Chapter 5

RESULT AND DISCUSSION
In the present investigation the author dwells into the problems pertaining to the effects of sex and parent-child relationship on emotional intelligence on the one hand (Study I) and pertaining to the effect of their sex and emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness on the other hand (Study II).

The present chapter has been devoted to the discussion of the obtained findings. The data were analyzed with the help of parametric statistics (Chapter-Four) with a view to study individual and interaction effects both. The present chapter will be divided into two parts. First will be elaborating individual and interaction effects of sex and parent-child relationship on emotional intelligence (Study I) and second will be throwing light on individual and interaction effects of sex and emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness of the subjects (Study II).

STUDY I

As has already been stated earlier that study I of the present research deals with the effect of two independent variables i.e., sex and parent-child relationship, on emotional intelligence of the subjects.
INDEPENDENT EFFECT OF SEX ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Sex has been considered as an important independent variable expected to exert its effect on emotional intelligence of the individuals. It was hypothesized that females would be more emotionally intelligent than males.

A perusal of Table 12 reveals that average emotional intelligence scores of females (M=272.63335, Figure 1) is higher than that of males (M=272.50835, Figure 1).

![Average Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females](image)

Figure #1: Average Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females

To check significance of this difference between the two sex groups in regard to their emotional intelligence, an F-ratio was computed in a two-way ANOVA along with another variable i.e., parent-child relationship (Table 13). The obtained F-ratio (F=0.006) is not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 1 and 236 degrees of freedom. Furthermore, 2 CRs were also computed to ascertain significance of the difference between males and females belonging to good parent-child relationship and to poor parent-child relationship, separately, in respect of their emotional intelligence. It is clear from Table 14 that average emotional intelligence scores of females with good parent-child relationship (M=310.0167, Figure 2) is higher than that of males.
with good parent-child relationship (M=309.8667, Figure 2). Similarly, average emotional intelligence scores of females with poor parent-child relationship (M=235.25, Figure 3) is higher than that of males with poor parent-child relationship (M=235.15, Figure 3). The obtained CRs (CR=0.0594 for good parent-child relationship group and CR = 0.0478 for poor parent-child relationship group) are not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 118 degrees of freedom in one-tailed test.

Figure # 2 : Average Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females With Good Parent-Child Relationship

Figure # 3 : Average Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females With Poor Parent-Child Relationship
The insignificant F-ratio and CRs provide sound statistical ground to conclude that there does not exist any genuine difference between males and females in respect of their emotional intelligence. Hence, the present findings do not testify the research hypothesis wherein females were expected to be emotionally more intelligent than males.

Most men crack jokes that “hugging one another” is a feminine act. Such remark reveals the fact that women tend to be emotionally more intelligent by nature than do men. Kafetsios (2004), Brackett et al. (2004), Austin et al. (2005), and Bradberry & Greaves (2005) also observed that females scored higher on emotional intelligence tests in comparison to males. However, Thorndike (1914) and Hollingworth (1918) believed that psychological gender differences were too small. Similarly, Maccoby & Jacklin (1974), Lightdale & Prentice (1994) and Hyde (2005) hold that males and females are similar on most psychological variables. Bar-On (1997) revealed the fact that men and women had remarkably similar overall scores on the EQ-i which held true in a number of diverse countries and cultures worldwide.

Actually, the difference between males and females in respect of their emotional intelligence occurs only when we talk about the components of emotional intelligence such as, women have higher scores on components of social responsibility, empathy and interpersonal relationship, while men score higher on stress tolerance, self-regard, independence, optimism and problem-solving (Bar-On, 1997). Brody & Hall (1993) also found that parents, in general, discuss emotions with the exception of anger, more with their daughters than with their sons. They proposed that because girls develop facility with language more quickly than do boys, they are more experienced at articulating their feelings and more skilled than boys at using words to
explore and substitute for emotional reactions such as physical fights. In contrast, boys, for whom the verbalization of emotions is deemphasized, may become largely unconscious of their emotional states, both in themselves and others.

Viewing specially Indian cultural situations wherein women are highly regarded due to religious causes, they are nurtured to be emotionally high and to be sensitive and caring towards others. Most of the components of emotional intelligence are developed favourably with women. However, there are some other dimensions of emotional intelligence which find favourable environment to develop due to specific nurturance conditions available to males only. But the ingenuine difference between the two sexes in respect of their overall emotional intelligence observed in the present research however, denies these special circumstances prevailing in favour of women or men. The modern society of India, too, is growing a concept of egalitarian in regard to gender differences. Equal and similar opportunities in family, education, and work situations have reduced the environmental differences causing gender variations. The finding of the present research is in consonance with those of Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1998). Moreover, if at all there are some differences between males and females, they may be specified with differential dimensions of emotional intelligence. That is, due to specific biological and socio-cultural conditions males tend to excel females on certain dimensions of emotional intelligence, for example, stress tolerance, self-regard, independence, optimism and problem solving while females may tend to excel males on certain other dimensions of emotional intelligence i.e., social responsibility, empathy, and interpersonal relationship and ultimately, both the sex groups score equally on emotional intelligence test, when a total score is considered.
on the whole. This, too, may be contributing to the ingenuine difference between males and females in regard to their emotional intelligence, as observed in the present research. However, there is dearth of further research to throw more light on this gender difference in regard to emotional intelligence, considering individual dimensions of emotional intelligence for comparisons.

**INDEPENDENT EFFECT OF PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

The second problem of the present research was in relation to the effect of parent-child relationship on emotional intelligence of the subjects. It was hypothesized that the subjects having good parent-child relationship would be emotionally more intelligent than those having poor parent-child relationship.

A perusal of Table 12 reveals that average emotional intelligence scores of the subjects having good parent-child relationship (M=309.9417, Figure 4) is higher than that of the subjects having poor parent-child relationship (M=235.20, Figure 4). An F-ratio was computed in a two-way ANOVA including another independent variable i.e., sex of the subjects. The obtained F-ratio (F=2069.77, Table 13) for the difference between subjects having good and those having poor parent-child relationship in respect of their emotional intelligence is significant at .01 level confidence for 1 and 236 degrees of freedom.
Furthermore, it is clear from Table 15 that average emotional intelligence scores of males with good parent-child relationship (M=309.8667, Figure 5) is higher than that of males with poor parent-child relationship (M=235.15, Figure 5). Similarly, average emotional intelligence scores of females with good parent-child relationship (M=310.0167, Figure 6) is higher than that of females with poor parent-child relationship (M=235.25, Figure 6).
Figure # 6 : Average Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Females With Good And With Poor Parent-Child Relationship

Two CRs were also computed to ascertain significance of these differences between the two groups, belonging to male and to female sex groups, separately. Both the obtained CRs (CR=32.1680, for male subjects and CR=32.2883, for female subjects, Table 15) are significant at .01 level of confidence for 118 degrees of freedom in one-tailed test. The significant F-ratio and CRs provide empirical evidence to retain the research hypothesis refuting the null hypothesis in this regard. In other words, it can be concluded that the subjects having good-parent child relationship are genuinely more emotionally intelligent in comparison to those having poor parent-child relationship. This finding is in consonance with those of Boyum and Parke (1995), Chamberlain & Paterson (1995), Goleman (1995), Russek & Schwartz (1996), Gottman (1997), Greenspan (1999), Elias et al. (1999), Brazelton & Greenspan (2000), and Bradberry & Greaves (2005).

The relationship a child cherishes with his / her parents or caregivers is absolutely vital for his future development. The personality pattern, the foundation of which is laid in babyhood, begins to take form in early childhood.
and later on. Because parents, mainly, constitute the social world of young children, how they feel about them and how they treat them are important factors in shaping self-concepts—the core of the personality pattern. Glasner (1961) has also asserted that the child’s self-concept is formed within the womb of family relationships. Developmental theories of emotional intelligence also indicate the role of parent-child relationship in the development of emotional intelligence among children. Naturally, a good parent-child relationship acts as a fertile ground for the development of emotional intelligence in children. Contrary to this, poor parent-child relationship may prove itself a hindrance in the development of emotional intelligence.

Emotional self-awareness is the ability to recognize one’s feelings and to differentiate between them, to know what one is feeling and why, and to know what caused the feelings. It is the first step towards exploring and coming to understand oneself and towards change. It can very well be reasoned that a child with good parent-child relationship gets enough opportunities while interacting with the parents to develop his self-concept which is the core of emotional self-awareness. A child through model parents learns about himself, his feelings and lays the foundation stone for the development of emotional intelligence. Parent-child relationship also plays an important part in the maturation of the orbitofrontal cortex of the brain, which is the center of emotional regulation.

Assertiveness is the ability to communicate clearly, specifically and unambiguously while at the same time being sensitive to the needs of others and their responses in a particular encounter. It is composed of three basic components— (i) the ability to express feelings like anger, warmth, love etc., (ii) the ability to express beliefs and thoughts openly, and (iii) the ability to
stand up for personal rights and not allowing others to bother a person or take advantage of him. Children of authoritative parents enjoy a good parent-child relationship. In such a relationship parents value a child’s individuality but also stress social constraints. They give guidance but are not controlling. They share a warm and supportive relationship with their children. They explain the reasoning behind their stands and encourage verbal give and take. Such parents make genuine efforts to inculcate assertiveness in their children and as a result their children are found to be more self-controlled, self confident, independent, adaptable, well liked, assertive and contained. These are the qualities which make them of high emotional intelligence. Contrary to this, children of authoritarian, permissive and uninvolved parents find themselves in unfavourable parental-modeling conditions which hinder the development of assertiveness in them. Such children are found to be unhappy, withdrawn, discontented, less warm and have difficulty in trusting others. They have also been found to have a lower level of self-esteem and self-control. All these qualities make them either aggressive and pessimistic which are the hindering factors in being assertive. An important aspect of self-control is the ability to moderate one’s emotional reaction to a situation, whether that reaction is positive or negative. Parents and children often get involved in a "yelling spiral". When parents themselves practice self-control and when they share a healthy relationship with their children, then only they can explain and make children understand how to know about one’s own and others’ feelings and perspectives and how to use the skill of assertiveness and, thus, increase their emotional intelligence.

Independence is the ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in one’s thinking and actions. Independent people are self-reliant in planning and making important decisions which rest on one’s degree of self-confidence
and inner strength and the desire to meet expectations and obligations without becoming a slave to them and at the same time, showing respect towards the other people’s needs for independence. The children who enjoy a good parent-child relationship find their parents valuing their individuality apart of stressing social constraints. Such parents encourage competence in their children which opens the way for the development of self-confidence and independence in their children. When the children have a secure attachment, they share a good parent-child relationship and are better equipped emotionally to deal with life than children with anxious attachments, a characteristic condition of poor parent-child relationship. Secure attachment is a kind of attachment where the parent and child are strongly attached. The child feels that he can depend on his parents. He knows that his parents will be there when he needs support and he knows what to expect. These good and healthy parent-child relationships are built when adults are consistent in the way they respond to the child’s needs. Securely attached children have a more balanced self-concept, more advanced memory process, a more sophisticated grasp of emotions and emotional processes, and they show greater conscience development than insecurely attached children which ultimately gives them the privilege to enjoy a true independence.

Self-regard is the ability to respect oneself as basically good. It is the ability to appreciate one’s perceived positive aspects and possibilities as well as to accept one’s negative aspects and limitations and still feel good about oneself. This component of emotional intelligence is associated with general feelings of security, inner strength, self-assuredness, self-confidence and self-adequacy. People with self-regard feel fulfilled and satisfied with themselves. At the opposite end of the continuum are feelings of personal inadequacy and inferiority. Development of these qualities is certainly dependent on the type
of parent-child relationship enjoyed by the children. Certainly, authoritative parents who provide a secure attachment to their children are fostering an environment which nurtures these qualities in their children leading them to develop a high self-regard.

Self-actualization is the ability to realize one's potential capacities. Striving to actualize one's potential involves developing enjoyable and meaningful activities. The children who are deprived of good parent-child relationship find their parents either too critical or too passive or uninvolved in regard to their personal needs, desires and goals which further prevents them from self-actualizing. In such negative conditions of parent-child relationships wherein the children are with either insecure attachment or anxious resistant/avoidant attachment, their path toward self-actualization is obstructed due to non-fulfillment of their basic needs. Maslow (1943), too, emphasized the satisfaction of basic needs before reaching the state of self-actualization. Contrary to this, children enjoying good parent-child relationship find amiable conditions to self-actualize themselves through secure attachment provided by authoritative parents.

Empathy is the ability to be aware of, to understand and to appreciate the feelings and thoughts of others. Being empathic means being able to emotionally read other people. It is the ability to see the world from another person's perspective. Zahn-Waxler et al. (1979) observed that young children whose parents responded more positively to their emotional distress i.e., who enjoy good parent-child relationship, were more likely to react positively to emotional distress in others, display more prosocial behaviour and score higher on measure of empathy. It sounds reasonable to infer a causal relationship between parent-child relationship and development of empathy in children.
Because of being nurtured in healthy relations with parents, the children spontaneously grow up with a special ability of being sensitive to other people's feelings. Their better social-emotional competence (Denham, 1993) and more popularity among their peers (Putallaz, 1987) lead such empathetic children to express a higher level of emotional intelligence in the family, at school and at work in future too. The foundation of this high empathy in the children, however, lies in the experiences these children have while interacting with their parents during early period of development. Obviously, a good parent-child relationship lays a founding stone for a strong empathetic behaviours in children.

Social responsibility is the ability to demonstrate that one is a cooperative, contributing and constructive member of one's social group. This component of emotional intelligence involves acting in a responsible manner, even though one might not benefit personally. It is a concern for the welfare of others, the ability to integrate oneself into the community at large. To deal with others effectively in a socially responsible manner is a very important skill that children can learn from parents by simple observation. This also entails social skills such as communication and problem solving. In order to communicate effectively, one must not only be able to express oneself in a clear manner but must also know how to listen and how to give constructive feedback. Learning to listen to others carefully and accurately, to take turns, to harmonize different feelings, create conscientiousness and to state one's ideas clearly are the social styles that help people to work better with a sense of social responsibility in groups. It can very well be reasoned that a child with good parent-child relationship finds his parents playing role models to develop this sense of social responsibility and to express their high socio-emotional intelligence during their interactions with other people in
social settings. They show high and constructive concerns for other group members, are willing to shoulder social responsibilities appropriate for their age and reaching upto the expectation of other people in the regard. Contrary to this, a child who is deprived of such healthy interactions with parents is nurtured with poor parent-child relationship and develops into a mistrustful personality which in turn makes him socially withdrawn and away from a sense of social responsibility and hence proving him of poor emotional intelligence.

Positive interpersonal relationship skill is the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships that are characterized by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection. Mutual satisfaction includes meaningful social interchanges that are potentially rewarding and enjoyable. This skill involves sensitivity towards others and is associated with the desire to cultivate friendly relations with others and also to feel at ease and comfortable in such relations. Roopnarine and Honig (1985) observed that emotional intelligence skills begin to develop during infancy and is strongly influenced by familial and cultural expectation. Adult modeling and parent-child interactions play powerful roles in shaping this learning. Through their own responses to life situations, parents and other adults teach children to identify and express emotions appropriately. Children reared in environments without emotionally adept parental models are unable to initiate and maintain constructive and effective social relationships with teachers and other students due to lack of emotional intelligence skills which has its roots in parent-child relationship. Evidently, a child, who lacks such emotional intelligence skills, is unable to sustain healthy interpersonal relationships in the family, at the school and in other social interactions. Contrary to this, a child with good parent-child relationship empowers himself with emotionally adept
parental models which enables him to initiate and maintain healthier interpersonal relationships. Freud (1961) suggested that the infant’s emotional tie provides the foundation for all later relationships. According to Bowlby (1969) the infant’s relationship with the parents begins as a set of innate signals that call the adult to the babies side. Overtime, a true affectionate bond develops supported by new emotional and cognitive capacities as well as a history of warm-sensitive care. He retained the psychoanalytic idea that quality of attachment to the caregiver has profound implications for the child’s feeling of security and capacity to form trusting relationships later in life. Chamberlain & Paterson (1995) also assert that sensitive parenting can result in favourable outcomes even for difficult children in regard to their interpersonal relationships. Boyum and Parke (1995) reported that expressiveness and observed parental affect were meaningful predictors of children's sociometric ratings. They observed significant connection between emotional expression in the child's family environment and his social competence with peers. In other words, parents who maintain good parent-child relationship and who are aware of their own emotions and express these emotions to their children and other family members in a healthier and predictable manner, provide a genuine role model for their children by having good interpersonal relationships in various social situations. This reflects a state of higher emotional intelligence among these children who cherish good parent-child relationship.

Problem solving is the ability to identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions. It is associated with being conscientious, disciplined, methodical and systematic in approaching and persevering problems. This skill is also linked to a desire to do one’s best and to confront problems rather than to avoid them. This is another skill which parents, who have good relationship with their children, teach them. It en-
ables the children to solve interpersonal problems and make sound, thoughtful and responsible choices in everyday life. It also enables them to bounce back constructively when they hit inevitable roadblocks and obstacles in their path to solve the problems. Brazelton & Greenspan (2000) assert that children have the need for ongoing nurturing relationships with their parents. It is emotions through which human infants learn higher reasoning and problem solving adaptation skills. These are the skills which enable the child to learn to think, consequently, to be a better problem solver. In a true sense, the child nurtured with good parent-child relationship finds himself equipped with cognitive, emotional and social potentialities which assist him in solving the problem tasks.

Reality testing is the ability to assess the correspondence between experience and objective evidence. It involves ‘tuning in’ to the immediate situation and a search for objective evidence to confirm, justify and support feelings, perceptions and thoughts with lucidity and clarity. Goleman (1995) asserts that family life is the first school of emotional learning for children. It is here that they learn to feel about themselves and about reactions of others to their feelings. Children learn to handle their emotions and feelings not only through the things parents say and do directly but also in the models they offer for handling their own feelings. It is at this space the children with good parent-child relationship learn to evaluate the surrounding situations and its various dimensions objectively. They are driven with evidenced perception and thinking. Contrary to this, a child with poor parent-child relationship is deprived of such emotionally adept parental models and ultimately lacks capability of objective evaluation of self, others and situations consequently hampering them from possessing high emotional intelligence.
The flexibility component of emotional intelligence concerns one’s overall ability to adapt to unfamiliar and unpredictable circumstances. It is also tied to reality testing dimension of emotional intelligence. Naturally, objective evaluations of self, others and of surroundings enables a person to be flexible in his interactions. A child with good parent-child relationship is privileged with the quality of reality testing leading him to be flexible also. Contrary to this, a child with poor parent-child relationship is deprived from developing the skill of reality testing because of the absence of emotionally adept parental models which also deprives him from being flexible.

Stress tolerance is the ability to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without falling apart by coping with stress in an active and positive manner. It includes having a repertoire of suitable responses to stressful situations and associated with the capacity to be relaxed and composed and to calmly face difficulties without getting carried away by strong emotions. Gottman (1997) found that most parents fall into one of the two broad categories. The first is ‘emotion coaches’ who give their children guidance about the world of emotion and, thus, maintain good parent-child relationship. The second category is of those parents who don’t provide such guidance to their children. The emotion coaches teach their children strategies to deal with life’s stressful situations. They don’t object to their children’s displays of anger, sadness or fear, nor do they ignore them. Instead, they educate their children about negative emotions aroused in stressful situations as a fact of life and use these moments as the opportunities for teaching their children important life’s lessons and further building even more closer relationships with them. These close parent-child relationships serve as a fertile ground for the parents to enrich their children with vital stress coping strategies or to say equipping them with vital emotional intelligence skills. In a
true sense, emotionally adept parental models with their authoritative style of parenting are able to develop secure attachment with their children. And these securely attached children of emotionally adept authoritative parents in turn equip themselves with such skills which can help them to deal effectively and productively in stressful situations by observing and adopting such parental role models. In contrast to this, children experiencing poor parent-child relationship lack such healthy parental role models to observe consequently retarding them from developing stress coping strategies, a state of poor emotional intelligence.

Impulse control is the ability to resist or delay an impulse, craving or temptation to act. It is the capacity for accepting one's aggressive impulses, being composed and controlling aggression, hostility and irresponsible behaviour. It also gives a person the capacity to manage wisely and coolly a wide range of volatile emotional states and urges. It also focuses on a component of coping with behavioural impulses known as delayed gratification, the ability to wait for something. It is only the parents who can serve as a role model and can explain to their children how to develop the ability to delay gratification and to be rewarded for it. This skill of impulse control paves the way to possess higher emotional intelligence. In his interesting 'Marshmallow' study Mischel (1960) found that the students who were able to wait not only had positive behaviour and better mental health but also had higher SAT scores than their Marshmallow grabbing age mates. It is a common observation and a well evident fact that impulsive parents present a negative parental role model of high impulsivity in front of their children. Their impatience, and heightened and inappropriate reactions are being transmitted to their children making them to be of Marshmallow grabbing type who cannot delay their gratification of their desires or impulsiveness to act even for better state
of consequence. In contrast, children with good parent-child relationship have emotionally adept parental role models to follow. The patient, well reasoned, time related and appropriate reactions of such emotionally adept parents provide a healthy parental role model to their children leading them to have a genuine impulse control and express higher emotional intelligence.

Happiness is the ability to feel satisfied with one's life, to enjoy oneself and others and to have fun. It combines self-satisfaction, general contentment and the ability to enjoy life. It is the capacity which influences and is also influenced by other emotional intelligence competencies like reality testing, self-regard and self-actualization. A good parent-child relationship spontaneously provides a familial environment in which the seeds of happiness are nourished and are grown to the fullest in various domains of life in different colours. Thus, a child enjoying good parent-child relationship is happy from within and is able to make others happy -- a state of high emotional intelligence. Contrary to this, a child with poor parent-child relationship is deserted from such a fertile environment to grow into a happy flower of the family and society. The unhappy state of such children prevents them from expressing emotionally intelligent behaviour in their personal and social interactions.

As primary nurturers of their children, parents have a tremendous impact on whether or not their children grow up to be happy adults. Gottman (1997) asserts that relationships are among the most significant influences on healthy growth and psychological well-being for children. Diener and Seligman (2002) also observed that happy parents are able to develop stronger and affectionate social relationships with their children than less happy parents. It is through this state of affair only that children enjoying good parent-child relationship have a greater feeling of subjective well-being and
happiness than those with poor parent-child relationship.

Optimism is the ability to look at the brighter side of life and maintain a positive attitude in the face of adversity. It is a measure of hope and positive approach to daily living in one’s life. It is the ability to stop thinking or saying destructive things about oneself and the world around oneself. One of the most important things about human beings is that they can set goals and make plans to reach these goals. As parents if people improve their goal setting and planning, their children are sure to pick up these qualities from them which in turn instill in them optimism and hope and will go a long way in increasing their emotional intelligence. An emotionally adept authoritative parent who develops a secure attachment with his child nurtures an environment of trustfulness and hope. He does not restrain the child to get exposures to his life but at the same time glitters a ray of hope even at in times of failure. This may enable a child with good parent-child relationship to be optimistic in every sphere of life and deal with even adverse and difficult situations with expectation of positive outcomes. In contrast, a child with poor parent-child relationship finds an authoritarian, anxiety laden or uninvolved parental model where in he only learns hopelessness.

Emde (1988) and Osofsky (1992) assert that the first language of the infant for communicating needs comprises non-verbal facial expressions and other behavioural displays of emotions by the caregiver. Of particular importance, as the infant grows is the attention the mother gives to her child’s facial expression. It is the mother’s perception of these facial cues that enables her to appraise the child’s internal state and to respond with her own emotional expression including prosodic vocalizations. The infant also keeps a close eye on the mother’s facial expressions as a signal of her own internal state.
and as a "mirror" reflecting back to the infant an image of his emotional state. Schore (1996) confirms that such signals may serve to amplify or dampen the infant's affective state. The development of affect regulating skill is, therefore, facilitated by the mutual sharing and mirroring of emotional expressions with the mother and later by engaging in pleasurable playful interactions and being taught words to name and talk about feelings (Dunn et al., 1991; Gergely & Watson, 1996; Taylor et al. 1997). Mirro (2003) found a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and an authoritative style of parenting. Bradberry & Greaves (2005) also assert that a parent has a single greatest opportunity to influence his child's emotional intelligence which is made and not born. A parent's guidance in understanding and processing emotions is the driving force behind a child's ability to demonstrate emotional intelligence. Children learn emotional intelligence skills from their parents. Without the example of their parents, children miss out on the best source to learn from. Hence, every moment spent by parents with the children is an opportunity to demonstrate and teach emotional intelligence.

All these findings, as well as the finding of the present research provide sound base to believe that children with good parent-child relationship excel those with poor parent-child relationship in regard to their emotional intelligence.

JOINT EFFECT OF SEX AND PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

So far, we have been discussing the effect of single factors (sex and parent-child relationship) on emotional intelligence of the subjects. We can also study the joint effect of the two factors at a time. Thus, it may be
interesting to know whether the four subgroups formed on the basis of sex (i.e., male and female) and parent-child relationship (i.e., good and poor) would differ in regard to their emotional intelligence. In general, when a number of individuals or items are grouped according to several factors of classification and these factors are not independent, there is said to be interaction between them. The interaction is a measure of the extent to which the effect upon the dependent variable of changing the level of one factor depends on the level of others. Thus, the two treatments say N and P each of two levels (0 and 1), the effect of four treatment combinations can be written as \( N_0 P_0, N_1 P_0, N_0 P_1 \), and \( N_1 P_1 \). If the treatments are independent, the effect of varying N from \( N_0 \) to \( N_1 \) would be the same from \( P_0 \) to \( P_1 \) with P. The extent to which this is not so is a measure of interaction.

The specific problem here is whether the two independent variables i.e., sex and parent-child relationship exert any interaction effect on emotional intelligence of the subjects. On the basis of weightage model (Table 2), it was assumed that females having good parent-child relationship would score highest on emotional intelligence test while males having poor parent-child relationship would score the least. The other two groups i.e., males having good parent-child relationship and females having poor parent-child relationship would possess the intermediatory position in respect of their emotional intelligence scores. It is clear from Table 12 that the highest average emotional intelligence score is of females with good parent-child relationship (\( M=310.0167 \), Figure 7) and the lowest average emotional intelligence score is of males with poor parent-child relationship (\( M=235.15 \), Figure 7). Average emotional intelligence scores of females with poor parent-child relationship (\( M=235.25 \)) and males with good parent-child relationship
are also shown in Figure 7.

Figure 7: Average Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females With Good And Poor Parent-Child Relationship

An F-ratio was computed for the purpose of ascertaining the significance of this interaction effect. The obtained \( F=0.0006, \) Table 13) is not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 1 and 236 degrees of freedom which provides sound statistical ground to conclude that there does not exist any genuine interaction effect of sex and parent-child relationship on emotional intelligence of the subjects. In other-words, it can be said that emotional intelligence scores of males and females do not differ much because of their differential parent-child relationship. The same data also reveal that average difference between the subjects having good and those having poor parent-child relationship does not vary considerably due to their difference in sex. We have seen above that males and females do not differ genuinely in regard to their emotional intelligence. However, the subjects having
good parent-child relationship have excelled those having poor parent-child relationship in the same regard. The insignificant interaction effect between sex and parent-child relationship signifies that the two factors are independent in respect of their effect on emotional intelligence. Hence, the research hypothesis does not stand to the empirical test.
In the present research the author intended to study emotional intelligence in relation to sex and parent-child relationship on the one hand and relationship of emotional intelligence with adjustment and happiness on the other hand. The first part of discussion was confined to the study of the effect of sex and parent-child relationship on emotional intelligence. The second part of the discussion deals with effects of sex and emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness of subjects. For the purpose 50 male and 50 female subjects with average cognitive and emotional intelligence were selected randomly from a larger population. One half of the subjects (N=25) in each sex group were assigned randomly to the control group and another half (N=25) were randomly assigned to the experimental group. The subjects of control group were initially tested for their adjustment and happiness apart from their emotional intelligence. After a silent period of 18 days, all the subjects of control group were retested on emotional intelligence, adjustment and happiness. The subjects of experimental group were also initially tested for their adjustment and happiness apart from their emotional intelligence, as in the case of control group. However, they were retested on the same dimensions after 18 days' emotional intelligence training programme which comprised of 3 days' general emotional intelligence training and 15 days' specific emotional intelligence training on 15 components of emotional intelligence. Training on one component of emotional intelligence only was performed in a day and was given only to those subjects who were low on that component.

To study the effect of sex on adjustment and happiness, adjustment and happiness scores were directly taken into consideration. It has already
been discussed earlier that the subjects in Study II had been tested twice for their emotional intelligence, adjustment and happiness: once before training (pre-testing scores) and another after training (post-testing scores). In experimental condition pre-testing and post-testing scores were obtained before and after the training. In control condition though no training was given to the subjects, they were also put to retesting on emotional intelligence, adjustment and happiness after the silent period of 18 days during which the subjects of experimental group had actual training with a view to enhance their emotional intelligence. These pre-and post-testing assessments have provided the ground to compare control and experimental groups on the basis of the difference in scores between pre-and post-testing, which are termed as 'difference adjustment scores' or 'difference happiness scores', as the case may be to study the effect of emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness, respectively. These 'difference adjustment' and 'difference happiness' scores also provided the base to verify the sex difference in the regard.

Here below, the results pertaining to the effect of sex and emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness of the subjects are discussed. For the sake of better grasp, it is decided to divide this discussion of Study II into three parts. First pertains to the effect of sex on adjustment and happiness, second pertains to effect of emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness and third pertains to joint effect of sex and emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness.

The first part of Study II deals with the problems pertaining to the effects of sex on adjustment and happiness of the subjects. As has already been discussed above, adjustment and happiness scores both pre-testing
and post-testing and difference between pre-testing and post-testing, were considered as the criterion measurement for the purpose.

**INDEPENDENT EFFECT OF SEX ON ADJUSTMENT AND HAPPINESS**

The first two problems of study II pertain to the effects of sex on adjustment and happiness, respectively. It was assumed that females would be more adjusted and happier than males. For the purpose, as has already been discussed above, adjustment and happiness scores both pre-testing and post-testing and difference between pre-testing and post-testing were taken as criterion measurements, for further computation.

A perusal of Table 17 reveals that average adjustment scores of females in various subgroups i.e., in pre-testing disregarding condition (M=13.54, Figure 8), in post-testing disregarding condition (M=11.86, Figure 9), in control pre-testing (M=13.12, Figure 10), in control post-testing (M=13.12, Figure 11), in experimental pre-testing (M=13.96, Figure 12), and in experimental post-testing (M=10.60, Figure 13) are lower than those of males in various subgroups i.e., 14.02, 12.24, 13.84, 13.80, 14.20, and 10.68 (Figure 8-13), respectively. It has already been described that lower scores on the adjustment test is indicative of better adjustment. It is clear that females seem to be better adjusted than males.

Six CRs were computed to check significance of these differences between the two sex groups in respect of their adjustment scores (Table 18). All the obtained CRs are not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 98 or 48 degrees of freedom.
Figure #8: Average Pre-testing Adjustment Scores Of Males And Females (Disregarding Condition)

Figure #9: Average Post-testing Adjustment Scores Of Males And Females (Disregarding Condition)
Figure #10: Average Pre-testing Adjustment Scores Of Males And Females in Control Condition

Figure #11: Average Post-testing Adjustment Scores Of Males And Females in Control Condition
Figure #12: Average Pre-testing Adjustment Scores Of Males And Females In Experimental Condition

Figure #13: Average Post-testing Adjustment Scores Of Males And Females In Experimental Condition
Apart of it, as has been stated earlier, 'difference adjustment scores' were also considered for the purpose of studying sex difference in respect of adjustment. A perusal of Table 17 reveals that average 'difference adjustment scores' of females (M=1.68, Figure 14) is lower than that of males (M=1.78, Figure 14). To check significance of this difference between the two sex groups in respect of their 'difference adjustment scores' an F-ratio was computed in a two-way ANOVA along with emotional intelligence training as another factor (Table 19). The obtained F-ratio (F=0.276) is not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 1 and 96 degrees of freedom. Furthermore, 2 CRs were also computed to ascertain significance of the difference between males and females belonging to control group(M=0.04 and 0, respectively, Figure 15) and to experimental groups(M=3.52 and 3.36, respectively, Figure 16) as regards to their 'difference adjustment scores' (Table 20). Both the obtained CRs are also not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 48 degrees of freedom in one-tailed test.

![Figure #14: Average 'Difference Adjustment Scores' Of Males And Females Disregarding Condition](image-url)
Figure #15: Average 'Difference Adjustment Scores' Of Males And Females In Control Condition

Figure #16: Average 'Difference Adjustment Scores' Of Males And Females In Experimental Condition
The obtained insignificant F-ratio and CRs either for adjustment scores or for 'difference adjustment scores' provide sound statistical ground to conclude that there does not exist any genuine sex difference in regard to adjustment of the subjects. More specifically, males and females do not differ considerably in respect of their adjustment. The finding does not provide empirical ground to retain the research hypothesis in the regard. Hence, null hypothesis of no difference is accepted for the purpose.

Being thought emotionally more intelligent, it was expected that females would be better adjusted. However, the finding of the present research does not support this belief. It has also been observed in the present work (Study I) that the two sex groups do not differ truly in regard to their emotional intelligence also.

A perusal of Table 24 reveals that average happiness scores of females in various subgroups i.e., pre-testing disregarding condition (M=153.22, Figure 17), post-testing disregarding condition (M=155.36, Figure 18), control pre-testing (M=153.36, Figure 19), control post-testing (M=153.44, Figure 20), Experimental pre-testing (M=153.08, Figure 21) and Experimental post-testing (157.28, Figure 22) are higher than those of males in various subgroups i.e., 152.80 (Figure 17), 154.98 (Figure 18), 152.72 (Figure 19), 152.84 (Figure 20), 152.88 (Figure 21) and 157.12 (Figure 22), respectively. Six CRs were computed to check significance of these differences between the two sex groups in regard to their happiness scores (Table 25). All the obtained CRs are not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 98 or 48 degrees of freedom in one-tailed test.
Figure #17: Average Pre-testing Happiness Scores Of Males And Females Disregarding Condition

Figure #18: Average Post-testing Happiness Scores Of Males and Females Disregarding Condition
Figure #19: Average Pre-testing Happiness Scores Of Males And Females In Control Condition

Figure #20: Average Post-testing Happiness Scores Of Males and Females In Control Condition
Figure #21: Average Pre-testing Happiness Scores Of Males And Females In Experimental Condition

Figure #22: Average Post-testing Happiness Scores Of Males and Females In Experimental Condition
Apart of it, as has already been discussed earlier, 'difference happiness scores' were also considered to study sex difference as regards to happiness. A perusal of Table 24 reveals that average 'difference happiness scores' of females (M=2.14, Figure 23) is lower than that of males (M=2.18, Figure 23). An F-ratio was computed to check significance of this difference between the two sex-groups in regard to their 'difference happiness scores' in a two-way ANOVA wherein emotional intelligence training was considered as another factor (Table 26). The obtained F-ratio (F=0.0441) is not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 1 and 96 degrees of freedom. Furthermore, two CRs were also computed to ascertain significance of the difference between males and females belonging to control group (M=0.12 & M=0.08, Figure 24) and belonging to experimental group (M=4.24 & M=4.20, Figure 25) as regards to their 'difference happiness scores' (Table 27). Both the obtained CRs are not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 48 degree of freedom in one-tailed test.

![Average 'Difference Happiness Scores' Of Males And Females Disregarding Condition](image)

*Figure # 23 : Average 'Difference Happiness Scores' Of Males And Females Disregarding Condition*
Figure #24: Average 'Difference Happiness Scores' Of Males And Females In Control Condition

Figure #25: Average 'Difference Happiness Scores' Of Males And Females In Experimental Condition
The obtained insignificant F-ratio and CRs either for happiness scores or for ‘difference happiness scores’ provide sound statistical ground to conclude that there does not exist any true difference as regards to happiness of the subjects. More specifically, it can be concluded that males and females do differ truly in regard to their happiness. This finding of the present research does provide empirical ground to refute the research hypothesis in respect of happiness also. Hence, null hypothesis of no difference is accepted here also, for the purpose.

A perusal of Table 16, clarifies that average EI scores of males and females in pre-testing and post-testing situations disregarding condition are 270.40, 270.34 (Figure 26); and 273.58, 274.02 (Figure 27), respectively. The obtained CRs for these differences are 0.075 and 0.420, respectively for pre-testing and post-testing situations and both the CRs are not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 98 degrees of freedom. Furthermore, four CRs were also computed to ascertain sex difference in regard to EI. Here the comparison groups are males (M=270.72, Figure 28) and females (M=270.84, Figure 28) in control pre-testing condition, males (M=270.68, Figure 29) and females (M=270.92, Figure 29) in control post-testing condition, males (M=270.78, Figure 30) and females (M=269.84, Figure 30) in experimental pre-testing condition and males (M=276.48, Figure 31) and females (M=277.12, Figure 31) in experimental post-testing condition. The obtained CRs for all these four differences are 0.1086, 0.218, 0.206, and 0.483, respectively and all of these obtained CRs are not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 48 degrees of freedom.
Figure #26: Average Pre-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females Disregarding Condition

Figure #27: Average Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females Disregarding Condition
Figure #28: Average Pre-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females In Control Condition

Figure #29: Average Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females In Control Condition
Figure # 30: Average Pre-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females In Experimental Condition

Figure # 31: Average Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males And Females In Experimental Condition

All these six non-significant CRs again provide (Study II) sound empirical ground to believe that there does not exist any genuine difference between males and females in respect of their emotional intelligence.

Thorndike (1914) also found that psychological gender differences were too small. Hollingworth (1918) reviewed available research and found little
evidence of gender differences. Hyde (2005) proposed the 'gender similarity hypothesis' which states that males and females are similar on most psychological variables i.e., men and women as well as boys and girls are more alike than they are different. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), Lightdale and Prentice (1994), Eagly (1995), and Hyde & Plant (1995) also found much evidence for gender similarity.

Insignificant gender differences in respect of emotional intelligence, adjustment and happiness, throw light on the changing scenario in the modern society wherein no clarified, distinct responsibilities are laid down to males and females as it used to be done in earlier times. Egalitarian concept has brought the two sexes more closer. From the birth onward males and females in the present modern society are exposed to similar environment to develop. At familial level both are given equal importance and there are no discriminating conditions to nurture them. At school/college level also both the sexes are being provided equal opportunities to learn. At work also males and females are not treated much differently and career opportunities are open almost similarly for both the sexes. Apart of it, the constitution of a state is another factor which has decreased sex stereotyping and prejudice alongwith healthy egalitarian orientation among the general mass. All these changed circumstances have reduced the distance between males and females at socio cultural levels and both seem to find similar favourable/unfavourable situations to deal with and moreover now they both are equipped with equal psychosocial potentialities to deal with these circumstances providing similar internal and external situations for both males and females in regard to their adjustment and happiness. These may be the reasons of ingenuine difference between the two sex groups in respect of their adjustment and happiness as observed in the present research.
INDEPENDENT EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TRAINING ON ADJUSTMENT AND HAPPINESS

The most vital problems of the present research deals with effects of emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness of the subjects. As has already been discussed earlier that subjects of experimental group had gone under emotional intelligence training for 18 days which preceded and followed emotional intelligence testing along with adjustment and happiness. Before discussing, the effect of this emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness of the subjects, it is of prime importance to ascertain the effectiveness of this emotional intelligence training in regard to emotional intelligence itself. It has been dealt in the preceding chapter and is clear from Table 21 that post-testing emotional intelligence scores disregarding sex and condition (M=273.80, Figure32) is higher than that of pre-testing emotional intelligence scores (M=270.37, Figure32).

![Average Pre-testing and Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores (Disregarding Sex And Condition)](image)

Figure # 32: Average Pre-testing and Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores (Disregarding Sex And Condition)
A Critical ratio was computed to ascertain significance of this difference between pre-testing and post-testing emotional intelligence scores. The obtained CR (CR=9.53, Table 22) is significant at .01 level of confidence for 98 degrees of freedom. Furthermore, 2 CRs were computed for comparison between pre-testing and post-testing scores separately for control and experimental conditions. The obtained CR for control condition (CR=0.26, Table 22) indicates ingenuine difference between pre-testing emotional intelligence scores (M=270.78, Figure 33) and post-testing emotional intelligence scores (M=270.80, Figure 33), in this condition while the obtained CR for experimental condition (CR=30.00, Table 22) is significant at .01 level of confidence indicative of genuine difference between pre-testing (M=269.96, Figure 34) and post-testing (M=276.80, Figure 34) emotional intelligence scores.

![Graph showing pre-testing and post-testing emotional intelligence scores in control condition](image)

*Figure # 33: Average Pre-testing And Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores In Control Condition*
Figure # 34: Average Pre-testing And Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores In Experimental Condition

It is clear from insignificant CR for comparison between pre-testing and post-testing emotional intelligence scores in control condition that the post-testing emotional intelligence scores of this group does not increase considerably. However, the significant CRs — one disregarding sex and condition and another for experimental condition — provide sound statistical ground to believe that emotional intelligence training has increased emotional intelligence scores of the subjects.

Furthermore, four CRs were computed to compare emotional intelligence scores of the subjects in control and experimental groups separately for pre-testing scores (M=270.78 & 269.96, respectively, Figure 35), for post-testing scores (M=270.80 & 276.80, respectively, Figure 36), for male subjects (M=270.70 & 273.28, respectively, Figure 37) and for female subjects (M=270.88 & 273.48, respectively, Figure 38). The obtained CRs for comparisons between control and experimental conditions for post-testing scores (CR=7.02, Table 22), for male subjects (CR=2.6835, Table 22), and for female subjects (CR=2.718, Table 22) are significant at .01 level of confidence.
for 98 degrees of freedom while the CR for pre-testing scores (CR=1.03, Table 22) is not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 98 degrees of freedom in the same regard. These significant CRs for post-testing scores, for male subjects and for female subjects and insignificant CR for pre-testing emotional intelligence scores again provide sound statistical ground to conclude that emotional intelligence scores of subjects of experimental group increase truly after the training. At the same time it gives a sound ground to conclude that the control and experimental groups were matched groups in regard to their pre-testing emotional intelligence.

*Figure # 35: Average Pre-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores For Control And Experimental Group*
Figure # 36: Average Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores For Control And Experimental Groups

Figure # 37: Average Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Male Subjects In Control And In Experimental Conditions
Furthermore, it is clear from Table 22 that average pre-testing emotional intelligence scores of males in control and in experimental conditions are 270.72 and 270.08, respectively (Figure 39). The obtained CR for this difference (CR=0.55, Table 22) is not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 48 degrees of freedom. Similarly, the obtained CR (CR=0.91, Table 22) for difference in pre-testing emotional intelligence scores of females in control groups (M=270.84, Figure 40) and for females in experimental groups (M=269.84, Figure 40) is not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 48 degrees of freedom. However, it is also clear from Table 22 that average post-testing emotional intelligence scores of males of experimental group (M=276.48, Figure 41) is higher than that of control group (M=270.68, Figure 41). The obtained CR for this difference (CR=4.65, Table 22) is significant at .01 level of confidence for 48 degrees of freedom and similarly the obtained CR (CR=5.21, Table 22) for the difference in post-testing emotional intelligence of females in control group (M=270.92, Figure 42) and Experimental group (M=277.12, Figure 42) is significant at .01 level of confidence for 48
degrees of freedom. The insignificant CRs for pre-testing scores clearly indicate that the control and experimental groups were matched groups before the training condition, hence, provide sound empirical ground to observe for the differential effect of training on both the groups in regard to their emotional intelligence scores. However, the significant CRs for comparing control and experimental groups in post-testing situation, at the same time, provide sound statistical ground to believe that emotional intelligence training brought a more genuine raise in emotional intelligence in the subjects of experimental group in comparison to the subjects of control group.

*Figure # 39*: Average Pre-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males In Control And Experimental Groups
Figure #40: Average Pre-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Females In Control And Experimental Groups

Figure #41: Average Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males In Control And Experimental Groups
Lastly, four more CRs were computed to verify significance of the differences between pre-testing and post-testing emotional intelligence scores, separately for males and females. It is clear from Table 22 that average pre-testing emotional intelligence scores of males in control condition is 270.72 (Figure 43) and that of post-testing is 270.68 (Figure 43). The obtained CR for this difference (CR=0.37, Table 22) is not significant at any acceptable level of confidence. However, the obtained CR for the difference in experimental condition (M=270.08, M=276.48, respectively, Figure 44, CR=20.25, Table 22) is significant at .01 level of confidence for 48 degrees of freedom. It is also clear from Table 22 that average pre-testing emotional intelligence scores of females in control condition is 270.84 (Figure 45) and that of post-testing is 270.92 (Figure 45). The obtained CR for this difference is 0.05 (Table 22) and is not significant at any acceptable of confidence for 48 degrees of freedom. However, the obtained CR (CR=22.97, Table 22) for the difference between pre-testing and post-testing emotional intelligence scores of females.
in experimental condition (M=269.84, M=277.12, respectively, Figure 46) is significant at .01 level of confidence for 48 degrees of freedom. Again, the insignificant CRs for the difference between pre-testing and post-testing emotional intelligence scores for control condition signify the fact that in the absence of training there does not exist any true difference between pre-testing and post-testing situations in respect of their emotional intelligence scores while significant CRs for comparing pre-and post-testing emotional intelligence scores in experimental condition clearly indicate that there is genuine increase in emotional intelligence scores after emotional intelligence training.

*Figure # 43 : Average Pre-testing And Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males In Control Condition*
Figure # 44: Average Pre-testing And Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Males In Experimental Condition

Figure # 45: Average Pre-testing And Post-testing Emotional Intelligence Scores Of Females In Control Condition
It is clear from the above discussion that the emotional intelligence training had considerably raised emotional intelligence level of the subjects in experimental group in comparison to those in control group who were not given such training. Hence, there is empirical ground to accept the effectiveness of emotional intelligence training in enhancing emotional intelligence level of the subjects.

Now, the specific problems here are whether raised emotional intelligence through emotional intelligence training increases adjustment and happiness of the subjects in turn? It was hypothesized that raised emotional intelligence level through emotional intelligence training would improve adjustment and happiness of the subjects. More specifically, the average 'difference adjustment scores' and average 'difference happiness scores' of experimental (training) group would be more than those of control (non-training) group.

A perusal of Table 17 reveals that average 'difference adjustment scores'
of experimental group (M=3.44, Figure 47) is higher than that of control group (M=0.02, Figure 47). An F-ratio was computed to check significance of this difference between two training condition groups in a two-way ANOVA along with sex as another factor (Table 19). The obtained F-ratio (F=322.82) is significant at .01 level of confidence for 1 and 96 degrees of freedom.

Two more CRs were also calculated to ascertain significance of the difference between non-training and training groups belonging to male and female sex groups, separately, in respect of their adjustment. Average 'difference adjustment scores' of males in control and experimental conditions are 0.04 and 3.52, respectively (Table 23, Figure 48). The obtained CR for this difference is 12.89, (Table 23). Similarly, average 'difference adjustment scores' of females in control and experimental conditions are 0 and 3.36, respectively (Table 23, Figure 49), and the obtained CR for this difference is 12.74, (Table 23). Both the CRs are significant at .01 level of confidence for 48 degrees of freedom.

*Figure # 47 : Average ‘Difference Adjustment Scores’ Of Control And Experimental Groups (Disregarding Sex)*
Figure #48: Average 'Difference Adjustment Scores' Of Males In Control And Experimental Groups

Figure #49: Average 'Difference Adjustment Scores' Of Females In Control And Experimental Groups
Significant F-ratio and CRs provide empirical ground to conclude that there does exist genuine difference between control (non-training) and experimental (training) groups in respect of their adjustment. The findings confirm the research hypothesis, refuting the null hypothesis in the regard. More specifically, it can be concluded that adjustment of the subjects in the experimental group improves more considerably after being given emotional intelligence training in comparison to those of control group, who are not given any such training. The finding of the present research are in consonance with those of Huy (1999), Eisenberg et al. (2000), Sjoberg (2001), Salovey et al. (2002) and Summerfeldt et al. (2006).

Similarly, a perusal of Table 24 reveals that ‘average difference happiness’ scores of experimental group (M=4.22, Figure 50) is higher than that of control group (M=0.10, Figure 50). An F-ratio was computed to check significance of this difference between two training condition groups in a two-way ANOVA along with sex as another factor (Table 26). The obtained F-ratio (F=468.0285) is significant at .01 level of confidence for 1 and 96 degrees of freedom. Two more CRs were computed to ascertain significance of the difference between non-training and training groups belonging to male and female sex groups, separately, in respect of their happiness. Average ‘difference happiness scores’ of males in control and in experimental conditions are 0.12 & 4.24 (Table 28, Figure 51), respectively. The obtained CR for this difference is 14.41 (Table 28). Similarly ‘average difference happiness scores’ of females in control and experimental conditions are 0.08 and 4.20, respectively (Table 28, Figure 52) and the obtained CR for this difference is 16.66 (Table 28). Both the CRs are significant at .01 level of confidence for 48 degrees of freedom.
Figure #50: Average 'Difference Happiness Scores' Of Control And Experimental Groups (Disregarding Sex)

Figure #51: Average 'Difference Happiness Scores' Of Males In Control And Experimental Groups
Significant F-ratio and CRs provide sound statistical ground to conclude that there does exist genuine difference between control (non-training) and experimental (training) groups in respect of their happiness. The findings confirm the research hypothesis, refuting the null hypothesis in the regard. More specifically, it can be concluded that happiness of the subjects in the experimental group improved more considerably after being given emotional intelligence training in comparison to those of control group, who were not given any such training. The findings of the present research are in consonance with those of Hein (1996), Bar-On (2005) and Bastian et al. (2005).

Bar-On (1997) described emotional intelligence as an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. Mayer et al. (1990) and Salovey & Mayer et al. (1990) describe an emotionally intelligent person as well-adjusted, warm, genuine and optimistic. Goleman (1995, 1998), Sjoberg (2001), and Brackett (2005) also assert that emotional intelligence is
a critical factor in adjustment to life in general. Bronstein et al. (1996) have found positive association between adolescent emotional expression and overall social and psychological adjustment. Huy (1999) found that emotional intelligence facilitated individual adaptation. Eisenberg et al. (2000) and Englebert & Sjoberg (2004) found that emotional intelligence contributed to social and academic adjustment of school children. Dulewicz and Higgs (2002) showed that there was positive relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional adjustment. Schmidt and Andrykowski (2004) showed that high emotional intelligence lead to better adjustment and adaptation to traumatic events. Summerfeldt et al. (2006) also found that emotional intelligence factor was a dominant predictor of interpersonal adjustment.

Similarly, Koifman (1998), Chi-Sum et al. (2001), Palmer et al. (2002), Saklofske et al. (2003), Furnham et al. (2003), Gannon and Ranzijn (2004), Bradberry and Greaves (2005), Bar-On (2005) and Bastian et al. (2005) observed that emotional intelligence was positively related to happiness.

Literatures on emotional intelligence reveal some important dimensions of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 1997) which can be reasoned to contribute to adjustment and happiness of people. These are emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-regard, self-actualization, empathy, social-responsibility, interpersonal-relationship, problem-solving, reality-testing, flexibility, stress-tolerance, impulse-control, happiness and optimism.

Emotional self-awareness is the ability to recognize one’s feelings and to differentiate between them and to know what one is feeling and why and to know what caused the feelings. It is crucial for success in every sphere of life. If people cannot recognize their feelings, they are at risk of behaving in
ways that others may start avoiding them. People can never build loving and trusting relationships in the absence of awareness of the impact of their behaviours on others. At the same time, poor self-awareness may retard a person in expressing his feelings. Salovey et al. (2002) found that those who had difficulty in identifying their own emotional reactions reported greater problems in adjustment. Kerr et al. (2004) also found a link between alexithymia and college adjustment. They observed that difficulty in identifying feelings was linked to difficulty in personal and social adjustment. It is clear that a self-aware person finds better scope to adjust in various spheres of his life and remains happy because his emotional self awareness helps him to behave in an appropriate manner as the time and situation demand and seeking for happiness for self and others too. He is an emotionally adept person who behaves in an adapting manner in his personal-emotional life in family, school, work and other situations while interacting with other people. His reactions during social interactions provide a comfortable and soothing interactive environment for others too in various social situations leading to greater happiness and a better adjusted state in comparison to that person who is not emotionally self-aware. The lack of emotional self-awareness leads a person to react in various social situations in whimsical and impulsive ways leading to poor adjustment and unhappy state for himself and for others too.

Assertiveness is an important dimension considered by Bar-On (1997) under the realm of intrapersonal management which seems to be related to social adjustment and happiness of a person. It involves the ability to communicate clearly, specifically and unambiguously, while being sensitive to the needs of others at the same time, and their responses in a particular social interaction. Assertiveness means constantly bearing in mind other people and their reactions so that even in an unpleasant situation, the other person
feels respected and accepted and not put down. This often results in a better state of social adjustment and happiness.

Shaffer (1956) asserts that adjustment is the process by which a living organism maintains a balance between his needs and circumstances. This influences the satisfaction of these needs which is the base of his adjustment and happiness in such situations. Assertive people express their wishes or needs clearly and unambiguously to others and, therefore, are able to remain privileged so far their needs satisfaction is concerned which lead them to feel comfortable, happy and adjusted to their environment. Leadbeater et al. (1989) found that highly assertive subjects were having better social problem adaptation skills. Nair et al. (2001) also found that being assertive improved adjustment. In contrast, non-assertive people have difficulty in expressing themselves to others leading to a deprived state and consequently making them unhappy, defeated and poorly adjusted.

Lawton (1951) also describes well adjusted people as those who are assertive i.e., who can say ‘no’ to situations harmful to their best interest, can say ‘yes’ to situations that can aid them, can show anger directly when injured or when rights are violated and can show affection directly and appropriate in kind and amount.

Independence is the ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency. The ability to be independent rests upon one’s degree of self-confidence and inner strength and a desire to meet expectations and obligations without becoming a slave to them. An independent person’s attitude, positive feelings and consideration of other’s suggestions lead him to the path of goal adjustment and ultimately a state of happiness.
Lawton (1951) defining the characteristics of well adjusted people asserted that independent people are able and willing to assume responsibilities appropriate to their age, make decisions with a minimum of worry, conflict and advice seeking and abide by a choice they make until convinced that it is a wrong choice. Similarly, Alston & Dudley (1973) assert that life-satisfaction is the ability to enjoy one's experiences, accompanied by a degree of excitement. Diener (1984) also defines happiness as subjective well-being which is a measure of a person's own evaluation of his life. It is logical to reason that the capacity to be independent brings more opportunities for a person to seek happiness for himself from his own experiences due to his quality as an independent person.

Decision making capacity of independent people prompts them to seek adaptive comforts and happiness following their decisions. Contrary to this, the people who are low on this dimension of emotional intelligence are unable to take appropriate decisions demanded by the time and situation, prove themselves failures due to their non-decisive capacity. As a result, they remain in conflict with themselves, evaluate themselves inferior, and hence try to cling to other people always to take decisions for them which is a stressful and unpleasant situation for both, leading to poorly adjusted and unhappy states in their lives.

Self-regard is another dimension of emotional intelligence which can be expected to leave its impression on adjustment and happiness of a person. It is the ability to respect and accept oneself as essentially good. It is knowing one's strengths, weaknesses and still liking oneself. This conceptual component of emotional intelligence is associated with general feelings of self-adequacy. People with high self-regard feel fulfilled and satisfied with
themselves and at the same time exactly know about their weaknesses and shortcomings which they know can be overcome by efforts, and are, as a result, always able to maintain their sense of subjective well-being. In contrast, people who lack self-regard have feelings of personal inadequacy and inferiority leading them to be dissatisfied with their lives which deprives them from developing a sense of subjective well-being. Thus, it seems that high self-regard makes a person deal with his environment with appropriate self-confidence along with genuine consideration of his own limitations enabling him to adapt with his environment successfully and thus, feels happy most of the time. In contrast, a person with poor self-regard lacks such self-confidence and remains engrossed with his weaknesses and shortcomings so much that he is an avoiding and escaping person while dealing with various adverse situations. He gives in before facing them and labels himself a failure, a state which leads him to remain maladjusted and absolutely unhappy with a feeling of disconnectedness. Rogers (1959) also asserts that self-regard contributes to full psychological adjustment. He further asserts that a person with high self-regard is a fully functioning person equipped with adjustment capabilities. Kasgani et al. (1987) also found that well adjusted youths had good self-regard. Lack of self-regard may lead to disrespectful behaviour towards others which further complicates the adjustment problems of a person with low self-regard. Such a person finds true difficulties in seeking happiness from his environment which he finds non-rewarding due to his poor self-regard. Hence, it seems logical to reason that self-regard plays a vital role in adjustment and happiness of a person.

Self-actualization is the component of emotional intelligence which is manifested by becoming involved in pursuits leading to a meaningful, rich and full life. It is an ongoing, dynamic process of striving towards the
maximum development of one's abilities and talents, of persistently trying to do one's best and to improve oneself in general. Excitement about one's interests energizes and motivates a person to continue these interests. Thus, self-actualization is correlated with feelings of self-satisfaction in the course of life during which developmental changes are going on. According to Hurlock (1953) the goal of developmental changes is to enable people to adapt to the environment in which they live and self-actualization is essential to achieve this goal. True happiness is felt by a person when he adjusts properly with these developmental changes and when he self-actualizes. According to Maslow (1943) also self-actualization involves being satisfied with one's overall achievements; at work, at play and in relationships. According to Maslow, self-actualized people have a healthy balance between the many activities that make up their lives leading to a better adjustment state. Such people live life to the fullest. They do what they truly love to do and, therefore, perform well and as a consequence their work becomes a pleasure which leads to a sense of subjective well-being, contentment and happiness.

It is clear that a self-actualized person, due to his involvement in a meaningful rich and full life finds an easy way to adapt with life's varying situations. Due to his acknowledgement about his own potential capacities, a self-actualized person is easily adept emotionally, is able to control his impulses and be effortful persistently in achieving his goals. His emotional adeptness also helps him to act out in desirable manners bringing equilibrium between his needs and desires and goal satisfaction. Consequently, he finds himself in a better state of adjustment and is more happier than a person who is unable to self-actualize.

Coleman (1964) also described a maladjusted person as a person
who exhibits persistent non-integrative behaviour and hence unable to act­
alize himself.

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) proposed a concept of 'flow' defining it as 'in
the flow' and described it as one's experience of optimal fulfillment and
engagement. According to Csikszentmihalyi (1990) 'flow' is a deep and unique
human motivation to excel, exceed and triumph over limitations. To him,
happiness is not simply an emotional state, nor even the experience of
pleasure. The true happiness, he points to, involves the continual change to
go beyond oneself as a part of something greater. People are most happy
when they are in a state of ‘flow’- a zen like state of total oneness with the
activity at hand and the situation. The ‘flow’ state is an optimal state of
intrinsic motivation or a state of self-actualization, where the person is fully
immersed in what he or she is doing. It is clear that a person who is in the
‘flow’ and driven by intrinsic motivation is self-actualized and happy.

Empathy is the ability to see the world from another person’s perspec-
tive and hence is a powerful interpersonal tool and helps to establish effective
collaboration and strengthen bonds between people. It is the ability to be
aware of, to understand and to appreciate the feelings and thoughts of
others. Empathetic people care about others and show interest in and
concern for them. Because of these qualities, an empathetic person is
recognized as a true human among the people surrounding him. His ability to
access other’s feelings permits him to adjust with people in various spheres
of life. His adjustment in the family, at school, at work, even with his internal
matters is reasonably better than a person who is not empathetic. The non-
empathetic people remain selfish and unaware of other’s state of affairs,
depriving them from vital cues to understand and adjust with people, to show

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their concern for them presenting more difficulties so far as adjustment is concerned. Their dissatisfactory state and poor relations with other people, deprive them from seeking happiness, too, during their social interactions.

Social responsibility is the ability to demonstrate that the individual is a constructive, cooperative and contributory member of the society. It means acting in a responsible manner towards social norms, doing things for and with others even though one may not benefit personally, in accepting others and having a basic concern for them. Socially responsible people are sensitive to the needs of others also and they are capable of taking on community oriented responsibilities. They use their talents for collective good. It is clear that a person with higher sense of social responsibility is able to develop such an environment around himself which can promote his adjustment and happiness. Being socially responsible, he is easily able to achieve his goals in his life, is able to gain affection of others and is also able to satisfy his need for acceptance to the fullest leading to a better state of his adjustment and happiness in comparison to that person who is not socially responsible and whose socially irresponsible behaviour blocks his ways to the important goals of achievement, affection and acceptance. His lack of basic concern for others and insensitiveness towards other’s needs deprive him from taking community oriented responsibilities and use his talents for collective good and as a consequence he is not able to establish good interpersonal relationships with others and remains maladjusted and unhappy. Lawton (1951) defined well adjusted persons as those who willingly accept the responsibilities pertaining to their roles in life.

Interpersonal relationship is a key component of emotional intelligence and can be regarded to exert its influence on adjustment ability of a person.
and his ability to seek happiness. It is the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships which are characterized by intimacy and giving and receiving from the heart. This sensitivity towards other people is an important part of any interpersonal relationship. Satisfaction of the basic human needs i.e., the need for intimacy, to feel close with other people and to feel included, to feel understood and to feel wanted by others leads to the state of happiness within a person. This can only be possible when one has necessary social skills to initiate a social relationship, be dynamic in continuing it and be able to resolve conflicts and adjusted in a constructive manner. It seems clear that a person with good interpersonal relationships will be at a better foundation of social skills to adjust in various social settings and to seek happiness in his interactions in comparison to a person who has poor interpersonal relationships.

Adler (1938) equates adjustment with an ability to develop social relations which are beneficial to others and not merely designed for the purpose of self-aggrandizement. Diener and Seligman (2002) also confirm that very happy university students are distinguished not by their money but by their rich and satisfying close interpersonal relations. Coleman (1969) defines adjustment as the outcome of one's efforts to maintain harmonious relationship with the environment.

Diener et al. (1999) defined subjective well-being as comprising both cognitive (judgemental) and affective (emotional) components. The cognitive component consists of a person's judgement of his satisfaction with life in general, as well as judgements about specific areas of his life. The affective component, on the other hand involves both a person's pleasant and unpleasant moods or emotions. Thus, a person who judges himself to be
very satisfied with life overall and who experiences frequent pleasant or positive emotional states while experiencing infrequent unpleasant or negative emotional states can be said to harbour high subjective well-being. In contrast, the person who is generally dissatisfied with one's life and who experiences relatively few pleasant emotional states while experiencing many negative emotional states, may be said to have low subjective well-being. It is clear that a person who finds his interpersonal relationships as dissatisfying and unpleasant is generally maladjusted and unhappy. Nair et al. (2001) found that good interpersonal relationship and greater social support were associated with better adjustment. Kashani et al. (1987), too, found that well adjusted youths had good interpersonal relationships i.e., had caring parents and satisfactory social support systems.

Coleman (1964) describes a maladjusted person as with ego-centricity and disturbed interpersonal relationship. Asarnow and Callan (1985) observed that subjects with poor interpersonal relationships showed less adaptive planning and evaluated physical aggressive responses more positively and positive responses more negatively than subjects with positive interpersonal relationships. The findings of Leadbeater et al. (1989) also support the findings of Asarnow & Callan (1985).

Problem-solving is an important dimension included in the adaptability realm of emotional intelligence by Bar-On (1997). He asserts that problem-solving is an ability to identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement effective solutions. It is associated with being conscientious, disciplined, methodical and systematic in approaching problems and adversities in one's life. This skill is linked with a desire to do one's best and to confront adverse situations and problems rather than to avoid them. People who are
better problem-solvers identify obstacles that might prevent them from attaining their goals in family, school, social or workplace setting and also apply logical and rational solutions to overcome them to be adjusted in such situations and seek happiness out of it. Lawton (1951) also defined well adjusted people as those who attack problems that require solutions for adjusting with problem situations and enjoy attacking and eliminating problem situations to seek happiness. Mowrer (1959) asserts that adjustment occurs by the process of problem solving which results in learning of effective methods for dealing with dangers, anxieties and conflicts of everyday life. Nezu et al. (1985) studied the differences between effective and ineffective problem-solvers in regard to psychological distress or unhappiness. The results indicated that the subjects who reported low depression, low anxiety and more internal control orientation i.e., having low psychological distress or unhappiness were self-appraised effective problem-solvers and the subjects with high psychological distress or unhappiness were self-perceived ineffective problem-solvers.

Reality testing is the capacity of ‘tuning in’ to the immediate situation and viewing it in an objective manner. It also involves a search for objective evidence to confirm, justify, and support feelings, perceptions and thought. Reality testing lets a person ‘tune in’ to a situation while keeping a broader and correct perspective without excessive fantasizing or day dreaming. It enables him to focus and concentrate on ways of coping with what he discovers and to keep his emotions in control, uncoloured by illusions.

Adler (1938) equates adjustment with an ability to evaluate oneself realistically. Lawton (1951) also describes well adjusted people as those who get major satisfactions from real than imaginary accomplishments, who do
not magnify successes and apply them to unrelated areas, who know have to work when working, to play when playing, and who can compromise in a true sense when they encounter difficulties.

Jahoda (1958) also asserts that an adjusted person is one who is capable of viewing situations objectively without distortion arising from his own personal needs. According to him the adjusted personality engages in continuous testing of reality, objectively determining the extent to which situations depart from or correspond to his needs and accepting the conclusions. It is clear that an unblinkered reading of the environment leads to a better state of adjustment and happiness through success in various spheres of life because it brings with it the capacities for identifying and addressing problems and recognizing and building on opportunities. Hence, reality testing dimension of emotional intelligence is vital to adapting to life’s various situations as it is that capacity of a human which permits him to evaluate life situations objectively in a true sense without being obstructed by illusory thoughts and feelings. Contrary to this, a person with poor reality testing is unable to evaluate the life situations closely and clearly, as they really are, hence, he fails to adjust and this also deprives him from seeking happiness objectively.

Flexibility is another dimension of emotional intelligence which seems to play its role in adjustment and happiness. It is the ability to adjust one’s emotions, thoughts and behaviour to changing situations and conditions. It applies to one’s overall ability to adapt to unfamiliar, unpredictable and dynamic circumstances. Flexible people are capable of reacting to change without rigidity and are able to change their minds when evidence suggests that they are at fault. They are open to and tolerant of different ideas, orientations, ways and practices. It is easy for them to handle multiple demands,
shifting priorities and rapid changes. Their capacity to shift thoughts and behaviour are in tandem with environmental changes happening around them and which require acute adaptation. All these qualities of a flexible person, make him easily adjustable which consequently leads such person's to a happier state. Because of their flexible attitude, and freedom from rigidity, such persons have the readiness to react towards environmental situations as per their demands, in a non-whimsical manner leading them to be better adjusted and happier persons. Lawton (1951) describes a well adjusted person as one who can compromise when he encounters difficulties. Horney (1959) also asserts that adjustment develops from a flexible style of interacting with others.

Contrary to this, an individual who lacks this capacity tends to be rigid and obstinate. He adapts poorly to new situations and has little capacity to take advantages of new opportunities. People who are non-flexible continue to practice old behaviours in new settings where they may prove ineffective and inefficient. Such people are resistant to new ideas and are unable to adjust to changes and are not able to use new and different ways that are required. Consequently, he is unable to adjust with the environmental demands when obstructed, due to his non-adapting and rigid approach. Coleman (1964) also describes a maladjusted person as a person who lacks insight and rigidity. Bouchard (2003) also observed that flexible couples showed better adjustment in context of their marital relationship in contrast to those couples who were rigid.

Stress tolerance is an ability considered by Bar-On (1997) under the realm of stress management and which seems to play a very important role in adjustment and happiness. Stress tolerance is the ability of active and posi-
tive coping, to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without falling apart. It involves the capacity to choose various courses of action for dealing with stress and being optimistic towards change and new experiences without being anxious or dreadful. A stress tolerant person is confident about one's abilities to overcome problems in life. He remains calm, cool and composed in challenging stressful conditions by exercising control over them. Lawton (1951) describes well adjusted people who make decisions with a minimum of worry and conflict and are able to learn from defeats instead of finding excuses for them and accept the fact that life is an endless struggle.

Coleman (1969) defines adjustment as an outcome of the individual's attempt to deal with stress and meet his needs. In contrast, people who are intolerant to stress have an ill effect on their general performance because it leads to poor concentration, difficulty in decision making and can give rise to psychosomatic problems. Moreover, without the capacity of stress tolerance, the qualities of reality testing, impulse control and flexibility are all eroded leading to poor adjustment and unhappy state. Coleman (1964) also characterizes a maladjusted person as an inadequate person with low stress tolerance. Such person shows psychological and somatic symptoms, tension, and irritability in his behaviour.

Nezu and Ronan (1985) found that poor stress management capacity is associated with depression and failure to adapt to life's situations efficiently. Nezu et al. (1985) observed that subjects having high stress tolerance were able to adapt effectively and remain happier in comparison to those who had poor stress tolerance. In a study by Schotte and Clum (1987), it was observed that suicidal group subjects who were having poor stress tolerance were unable to adapt effectively to life situations and they also anticipated...
negative consequences for their non-adaptive reactions. Schotte et al. (1990) also found that individuals under chronic stress i.e., who are stress intolerant are predisposed to an unhappy state full of depression, hopelessness and suicide ideation, and are having deficits in expressing adaptability in interpersonal relationships. In a study by D'Zurilla et al. (1991), the results indicated a negative relation between stress and adaptive behaviour. Marx et al. (1992) also found that stress intolerant and depressed subjects exhibited less adaptive behaviour in comparison to clinically controlled and normal subjects. Sadowski & Kelley (1993) and Thompson & Heller (1993), too, found that stress intolerant people showed poor social adaptability and suicidal tendencies which is indicative of the unhappiness within the subject. Christian et al. (1994) and Davilla et al. (1995), too, found that high level of stress was associated with poor interpersonal problem adaptation and discontented marital relationships. It is clear that stress tolerance is that positive competency of a person which prevents him from negative psychological and physical consequences as a result of his effective adaptability skills leading him to be a better adjusted and happier person. Contrary to this, a stress intolerant person finds himself engrossed in maladaptive behaviours and in an unhappy state. They behave in an irrelevant manner and also involve themselves in negative behaviours such as depression and suicide. They are unable to adjust and obtain happiness even from close interpersonal relations.

Impulse control is another vital dimension considered under the realm of Stress Management by Bar-On (1997) which can be reasoned to have high correlation with adjustment and happiness of a person. Impulse control involves the ability to resist an impulse or drive or temptation to act. It entails a capacity for accepting one's aggressive impulses, to remain composed and
controlled, to avoid aggressiveness, hostility and irresponsible behaviour. People with effective impulse control look before they leap, consider before they act and are able to resist and delay the urge to react in a knee jerk fashion. Such people plan well before they move forward, weigh pros and cons of a situation and remain calm and composed even under difficult circumstances. This leads to a wise, responsible and well adapted behaviour as when a proper planning lies behind the action, it has greater chances of being successful, a better adaptive state. People who exercise healthy impulse control, retaining their flexibility and spontaneity remain relaxed and composed under stressful situations and are ahead of others who have poor impulse control.

Lawton (1951) characterizes a well adjusted person as one who can endure pain and emotional frustration when necessary. Symonds (1946) and Shaeffer (1956), while describing about facets of good adjustment, stress on maintaining consistencies without a knee jerky impulse behaviour to be well adjusted. It is clear that people who do not have sufficient impulsive control are rash, hot headed, impatient, have a low frustration tolerance and unpredictable ways, the conditions which pave way to maladjustment and to unhappiness. In contrast, people with an effective impulse control are more adaptive and happy because they consider different aspects before reacting, they weigh pros and cons, do not get perturbed and they remain calm under trying circumstances. They are better at maintaining relationships, and can also listen thoughtfully to others who are upset, the qualities which prove such persons to be adaptive and able to see happiness even in difficult and adverse situations of their lives by delaying gratification and remaining tranquil till they are able to achieve their goals.
Happiness is another dimension of emotional intelligence considered by Bar-On (1977) under the General Mood Realm and indicative of a person's overall degree of emotional intelligence and, hence, has been considered a vital factor in adjustment and happiness of people. Happiness is an attitude, an ability to feel satisfied with life, to enjoy oneself and others and to have fun. It combines self-satisfaction, general contentment and the ability to enjoy life. It is the capacity which influences and is influenced by other emotional intelligence competencies like reality testing, self-regard and self-actualization. If the capacity for reality testing is compromised then a person tends to evaluate the environment negatively, and, therefore, feels unhappy. On the other hand, a strong sense of self-regard and self-actualization positively influences a person's capacity to strive for happiness. Happy people are able to take pleasure in what they have done and can do rather than being driven to think that they should do more. They do not set unrealistically high goals which enables them to enjoy happiness. They are self-aware and if they become unhappy then they are able to know their change of mood, understand what caused it and then are able to engage in better adaptive behaviour which can ultimately bring them happiness. Happy people often feel good and at ease in both work and leisure, they are self-satisfied, contended and enjoy life to the fullest extent. They have a realistic perception of themselves and they set their goals which give their lives a meaning and keep them physically and mentally alert. It is this contended and realistic attitude of a happy person which lead him to deal with problems in his life in an effective and adaptive manner. Contrary to this, an unhappy person is unable to cope with his life's situations in an adjustive manner due to his discontented attitude and lack of drive. A person who demonstrates a low degree of this component may possess symptoms of unhappiness i.e., depression, tendency to worry,
uncertainty about the future, social withdrawal, feelings of guilt, dissatisfaction with life and in extreme cases suicidal thoughts and behaviour. Lawton (1951) describes well adjusted people as those who participate with pleasure in experiences belonging to each successive age level and who enjoy attacking and eliminating obstacles to happiness. Gregory & Isen (1997) have proposed that positive affect systematically influences adaptive function of a person related to higher cognitive abilities also. It is related to increased dopamine levels in the brain which improves cognitive flexibility and problem solving adaptation. While performing an adaptive act, the person chooses from amongst the possible alternative solutions. Each alternative elicits a feeling that can be placed somewhere on a hedonic continuum. Jonier et al. (2001) found that patients prone to positive moods displayed more and better problem-solving adaptive attitudes and performance following treatment for suicidal symptoms. Grawtich et al. (2003) had also found that positive mood i.e., state of happiness increased creative adaptive performance and adaptive task implementation efficiency.

Coleman (1964) characterizes a maladjusted person as full of dissatisfaction and unhappiness. An unhappy person can be reasoned to bear more and continued stress than a happy person. This continued stressful situation may predispose an unhappy person to be non-adaptive, depressive and dominated by suicidal tendencies. Nezu et al. (1985) and Sadowski & Kelly (1993) also found that a negative mood state i.e., a state of unhappiness could lead to poor problem-solving adaptive behaviour.

Optimism is the last dimension considered by Bar-On under the General Mood Realm of emotional intelligence. Optimism is the ability to look at the brighter side of life and maintain a positive attitude even in the face of
adversity. It is a positive approach to daily living and opposite to pessimism which is a common symptom of depression. It is the ability to stop thinking or saying destructive things about oneself and the world around oneself. Seligman (1991) differentiated pessimists from optimists by asserting that optimists view bad times as temporary and believe that they are not losers for ever. They see troubles and difficulties as delayed success and not as outright defeat and firmly believe that there will come a positive change. The optimists view misfortune as situational and specific and not as a manifestation of inescapable doom, and lastly optimists do not immediately shoulder all the blame if something goes wrong, rather they take external causes into consideration.

Lawton (1951) while characterizing well adjusted people asserts that such persons can use thinking as a blue print for action and not as a device for delaying or escaping action, and who can concentrate their energies on a goal that is important to them, accepting the fact that life is an endless struggle and there is always a delicious fruit to taste after climbing the tree. Isen et al. (1987) also found that feeling optimistic about a positive outcome and being in happy mood state improved creative problem-solving adaptive behaviour. Overskeid (2000), Jonier et al. (2001) and Grawtich et al. (2003) also supported the findings that optimism increased adaptive behaviour of the subjects in various life situations. The role of optimism in adjustment and happiness can also be viewed from a different angle. A pessimistic person often faces failures and remains in stress, predisposing him to be unhappy and depressive and dominated by suicidal tendencies and in turn remains maladjusted.

and Heller (1993), Christian et al. (1994) and Davilla (1995) also observed that low optimism led to an unhappy internal state and consequently had a negative impact on the adaptive behaviour of a pessimist person.

The rising level of maladaptive behaviour and unhappy states of people in modern times involving depression, stress and suicidal tendencies is of major concern in the society. These tendencies are seen in individuals who are having low emotional self-awareness, low assertiveness, are dependent, have poor self-regard, are not self-actualized, are not empathetic, have poor interpersonal relationships, avoid social responsibility, are poor problem-solvers, do not have a sense of reality testing, are not flexible, have low stress tolerance and poor impulse control, are unhappy and pessimistic, are discontented with their present state of life, and are unable to bring out adaptive behaviours in various life situations. They think negatively and are less hopeful about a positive outcome in any encounter and have no confidence in their abilities. Thus, they feel victimized, inadequate, bitter and resentful and feel as nothing in life is under their control. They find themselves unable to adjust with their surroundings and revert to unhappy state i.e., depression, anxiety, suicidal tendencies etc. Thus, low emotional intelligence leads to maladjustment and unhappiness.

Williams (2004) compared the outstanding and typical principals on the basis of their emotional intelligence adaptive competencies. He found that the outstanding principals displayed a higher degree of self-confidence, self-control, leadership, conflict management skills, initiativeness, analytical thinking, achievement motivation, conscientiousness in comparison to typical urban principals. The outstanding urban principals who had higher emotional intelligence displayed better adaptive competencies in comparison to typical
urban principals. A study by Ming (2003) also revealed that emotional intelligence had a positive relationship with adjustment of a person in conflict resolving situations. Similar results were observed by Jordan & Troth (2004).

In a nutshell, it can be concluded that emotional intelligence is positively associated with adjustment and happiness. A high emotionally intelligent person is definitely more happy and adjusted than a person low in emotional intelligence due to possession of various positive competencies pertaining to emotional intelligence.

Lastly, it is worth to quote here Hein (1996) who opines that the greatest value of emotional intelligence is its contribution to our understanding of happiness both at individual and at group levels. Infact, the very survival of a society depends upon the precarious balance between meeting the needs of the individual versus the group. When the needs of both are met everyone is happy and the society flourishes. The greater the happiness of greater number of people the more successful the society.

At this point it is worth to consider an important fact about emotional intelligence that it can be enhanced at any age in contrast to cognitive intelligence which has its own limitations in the regard. Wayne (1985), Boyatzis et al. (2002), Shearhouse (2003), Chan (2004), and Dulewicz & Higgs (2004) have observed that increased emotional intelligence through specific training for enhancing it, certainly brings about a raise in adjustive capacity and in happiness state of a person. That is, the subjects who have undergone emotional intelligence training have shown better adjustment and more happiness than those who have not been given such training. It, too, has been observed in the present research that the emotional intelligence training given with a view to enhance emotional intelligence of the subjects showed positive
effect in respect of adjustment and happiness. It is clear from the above discussion that emotionally high intelligent people are genuinely better adjusted and more happy than those with low emotional intelligence. It is of real and vital interest to observe the effect of increased emotional intelligence on adjustment and happiness of the subjects. As was expected, it is found that increased emotional intelligence also further improves adjustment of the subjects and makes them more happier. That is, the emotional intelligence training not only enhances the emotional intelligence of the subjects but in turn also improves their adjustment and happiness. Akerjordet & Severinsson (2004), Chan (2004) also assert that emotional learning and maturation are integral part of professional competence, i.e., personal growth and development, and training given to enhance emotional intelligence can be beneficial in overall development of an individual, and as such leading them to be at a better state of adjustment and happiness in various spheres of their lives.

JOINT EFFECT OF SEX AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TRAINING ON ADJUSTMENT AND HAPPINESS

The last two problems of the present investigation pertained to interaction effect of sex and emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness of the subjects. In other words, the specific problem was whether males and females profit differentially from emotional intelligence training in regard to their adjustment and happiness. It was hypothesized that there would exist genuine interaction effect of sex and emotional intelligence training on adjustment and happiness of the subjects. More specifically, it was assumed that females would profit more from emotional intelligence training than males in respect of their adjustment and happiness. Alternately, it was expected that
females in experimental (training) group would be the most adjusted and happy while males in control (non-training) group would be the least adjusted and happy. The two other subgroups i.e., males in experimental group and females in control group would possess the intermediary position in the same regard.

A two-way analysis of variance was computed to study individual and interaction effects of two factors – sex and emotional intelligence training – on adjustment of the subjects. The interaction between sex and emotional intelligence training yielded an F-ratio of 0.10 (Table 19) which is not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 1 and 96 degrees of freedom and provides sound statistical ground to reject the research hypothesis retaining the null hypothesis of no difference in the regard. It is clear from Table 17 that average 'difference adjustment scores' of males in control and experimental condition are 0.04 and 3.52, respectively. Similarly, average 'difference adjustment scores' of females in control and in experimental conditions are 0 and 3.36 (Figure 53), respectively. The insignificant interaction F-ratio indicates that males and females do not profit differentially from emotional intelligence training. More specifically, the four-subgroups formed on the basis of sex (male & female) and emotional intelligence training (non-training and training) i.e., male-control, male-experimental, female-control and female-experimental, do not differ genuinely in regard to their adjustment. Hence, it can be concluded that though emotional intelligence training has been proved to be of vital importance in relation to adjustment of the subjects in the present research, it does exert its effect independent of sex of the subjects i.e., the genuine effect of emotional intelligence training is same for males and females and both the sexes profit equally from such training.
Similarly, a perusal of Table 24 reveals that average ‘difference happiness scores’ of the four subgroups i.e., male-control, male-experimental, female-control and female-experimental, are 0.12, 4.24, 0.08, 4.20, respectively. An interaction F-ratio ($F=0$, Table 26) was computed in a two-way ANOVA which is not significant at any acceptable level of confidence for 1 and 96 degrees of freedom. The insignificant statistics provide empirical ground to reject the research hypothesis and to accept the null hypothesis of no difference in regard to the joint effect of sex and emotional intelligence training on happiness of the subjects. It can be said that the difference between control (non-training) and experimental (training) groups in respect of ‘difference happiness scores’ does not vary genuinely due to sex of the subjects. Alternatively, it can be concluded that males and females do not profit differentially from emotional intelligence training the respect of their happiness. It can also be said that the four subgroups – male-control, male-ex-
perimental, female-control, and female-experimental — do not differ truly in respect of their happiness. Thus, it can be concluded that though emotional intelligence training has considerable positive effect on happiness of the subjects, this effect is independent of the sex of the subjects i.e., is similar for both the sex groups.

![Figure 54: Average ‘Difference Happiness Scores’ Of The Four Subgroups Based On Sex And Training Condition](image)

In nut shell, it can be said that though it has been found in the present work that emotional intelligence training is very effective in improving adjustment and happiness of the subjects, its effect is almost similar for both the sex groups i.e., for males and females. That is, males and females do not differ considerably in gaining from emotional intelligence training in respect of their adjustment and happiness.