solving.

Emotion involves a social sharing process in which the
subject communicates about emotional experience. Christophe and
Rime (1997) their study examines the impact of being exposed to
such communications. First, it was predicted that being exposed
to the social sharing of an emotion is emotion-inducing. Second,
it was reasoned that this holds true, then the listener should later
engage in socially sharing with other persons the emotional
narrative heard. Thus a process of "secondary social sharing" was
predicted. In two independent studies subjects recalled a situation
in which someone had shared an emotional experience with them.
They then rated emotions felt while exposed to the narrative,
responses adopted toward the sharing person, and extent of
secondary social sharing. The predictions were supported.
Exposure to a social sharing situation was confirmed as itself
emotion-inducing. Secondary social sharing was recorded in 66
per cent of the cases in Study 1 and in 78 per cent in Study 2.
Both studies also showed that exposure to the sharing of highly
intense emotional episodes elicited more repetitive secondary
social sharing and a superior number of target persons than exposure to episodes of low or of moderate emotional intensity.

In a study by Martinez (1999) 109 11-15 yr. olds were surveyed to assess their perception of their parent's influence on their emotional intelligence (EI) and their own EI, as well as their task orientation (TO), social functioning (SF), and depression symptomatology, (DS). Path analysis disclosed a substantial effect of parental modeling, encouragement, facilitation, and rewarding on the Ss' EI, and important effects of EI on TO, SF, and DS were found. The results are interpreted in the light of modern social cognitive theory, and recommendations are made for further study.

Kuttler et al. (1999) studied the significance of having close-sex friendships in adolescence with 223 10th through 12th graders (aged 15-18 yrs.) adolescents with only same-sex friends were compared to adolescents with both same and cross-sex friends in terms of their social and emotional functioning. In addition, the friendship qualities (companionship, intimacy, prosocial support, esteem support) of adolescents with same and cross-sex friendship were compared. Results reveal that having a close, cross-sex friend is a common experience in adolescence, and increases with adolescent age. Findings reveal
that adolescents reported more companionship in their same-sex versus cross-sex friendships, younger adolescent girls reported more prosocial support in their same-versus cross-sex friendships, and adolescent boys reported receiving more esteem support from their cross-sex friends. Unlike during middle childhood, having close, cross-sex friends in adolescence does not appear to be associated with problems in social or behavioral adjustment, but is associated with lower perceived social acceptance. The implications of these and other findings for understanding adolescents' close friendships and issues for future research are discussed.

Hypothesis that working with emotional intelligence enables accounts officers to achieve greater success in collection was tested by Bachman et al (2000) in study 1, results from the administration of an emotional intelligence measure were compared between 24 'best practices' (i.e., most successful) and 12 "less successful" account officers. The instrument was the Bar On Emotional Quotient Inventory. In Study 2, scores on emotional intelligence and success at collections (defined as the average percentage of cash goal attained over a specified time period) were compared between the "best" and "less successful" practices groups. The findings support the view that higher levels
of emotional intelligence lead to enhanced job performance. Implications for selection are considered.

The ability to manage feelings and handle stress is another aspect of emotional intelligence that has been found to be important for success. A study of store managers in retail chain found that the ability to handle stress predicted net profits, sales per square foot, sales per employee, and per dollar of inventory investment.

Emotional intelligence has as much to do with knowing when and how to express emotion as it does with controlling it. For instance, consider an experiment that was done at Yale University. Barsade had a group of volunteers play the role of managers who come together in a group to allocate bonuses to their subordinates. A trained actor was planted among them. The actor always spoke first. In some groups the actor projected cheerful enthusiasm, in others relaxed warmth, in others depressed sluggishness, and in still others hostile irritability. The results indicated that the actor was able to infect the group with his emotion, and good feelings led to improved cooperation, fairness, and overall group performance. In fact, objective measures indicated that the cheerful groups were better able to distribute the money fairly and in a way that helped the
organization. Similar findings come from the field. Bachman found that the most effective leaders in the US Navy were warmer, more outgoing, emotionally expressive, dramatic, and sociable.

Empathy is particularly an important aspect of emotional intelligence, and researchers have known for years that it contributes to occupational success. Rosenthal and his colleagues at Harvard discovered over two decades ago that people who were best at identifying others emotions were more successful in their work as well as in their social lives. More recently, a survey of retail sales buyers found that apparel sales reps were valued primarily for their empathy. The buyers reported that they wanted reps who could listen well and really understand what they wanted and what their concerns were.

Emotional intelligence was conceptualized as competencies that may enable people to use emotions advantageously to achieve desired outcomes (Fox and Spector, 2000). Measures of three components of emotional intelligence (empathy, self-regulation of mood, and self-presentation) as well as affective traits (positive and negative affectivity) and general and social intelligence were related to a major facet of work success, job interview performance. A sample of 116 undergraduates
participated in a simulated job selection experience, consisting of paper and pencil tests and a videotaped structured interview. Results partially supported the proposed model. Some but not all of the affect and ability measures were related to interview outcomes, both directly and mediated by the interviewer's affective response (perceived similarity and liking). In addition to measures of emotional intelligence, measures of general and practical intelligence were associated with interview outcomes, but the orthogonality of IQ and the major emotion variables argue for the unique contributions of emotional intelligence and trait effect to interview success.

Educational policy on emotional intelligence appear to be based more on mass-media science journalism than on actual educational and psychological research (Mayer and Cobb, 2000). The 1st section of this article provides an overview of the research areas of emotional intelligence, social and emotional learning, and character education; it further examines how these areas became linked in the popular press. The 2nd section examines the scientific evidence for whether emotional intelligence underpins social and emotional learning, how emotional intelligence relates to success, and whether it is central to character. The authors conclude that educational policy in this
area has outpaced the science on which it is ostensibly based, and give recommendations for the further.

Consultants seeking help to implement social and emotional learning (SEL), emotional intelligence quotient (EQ), prevention and related programs face a number of difficulties (Elias et al., 2000). One of these is the need to address consulates at the appropriate level, so as not to scare them away from implementation because of the complexities involved. Drawing from surveys of the site visits with implementers of SEL/EQ programs, the authors present barriers that consultants (and other program implementers) can expect to encounter, how these have been addressed, and some community psychology principles to guide ongoing efforts. The article closes by using the analogy of a maiden voyage of a sailing ship to illuminate implementation issues that arise when initiating and sustaining SEL/EQ and related prevention programs in schools.

Barrett and Gross (2001) considered the place of emotional processes in intelligent behaviour, a domain now known as the study of emotional intelligence. The authors goal is not to provide a general review of the emotional intelligence area but rather to suggest more focused treatment that is rooted in the processes associated with emotion generation and modulation.
The general thesis is that emotional intelligence requires that individual appreciate (1) how they are responding emotionally and (2) how they can shape the emotion as it unfolds. Emotion can be generated and regulated in better or worse ways, and how individuals go about doing this shape their adaptive success.

Sjoberg (2001) describes the construction and construct validation of an extensive test battery for use in the selection process in business and business education. It is based on nation of social competence and emotional intelligence EI in broad sense of the term. Subjects were 226 person (aged 18-37 years) who had applied for admittance to the under graduate program of Stockholm school of economics. Many indices were constructed as the basis of their test responses. As a second order factor analysis, four factors were identified: mental stability, emotional intelligence proper, dominance, and compulsiveness. These factors were related to emotional skills and to standard personality scales as well as to scales measuring risk taking attitude and variables measuring response styles. It was found that the secondary factors were less subjected to self presentation bias than the big five scales and that they were about equal to MPI scales in this respect. These three sets of scales were rather strongly related, while the Myess-Briggs scales were only related
EI was found to contribute variance to the explanation of emotional knowledge not contained in standard scales of personality. Also, risk attitudes were systematically related to secondary factors.

In a study by Schutte et al. (2001) they examined the link between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations. In study 1 and 2 the participants (college students: Mean age 27.5 years old) with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for empathic perspective taking and self-monitoring in social situation. In study 3, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for social skills. In study 4, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence a displayed more co-operative responses toward partners. In study 5, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for close and affectionate relationships. In study 6, the participants' scores for marital satisfaction were higher when they rated their marital partners higher for emotional intelligence. In study 7, the participants anticipated greater satisfaction in relationship with partners described as having emotional intelligence.
2. Emotional Intelligence and Personality:

In order to test K. Dabrowski's (1972) theory of emotional development Miller et al. (1994) studied the dynamic interplay of emotion and cognition in the personality development of 41 intellectually gifted adults (aged 19-54 yrs) and 42 graduate students (aged 22-50 yrs). When the gifted subjects were compared with the graduate subjects on developmental potential, as measured by their over-excitability scores, the gifted subjects showed substantially greater potential for emotional development; but when actual level of development was compared, no significant differences between the 2 groups were found. Gender differences were discovered in areas related to traditional gender-role socialization (i.e., women scored higher on emotional potential and level of emotional development while men were higher on intellectual potential). In support of Dabrowski's theoretical position, emotional, intellectual, and imaginational intensity significantly predicated level of development.

Mayer and Salovey (1995) identified and compared several models of emotion regulation. In this contest emotional intelligence and the construction and regulation of feelings are discussed. Regulatory models based on the assumptions that
people should forgo short-term pleasures for long-term ones, strive for proindividual and prosocial emotions, and be context sensitive, is described. Emotionally intelligent people are defined as those who regulate their emotions according to a logically consistent model of emotional functioning. Emotional construction and regulation take place at 3 levels: the unconscious, and the lower and higher conscious levels; relevant literature is reviewed in each case. The concept of emotionally intelligent regulation and its potential applications to personality and clinical psychology are discussed.

Epstein (1998) reviewed the work on emotional intelligence and related it to constructive thinking. He has presented a detailed account of cognitive techniques for gaining control of one's emotions. A theory for understanding such techniques has also been explicated. The writing focuses on the implications the constructive thinking has for emotional intelligence.

Whether emotional intelligence be included within the traditional cognitive abilities framework was explored in 3 studies (total N = 530) by investigating the relations among measures of emotional intelligence, traditional human cognitive abilities, and personality. Davies et al.'s (1998) studies suggest that the status of the emotional intelligence construct is limited
by measurement properties of its tests. Measures based on consensual scoring exhibited low reliability. Self-report measures had salient loadings on well-established personality factors, indicating a lack of divergent validity. These data provide controvertible evidence for the existence of a separate Emotion Perception factor that (perhaps) represents the ability to monitor another individual’s emotions. This factor is narrower than that postulated with in current models of emotional intelligence.

Schutte et al. (1998) describe the development of a measure of emotional intelligence based on the model developed by P. Salovey and J.D. Mayer (1990). A pool of 62 items represented the different dimensions of the model. A factor analysis of the responses of the 346 adults (mean age 29.27 yrs) suggested the creation of a 33-item scale. Additional studies showed the 33 items measure to have good internal consistency and test-retest reliability. Validation studies showed that scores of the 33 item measure (a) correlated with 8 or 9 theoretically related constructs, including alexithymia, attention to feelings, clarity of feelings, mood repair, optimism and impulse control; (b) predicted first-year college grades; (c) were significantly higher for therapists than for therapy clients or for prisoners; (d) were significantly higher for females than males, consistent with
prior findings in studies of emotional skills; (e) were not related to cognitive ability; and (f) were associated with the openness to experience trait of the big five personality dimensions.

Taylor et al. (1999) review some conceptual aspect of emotional intelligence and describes their theoretical overlap with certain psychoanalytic concepts, as well as some recent empirical studies exploring the relationship between emotional intelligence and the alexithymia construct. A case example is presented to illustrate some of the implications of emotional intelligence and related constructs in psychoanalytic practice. Finally, in an attempt to explain individual differences in emotional intelligence, the authors review some current knowledge of the emotional brain. Review of some current knowledge of the emotional brain and report findings from neurobiological studies showing that certain facts of the emotional intelligence construct correlate with functional activity in parts of the brain involved in the cognitive processing of emotions. The authors conclude with the proposal that the development of the cognitive and neural mechanisms lying emotional intelligence is influenced by early attachment relationships.
A recent review (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000) of literature on the subject of "emotional intelligence (EQ) attempts to pin down and define this nebulous construct, using competency-based and personality factor scales. In an exploratory study, the reliability and construct and predictive validity of three scales were investigated. An EQ scale on 16 relevant competencies showed highly promising reliability and validity. The results also showed the relevance of two other competency-based scales – intellectual intelligence (IQ) and managerial intelligence (MQ) – which both predicted organizational advancement. Taken together, however, the three scales had even higher validity. The overall results supported the view that EQ constructs can be measured more effectively by "performance analysis" than "classic paper and pencil tests". In addition they provide support for the proposition that the combination of EQ and IQ is a more powerful predictor of "success" than either measure alone.

In a study by Dawda and Hart (2000), reliability and validity of a new measure of emotional (i.e. non-cognitive) intelligence was examined in a sample of 243 university students (aged 17-47 yrs). Results showed that the Bar On's EQ-i domain and component scales had good item homogeneity and internal consistency. Scores were not unduly affected by response styles
or biases. The EQ-i scales had a meaningful pattern of convergent validities with respect to measure of normal personality, depression, somatic symptomatology, intensity of affective experience and alexithymia. The reliability and validity results for men and women were very similar. Overall, the results suggested that the EQ-i is a promising measure of emotional intelligence. The authors recommend strategies for further validation of the EQ-i, as well as the construct of emotional intelligence.

Mayer et al. (2000) reviewed several competing concepts of emotional intelligence. Some attention has also been paid to what is meant by the terms 'emotion', 'intelligence', and 'emotional intelligence'. A distinction has been drawn between models of emotional intelligence that focus on mental abilities and those that mix mental abilities with personality attributes such as persistence, zeal, and optimism. Measures of emotional intelligence were examined on the chapter’s second section. Research work increasingly supports the existence of a mental ability emotional intelligence that is somewhat distinct from standard analytical intelligence. Research work on mixed models of emotional intelligence is more preliminary to date but shows some progress. In the discussion section, the authors address in
greater detail the claims about what emotional intelligence may predict and discuss the opportunities, real and imagined, that exist more generally in the fields of intelligence and personality for studying an individual’s success.

Newsome et al. (2000) describes that emotional intelligence has become a fashionable topic in the popular press and has been heralded as an effective predictor of successful performance; however, little empirical evidence has borne out these claims. The present study was conducted in order to determine the relationship of emotional intelligence, cognitive ability and personality with academic achievement. Emotional intelligence was assessed for 180 (17-56 yrs) old college students using R. Bar On’s (1997) Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ. I). Both cognitive ability and personality (in terms of extraversion and self-control) were significantly associated with academic achievement. None of the EQ-i factors sources, or the total EQ-i score was significantly related to academic achievement.

Parker et al. (2001) studied the empirical association between the apparently similar constructs of emotional intelligence and alexithymia using latent variable analysis in a large community sample of 734 adults (Mean Age ~ 32-53 yrs.) The twenty-Items Toronto Alexithymia Scale and the Bar On
Emotional Quatient Inventory were used to assess alexi and emotional intelligence. Results revealed that although the constructs are independent, they overlap considerably and are strongly and inversely related.

Whether there is a path between personality, current mood, its evaluation and emotion regulation was carefully examined by Kokkonen and Pulkkinen (2001). In an ongoing longitudinal study, a Big-Five Personality Inventory was completed by 122 men and 126 women at age 33. At age 36, the Brief Mood Introspection Scale, the Meta-Evaluation Scale, and the Meta-Regulation Scale were administered to 140 men and 127 women. The results, based on path analyses, lent support to a hypothesized model, according to which current mood (negative, positive, active, calm) and mood evaluation (mood influence, typicality and acceptance, clarity) mediate the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and emotion regulation strategies (repair, dampening, maintenance). For both sexes, neuroticism was the most significant trait in terms of emotion regulation. A sex difference emerged: in general, personality traits and mood variables explained emotion regulation more significantly in men.
Ciarrochi et al. (2001) examined 131 students (aged 13 to 15 years) and completed a self-report measure of emotional intelligence (SEI) and a number of other, theoretically relevant measures. They were then induced into a positive, negative, or neutral mood and asked to complete a task that assessed mood management behaviour. We found that Emotional Intelligence was reliably measured in adolescents, was higher for females than males, and was positively associated with skill at identifying emotional expressions, amount of social support, extent of satisfaction with social support, and mood management behaviour. These relationships held even after controlling for two constructs that potentially overlap with EI, namely self-esteem and trait anxiety. This study offers evidence that the SEI is a distinctive and useful measure.

3. Social Intelligence and Personality:

Neuringer (1991) examined 32 American acting students for predicting the ratings made by a general population of 72 undergraduates psychology students on an adjectives checklist dealing with several professions, one of which was acting. The same task was set for 2 benchmark comparison groups (24 psychology graduate students and 24 subjects from the general population of students). The acting subjects achieved a 70%
correct prediction rate. The acting subject's predictions were inferior to those of the psychology graduate subjects but no different from those of the general undergraduate subjects. The acting subjects were more accurate in predicting the endorsement of negative adjectives (100%) than positive adjectives (55%). The acting subjects tended to distrust other people's attitudes toward actors' where as, in fact, the general population of students' feelings about them were mildly positive.

The influence of preexisting individual differences in social value orientations on perceptions of rationality (RAT) in a social dilemma was examined by Van Lange et al. (1991). In Exp. 1, with 63 subject in the Netherlands, subjects with prosocial orientations expected more cooperation from another described as intelligent, whereas individualists and competitors expected more cooperation from another described as unintelligent. The cross-cultural generalize ability of this findings was supported in Exp. 2, with 60 undergraduates in the US. Results are consistent with the Goal Prescribes Rationality Principle (P.A. Van Lange et. al., 1990) which assumes that people with prosocial (cooperative) orientations perceive RAT in social dilemmas primarily from the collective perspective, where as individualists and competitors take a strong egocentric perspective. A strong
relationship was found between expectations of others' cooperation and own co-operative behaviour when the other was described as intelligent.

Wong et al. (1995) conducted two multitrait-multimethod studies of academic and social intelligences show that cognitive and behavioral aspects of social intelligence (Experiment 1) and several cognitive aspects of social intelligence (i.e., social perception, social knowledge and social insight; Experiment 2) can be discriminated. Verbal, nonverbal, self-, and other report measures were administered to 134 female college students (Experiment 1) and to 227 male and female college students (Experiment 2). Convergent and discriminate validities were established for cognitive and behavioral dimensions of social intelligence (Experiment 1) and for two dimensions of cognitive social intelligence (social knowledge and social perception; Experiment 2). In both studies, the cognitive social intelligence factors had poor convergent validities and research participants were college students attending a highly selective university.

Jones & Day (1997) proposed a theoretical division of cognitive-social intelligence into declarative and procedural social knowledge (crystallized social knowledge) and flexible knowledge application aspects (social-cognitive flexibility).
distinct form academic problem solving. Pictorial, verbal, self-, and teacher report measures of social-cognitive flexibility, crystallized social knowledge, and academic problem solving were collected for 169 high school seniors (102 girls and 67 boys) in a multitrait-multimethod study. Confirmatory factor analyses supported the discriminability of social-cognitive flexibility from academic problem solving and crystallized social knowledge. Crystallized social knowledge was not discriminable from academic problem solving. Significant correlations between these factors and teacher reports of social behavior confirmed that flexible application of social knowledge is an important aspect of social competence.

In a study by Gallup (1998) the use of one's own experiences as a model to make inferences about the experiences of others was tried. It was theorized to be the means by which a variety of introspectively based social strategies developed for both competing and co-operating with one another (e.g. gratitude, grudging sympathy, empathy, deception, pretending and sorrow). The proposition that this ability is a by product of self-awareness is developed in some detail and the prediction which follows from this model of social intelligence are considered in light of the evidence.
J.Kaukiainen et al. (1999) examined relationship between social intelligence, empathy, and 3 types of aggressive behaviour. Peer-estimation techniques were used to measure all major variables. 526 finish children from 3 age groups (10, 12, and 14 years) served as subjects. Indirect aggression correlated positively and significantly with social intelligence in every age group studied. Physical and verbal forms of aggression had almost zero correlation to social intelligence. Empathy correlated negatively and significantly with every type of aggression except indirect aggression in 12 years olds. The major findings are in line with the developmental theory of K. Bjorkqvist et al. (1992) suggesting that indirect aggression require more social intelligence than direct forms of aggression.

Shafer (1999) examined the relation of sub-components of Factor V (Creativity, Intellect, Reflectiveness, Conservatism, and closed mindedness) and the Big Five factors to Social Intelligence (Sternberg et al., 1981) in 200 participants (aged 17-48 yrs). Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that the Social Intelligence factors were quite predictable from Factor V subcomponents and other Big Five traits. Several Social Intelligence factors were predicted in a large part primarily by other Big Five Traits. Higher order factor analysis followed by
regression revealed that a general Social Intelligence factor was predicted primarily by a higher order Factor V. These results suggest that at a low level of the factor hierarchy specific aspects of Social Intelligence are broader than the subcomponents of Factor V and involve other personality traits. However, at the highest level of the factor hierarchy Factor V is the primary predictor of Social Intelligence; while other traits aid in prediction, they do not diminish the relation between the two. The results provide some supports for the lexical hypothesis prediction that Factor V traits terms summarize behaviors that shape implicit conceptions of intelligence.

Bjorkqvist et al. (2000) reviewed studies on the relationship between social intelligence, empathy and behaviour in conflict situations with a special focus on the research conducted with the application of peer-estimated measures of major variables involved. Social intelligence and empathy are described as separate concepts and sex differences in conflict behaviour are discussed. Findings suggest that social intelligence is required for all types of conflict behaviour, prosocial as well as antisocial, but the presence of empathy acts as a mitigator of aggression. When empathy is partialed out correlation between social intelligence and all types of aggression increase, while
correlation between social intelligence and peaceful conflict resolution decrease. Social intelligence is related differently to various forms of aggressive behaviour more strongly to indirect than to verbal aggression, and weakest to physical aggression, which is in accordance with the developmental theory of aggressive style.

Lee et al. (2000) conducted a study for the purposes: (1) to replicate previous research on social intelligence that shows social intelligence to be multidimensional in nature and distinguishable from academic intelligence, (2) to extend prior research by assessing whether the crystallized/fluid distinction commonly discussed in the academic intelligence literature was applicable to the domain of social intelligence, and (3) to explore whether a hierarchical model of social and academic intelligences was consistent with the data. 169 18-22 yr. university students completed verbal, pictorial and self-report measures of 4 constructs: social knowledge (hypothesized to reflect crystallized social intelligence), social inference (hypothesized to reflect fluid social intelligence), crystallized academic and fluid academic intelligences. In addition, other-report measures were collected for these constructs in this multitrait-multimethod study. Confirmatory factor analyses replicated previous research,
documenting that the 4 trait constructs showed convergent and discriminant validities. Similar analyses also extended prior research by showing that the crystallized/ fluid distinction might be applicable in the social intelligence domain and a hierarchical model fits the data well.