CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of relevant literature on the topic constitutes an essential aspect of scientific work. Scientific literature helps the researcher in developing insight in the subject being studied. It also helps in clarifying the concepts under study and makes the investigator alert in existing relative status of the literature of the research topic or subject. Review of literature is certainly useful in designing the study and also in finalizing the methodology for collecting reliable data. It provides a good outline for carrying out the study and fulfills the gap in the study.

Emotional intelligence is a dynamic construct influenced by diverse biological, psychological and social factors. During the last 2 to 3 decades Emotional Intelligence has attracted the attention of social, educational, psychological, and other behavioral scientists. Ample studies were conducted on emotional intelligence and they were found that emotional intelligence significantly contributes in a various life domains such as personal success, academic achievement and professional accomplishment. Various researches conducted on emotional intelligence regarding with various correlates have been establish in a variety of field. Empirical studies are exploring the connection of emotional intelligence with several psychological and psychosocial factors. They were revealing the significance of emotional intelligence and its advantages. Emotional intelligence contributes significantly in the various fields such as personality development, educational field, stress management in organizational system, interpersonal relationships, work psychology, performance improvement, health psychology, individual life, and variety of behavior patterns. Here, it is impossible to refer all such researches which are relevant to the present study. However, review of some representative old and recent literature on emotional Intelligence regarding area
of living, family environment, Gender, and SES in India and abroad are presented here:

2.1 Emotional Intelligence and its Major Correlates

Studies on emotional intelligence with regard to certain demographic and psycho-social variables such as area of living, gender, SES and family environment has been reported widely, numerous studies were intended to find out the influence of these variables on emotional intelligence of individuals. However, these studies don’t reach to similar conclusions but, have reported the significance of these variables in emotional intelligence. Following are some of the reviews in this context:

2.2 Emotional Intelligence and Area of Living

Gupta (1977) conducted a study to assess the influence of area of living on emotional maturity. He compared the emotional maturity of students living in India (domestic students) and abroad (International students). Author found that Indian students are emotionally more mature than that of abroad.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) reported that individuals from different subcultures approach different emotions.

Sibia, Srivastav and Misra (2003) reported that emotional intelligence differs across culture.

Konwar and Ram (2004) investigated the influence of cultural context of anger. A sample from colleges and University from Kohima, in Nagaland and from the Pune, in Maharashtra, participated in the study. The results showed significant differences in State-anger (experience) and Anger expression between the Pune and Kohima groups. The participants from Pune showed greater anger than that of the Kohima group. But, On Trait-anger does not found any cultural differences. This indicates that, anger as a Stable Emotional disposition is not affected so much by cultural context as the
experience (State) and expression of the emotion, which may be influenced by the cultural display rules.

**Berrocal et al. (2005)** examined the mediating role of cultural factors in relation between emotional intelligence and depression. The cultural factors used in the study were individualism-collectivism and masculinity-feminity. Participants from three different cultures (United States, Chile and Spain) completed ‘Trait Meta-Mood Scale’ (TMMS) with three factors: attention, clarity and repair and ‘Beck depression Inventory’ (BDI) was used to measure depression of subjects. Study revealed that, attention and clarity were stronger predictors of depression in feminine culture than in masculine cultures. The results also indicate that, the effect of Emotional Intelligence on depression in moderate to some degree by culture.

**Babu and Rath (2007)** study conducted on a large sample of children distribute across gender and ecological setting. Researcher investigated recognition and attribution of desire based (happy, sad, fear) and belief based (surprise, curiosity) emotions among children from urban, rural and tribal ecological setting. Results revealed significant developmental and ecological differences in Recognition and attribution of desire based and belief based emotions. However no significant differences between boys and girls were noted.

**Bhanderkar (2007)** conducted a study on 900 Junior college students of Nagpur district of Maharashtra. The aim of the investigation was to study the differences in Emotional Intelligence among students living in rural and urban area. Significant differences were found in Emotional Intelligence among the students. Rural students were found emotionally more intelligent than urban students.

**Duhan and Chhikara (2007)** conducted a study to delve the human ecological factors affecting emotional intelligence skills. Study reported a significant relationship between the developmental facilities provided in
community, surrounding and emotional intelligence skills of subjects. The results also revealed that high emotional intelligence respondents were having more developmental facilities (i.e. hospital, bank, park, market etc.) in their surroundings, whereas low emotional intelligence respondents were having less number of development facilities for emotional intelligence.

Anolli and et al. (2008) conducted an exploratory comparative study of the vocal expression of emotions in Participants staying at Chinese versus Italian Cultures. Results reveal that different emotions may be expressed via variations in the modulations of vocal cues in both cultures; additionally, difference in the specific patterns of vocal cues in expressing emotions are identified between Chinese and Italian participants.

Cleik and Deniz (2008) were conducted study to investigate whether or not there were differences between the emotional levels of Turkish scouts and scouts from other countries. Results demonstrated that, Turkish scouts emotional intelligence level were significantly higher than the scouts from other countries.

Jazaeri and Kirankumar (2008) examined the role of emotional intelligence in predicting cultural adjustment among students in India. Students from four regions i.e. Middle East, African, East Asian, Western and European countries participated in the study. They were pursuing their studies in various courses at five Universities located in Mysore, Bangalore, Pune, Hydrabad and Delhi. Stepwise regression analysis revealed that positive impression, general mood, adaptability and interpersonal components of emotional intelligence were significant predictors of cultural adjustment.

Mandal (2008) shows that emotional expressions communicated through vocal tone can show a cultural in-group advantage. 50 participants of India and 63 participants from USA judged vocal expressions of emotions from both group. Recognition accuracy was greater for in-group than out-group
expressions. Results suggest that there can be cultural differences in the cues used to emotions through the voice.

Nezlek et al. (2008a) examined the relationship between self-construal and emotion experiences in social interactions in two countries. Participants in Greece (a more collectivist culture) and United Kingdom (a more individualistic culture) described the social interactions. Authors expose that for Ss in UK independent self-construal was positively associated with positive affect. While for Greek Ss, independent self-construal was negatively associated with positive affect. Additionally the results also demonstrate the interaction of cultural values and individual differences in self-construal and their relationship to people’s emotional experiences.

Nezlek et al. (2008b) in their study authors reported that, for positive social events, the Japanese were more reactive in terms of positive affect than North Americans. For negative social events, the Japanese were more reactive in terms of depressed mood and de-active positive affect than North Americans. In contrast, the Japanese were less reactive to negative achievement events than North Americans in terms of anxious mood. The Japanese were more reactive than North Americans to positive achievement events. The results highlight the greater sensitivity of the Japanese to social concerns compared to North Americans, and the greater affective sensitivity of North Americans to failure in achievement domains.

Vijayalakshmi et al. (2008) studied the emotional intelligence and social reticence of post-graduate female students. Results revealed that, there is no significant difference in emotional intelligence and social reticence with respect to birth order and type of residence.

Vandello et al. (2008) explores the causes of male norms for honor-related aggression carry on in the US South. Authors propose the cultural differences in internalized honor-related values. They specifically argued that south Ss in US are more likely than that of north Ss to recognize peer support
of norms related to aggression. Authors suggest that southern males were especially likely to overestimate the aggressiveness of their peers. They believe that, southerners would be more likely to actively encourage aggressive behavior in others, but results do not support this hypothesis. Results also found that, southern men were more likely than northern men to perceive others as encouraging aggression when witnessing interpersonal conflicts. Together, they suggest that southern males are more likely than their northern counterparts to assume their peers endorse and enforce norms of aggression that can lead to the perpetuation of norms for honorable violence above and beyond any differences in internalized values.

Wong et al. (2008) examined the influence of cultural value orientations on self-reported emotional expression across 25 cultural groups. Verbal and non-verbal self-reported emotional expressions were examined in the study. No clear pattern of moderation by cultural value orientations on the relationship among the emotion variables and emotional expressions was found. However, significant relationships were found between cultural value orientations and hierarchy, autonomy, and mastery, and cultural level means of emotional expression.

Carr (2009) has found in her study that Asian students demonstrated higher emotional intelligence total and branch scores than white students. The highest and lowest emotional intelligence scores were obtained for the branches understanding emotions and perceiving emotions respectively.

Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have studied the locale effect (mentioned as community) on the emotional intelligence of 300 B. Ed. teacher trainees and inconsistently found that there is not any significant effect of community on the emotional intelligence.

Ranjha and Shujja (2010) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and adjustment in nurses serving in emergency and non-emergency wards of private and government hospitals. Bar-On EQ-I(1997) and
Psychological Adjustment Scale (Sabir, 1999) were used to assess emotional intelligence and psychological adjustment respectively among adolescents. A demographic form was used to collect the data on other variables, specially, type of hospitals. Simple regression analysis indicated that type of hospitals (Private, government) emerged as significant predictor of emotional intelligence.

Waddar and Aminbhavi (2010) studied the differences in self-efficacy and emotional intelligence with respect to post graduate students staying in home and students who are staying at hostel. 200 PG students studying in PG course were selected as a sample who are staying in home and hostel. Both groups are selected from different departments of Karnataka University, Dharwad. Results revealed that post graduate students staying at home have significantly more self-efficacy and overall emotional Intelligence compared to hostel students.

Bala (2011) studied some psycho-social predictors (home environment, sex locale etc.) of emotional intelligence. Higher secondary students from rural and urban areas of Durg district of Chhattisgarh state (India) were randomly selected in the study. 2x2x2 factorial design was applied on emotional intelligence. ‘Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory’ (MEII-2007) was administered to measure emotional intelligence of the students. Results revealed that locale was found an insignificant in predicting emotional intelligence.

Mimrot (2011) studied the role of area of residence on the development of emotional intelligence and self concept of adolescents. The emotional intelligence of the subjects was measured by Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) of Anukool Hyde, Sanjyot Pethe and Upinder Dhar. Authors found significant differences between mean score of adolescents in urban and rural area on Emotional Intelligence. They conclude that, adolescents in urban area develop significantly better Emotional Intelligence than that of rural Adolescents.
Pawar (2011) studied the effect of locality and gender on emotional adjustment level of adolescents. 400 effective participants were selected from various junior and senior colleges of Aurangabad district as a sample. Factorial design was used to conduct the study. Study found that, emotional adjustment had significantly better among adolescents living in urban area than adolescents living in rural area.

Abdel-Khalek and et al. (2012) conducted a study to assess self-esteem among college students from four Arab countries. They compared undergraduate students from four Arab countries on self-esteem. Four samples of 2643 students were recruited from Egypt (n=576), Kuwait (n=674), Lebanon (n=826), and Oman (n=567). They responded to the Arabic Version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES). Results exposed that, men staying in Kuwait and Oman men had a significantly superior on self-esteem than that of men staying in Egypt and Lebanon. Women in Egypt significantly found inferior than that of women in however, the difference was very small.

Mimrot (2012) analyzed the impact of residential area on emotional intelligence. The study was limited to the female students located in Mumbai. Emotional intelligence of the students was measured by ‘Emotional Intelligence Scale’ (EIS) of Hyde, Dhar, and Pethe. Author reveals the insignificant difference between hostel female students and students living in the residence with respect to their emotional intelligence. Study also reports that, there are no significant differences between mean scores of hostel female students and students living in the residence with their parents on emotional intelligence scale. It means both the area of residence is giving equal opportunities to the students to develop their emotional intelligence.

Najib and et al. (2012) conducted a study to determine the emotional intelligence level of Malaysian university students from different demographic aspects. A total of 3101 final year students from 10 public universities were randomly chosen as a sample. The Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EQ-i:S) was used to measure the emotional intelligence of the students.
Results indicated that, there is a significant difference between students who came from the city with those students who came from small towns, rural area and small village. Urban students found better emotional competencies than other places. Authors justify that, various means of advance facilities such as computer, recreational activities, internet, learning facilities, information technology etc are used in city. However, such facilities are not used in other places due to its absence. Therefore, students from the city area may have better interpersonal relations through various activities.

Nasir and Iqbal (2012) intended to examine the relationship of selected demographic factors including gender, area of residence, household income and parent’s education with emotional intelligence. The participants of the study were 595 randomly selected students studying in three public universities located in Islamabad. Emotional intelligence was measured with the help of Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EQi). Result indicated that area of residence has no significant impact on emotional intelligence.

Ramaswami and Venkatesh (2012) was studied the adolescent problems among urban and rural adolescents in and around Mysore city. A total of 631 adolescents of different age group from 11 to 20 years were randomly selected. They were administered Problem Checklist developed by Joshi and Pandey, which measures the problems of adolescents. Results revealed that rural adolescents were found to have higher levels of problems related to Social Psychological Relations (SPR) and Personal Psychological Relations (PPR) than urban students.

Rao and Raju (2012) conducted a study to find out emotional and behavioral problems among early adolescents studying in high schools. The sample size included 343 in Shrikakulam District of Andhra Pradesh. Achenbach’s Youth Self Report (YSR) was used for the study. Results revealed that, private school was having emotional and behavioral problems, but emotional problems were evident in Government school adolescents.
Venu Gopal and Ashok (2012) conducted a study aims at investing the prevalence of emotional and behavioral problems in tribal and non-tribal school going adolescents. It consists of 452 students studding in various schools in Visakhapatnam district, Andhra Pradesh. The tribal sample was drawn from Araku valley, and non-tribal sample was drawn from the rural and urban areas of Visakhapatnam district. Youth Self Report Inventory (YSRI) constructed by Achenbach and Rescoria (2001) was used to assess the problems of adolescents. Results indicated significantly high prevalence of anxiety/depressed, somatic, withdrawn/depressed, thought problems and attention problems in the tribal adolescents than that of non-tribal adolescents.

Wang and et al. (2012) examined the emotional intelligence across international students in US universities. 375 Participants were considered as a sample. The average age of the students was 26.31 years. The students were placed into three groups: I) The Far East Asian group – Hang Kong, Taiwan, Japan, Korea and Mainland China (n=169), II) Students from 19 European countries (n=98), and III) Students from India (n=108). First group was treated as a reference group and remaining groups treated as a comparison group. Wong and Law's Emotional Intelligence scale (WLEIS) was used to measure emotional intelligence of the Ss. The results suggest that, students from different cultures shared similar patterns of emotional intelligence. Authors also revealed that 14 out of 16 items functioned similarly between Far East Asian Students and Indian students, while all the items functioned similarly between Far East Asian and European students.

Kar, Saha, and Mongal (2014) conducted a study to examine emotional intelligence of secondary school students in relation to their gender and residential background. A total of 235 subjects were randomly selected from the district of Purulia, WB, India. The results reveal that residential place plays a significant role for the improvement of emotional development. Urban residential background provides better opportunity for emotional development than rural background.
Makvana (2014) conducted a study to examine the association of emotional intelligence with types of area’s (rural and urban). On a sample of 240 cases selected from secondary and higher secondary schools student’s of Bharuch district of Gujarat state. Author reveals that type of area is a significant predictor of emotional intelligence; rural student are more emotional intelligence than urban school students.

Nara Archana (2014) conducted a study to examine the emotional intelligence of school students of Haryana with respect to locale. Sample of 800 secondary school students from four districts of Haryana were selected through random sampling method. Author found a significant difference in emotional intelligence of rural and urban school students and she again argued that urban residential background provides better opportunity for emotional development than rural background.

2.3 Emotional Intelligence and Family Environment

Kiran and Singh (1982) expressed that performance of children usually depends on their parents parenting styles. They again claimed that favorable parent-child relations enhance better social adjustment, development of emotional adjustment as well as self esteem among children.

Green and Goldbery (1989) reported that, ordinarily the child’s key models are his parents and their behavior can have beneficial or detrimental effect on the way the child learns to perceive, think, feel and act. Men’s and women’s degree of investment in parenting is more consequential for their socialization practices and view of their children than the degree of investment in work.

Steinberg (1990) proposed that, parents who provide emotional support, appropriate monitoring and discipline include inculcate and provide opportunity for development of higher self esteem and less depression and anxiety and children are less likely to engage in anti-social behavior such as delinquency and substance use.
Carlson et al. (1991) argued that the children’s negative perception of parental affect is associated with rejection of their parents whereas positive perception of parental affects is connected with greater acceptance by their parents.

Chaudhari and Bajaj (1995) conducted a study on emotional maturity. A sample of 80 adolescents staying at home (40) and outside the home (40) was selected. The results revealed that adolescents staying with parents at home had higher level of emotional maturity than those of staying in orphanages.

Chaudhari and Uppal (1996) conducted a study on the achievement motivation in relation to emotional maturity of adolescents staying at home and orphanage. The sample comprised of 80 subjects, age group of 13-16 years. Results revealed that adolescents staying at home with parents had more emotional maturity as compared to their counterparts staying in the orphanages.

Laurence et al. (1994) conducted a study on eventually changes in adjustment and competence among adolescents from various type of families such as kind families, strict families, ignore and dependable families. One year follow up was conducted in order to examine whether the observed differences were maintained over time in 1987, an ethnically and socio-economically heterogeneous sample of 2300 adolescents belonging to age range of 14-18 years old. The result exposed benefits of authoritative parenting (dependable) were largely in the maintenance of better adjustment, the harmful consequences of ignored parenting continued to accumulate.

Garg (1996) found the role of perceived parenting of over protection in the development of a few emotional competencies like adequate expression and control of emotion and encouragement of positive emotion. Girls perceived their father’s behavior as more protecting than boys.

Gottman (1997) observed 119 families and studied the nature interpersonal reactions among parents and children in emotionally stimulated situation. Author followed children’s from age four to adolescence.
Information collected from various sources such as parent’s interview, parents wedding information, parent’s reaction about their children. It also includes emotional experiences and children’s awareness about their emotion through role plays in their life. Author found that most parents fall into two broad categories: those who give guidance to their children about the world of emotion and those who don’t. Children who are emotion coached-experience fewer negative feelings and more positive feelings, in other words they are emotionally more healthy. When mothers and fathers use an ideal coaching style of parenting, their children’s become more resilient, they are more emotionally intelligent. Emotion coaching can even protect kids from the proven harmful effects. In contrast, an emotionally distant parents who is harsh, critical, or dismissing, unsupportable of his children’s emotions can have a deeply negative impact.

**Mithas (1997)** in his study claimed that, emotional competence was found to be greater in those early adolescents whose perceived mothering was associated with acceptance than that of rejection. Author also claimed that, emotional competence happens to be the resultant from roles of mothering and fathering indulgence in general and in laborer early adolescents of both the sex. Emotional competence was found to be greater in those early adolescents who perceive their mothering as imbued with utopian expectations than that of realism.

**Martinez-Pons (1999)** studied the role of parental practices of parents and its influence on their children’s emotional intelligence. Author argued that positive assessment of children about their parents as ideal, optimistic, helpful, and rewarded EI, associated with superior emotional intelligence.

**Cabrera et al. (2000)** reported that frequently fathers are involved in child rearing practices through different ways such as encourage to them, taking care, engaging in free time and play various activities, discipline, to provide moral guidance and emotional support. Such type of children develops emotionally more competence.
Manuel (2002) has carried out a study on the effects of parents on emotional intelligence among 109 young subjects. Upon the assessment carried out by path analysis technique it has been determined that parent’s models with methods like encouraging, giving reward and guiding have crucial effects on matters of emotional intelligence, social activities, and symptoms of depression.

Sim (2003) reviewed earlier studies on father-adolescent relationship, mother-adolescent relationship with respect to emotional bond. Authors conclude that physical and emotional distance is seen in father-child relation. However, mother-child relation is enriched by high level of attachment and intimacy. Author remarked that the distance that characterizes the father-adolescent relationship because in this study most father-adolescent links have been examined either independently or exclusively. He concluded that father characteristics moderate links between mother characteristics and adolescents attributes. The link between mother’s responsiveness and self worth became stronger as father responsiveness increased. These findings show the need to consider both parents characteristics together rather than independently.

Chakra and Prabha (2004) studied the influence of family environment on emotional competence among adolescents. 120 adolescents having 13 to 16 years age groups from higher secondary schools of Hyderabad and Secunderabad were selected as a sample. Authors demonstrated that the family environment had significant influence on emotional competence of adolescents. Authors additionally argued that, family environment is an interaction parents and adolescents and have significant relationship with emotional competence of adolescents.

Tiwari and Srivastav (2004) assessed perceived environmental quality of home and their impact on Emotional Intelligence development. A sample of 270 children from Hindi, English and mixed medium instructions of Gorakhpur city of Uttar Pradesh participated in the study. It was found that perceived
environmental quality of home as well as school was positively related to Emotional Intelligence scores.

Devī and Rayal (2004) conducted a study on relationship between adolescent’s perception about family environment and emotional Intelligence. 224 adolescents studying intermediate course constituted the sample. Authors demonstrated that cohesion, expressiveness, acceptance and caring and active recreational orientation were positively and significantly related to emotional intelligence. Additionally, they argued that expressiveness dimension was related to assertiveness dimension of intra personal component. Finally, authors conclude that cohesiveness, expressiveness and caring were significantly and positively related to empathy and interpersonal relationship dimensions.

Kafetsios (2004) examined the relationship between attachment orientation and emotional intelligence. 239 subjects completed the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT V2.0) and the relationship questionnaire. Author indicated that secure attachment was positively associated with all sub-scale (except perception of emotion) and total emotional intelligence score. Author additionally claimed that, dismissing attachment was positively associated with the ability to understand emotion.

Sibia, Misra and Srivastav (2004) conducted an empirical study to conceptualize the notion of emotional intelligence in the Indian social-cultural context. 1047 participants responded to open ended questions and described the emotional qualities desired by them in children and those required to be success in life. Authors demonstrated that the Indian view of emotional intelligence is context sensitive and attended on the role of family and society in shaping one’s emotions.

Deoliveira, Morgan and Pederson (2005) found that autonomous mothers demonstrated the most open and flexible mind set around a variety of emotions in themselves and their toddlers. The dismissing mothers exhibited tendency to minimize internalizing emotions in themselves and their children.
Gerl (2005) revealed that emotional development of children and adolescents is influenced by parental behavior, their thinking style, attitudes etc. Authors demonstrated that emotional intelligence is significantly related to self reported parental warmth. Perceived environmental quality of home is correlated to emotional intelligence scores as measured by Schutte’s EIS.

Kaur and Jaswal (2005) conducted study to examine the relationship between strategic emotional intelligence and family climate of Punjabi adolescents. The study was conducted on 200 female adolescents of 17-18 years old, studying in schools affiliated to CBSE of Ludhiana city, Punjab. Authors reported that various dimensions such as indulgence Vs avoidance, partiality Vs fairness, attention Vs negligence, acceptance Vs rejection, trust Vs distrust, expectation Vs hopelessness, open communication Vs controlled communication dimensions of family climate were positively and significantly associated with better emotional intelligence. Additionally, they expressed significant and negative correlation for trust Vs distrust dimension of family climate and emotional intelligence. And finally, partiality Vs fairness, warmth Vs cold relationship, trust Vs distrust and open communication Vs controlled communication dimensions of family climate were significantly and negatively associated with considerable level of emotional intelligence.

Rana and et al. (2005) examined the relationship between family environment and the development of aggressive tendencies. A total of 200 Ss used as a sample, ranging in age from 15 to 18 years. The results demonstrated that family environment affected aggressive behavior. Results also show that boys were superior to girls on the verbal, physical dimension and indirect aggression.

Devi (2005) conducted a study to assess the relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and selected social variables among parents and their children. The children having age ranges between fifteen to seventeen was selected for study. Authors reported that the parental education and occupation has significantly and positively associated with optimism,
impulse regulation, social responsibility and social regard which are the
dimensions of emotional intelligence. Results also demonstrate that the total
intra personal subscale is significantly and positively related to mother’s
education, occupation and income emphasizing the significance of mother in
enhancing the self development skills of adolescents. Interpersonal sub-scale is
the second component of emotional intelligence is involves social
responsibility, empathy and interpersonal relations. It was observed that family
related variables were not associated with interpersonal subscale (social
responsibility, empathy and interpersonal relations) of emotional intelligence.

Biradar (2006) conducted a study to analyze parenting style and
emotional intelligence of the college students. The population of the study
consisted of undergraduate respondents of college of agriculture and college of
‘Rural Home Science’ at Hubali-Dharwad, Karnataka. The selected sample was
consisted of 500 respondents having 18 to 23 years. Parenting style of the
adolescents was measured by ‘Parenting Scale’ of R. L. Bhardwaj et al. (1998).
Whereas Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire’ designed by Dulewicz and
Higgs (2001) was used to measure emotional intelligence. Result exposed that,
self awareness significantly and positively influenced by various dimension of
parenting viz. rejection Vs acceptance, lenient standard Vs moralism and faulty
role expectation Vs realistic role expectation models of parenting. Results also
revealed that, faulty role expectations Vs realistic role expectations and lenient
standard Vs moralism models of parenting significantly and positively
contributed to emotional resilience.

Estres (2006) argued that safe attachment style associated with warm
parental attachment. Cohesion and expression are significant consequence of
better emotional intelligence and finally, adaptive coping is associated with the
well-being. They collected a data from 357 university students studding in
three various countries (Spain, Chile and Mexico). Author demonstrated that
high level of well-being is associated with secure attachment, good family
relationship, good emotional expression, show more clarity in behavior, high level emotional regulation, good ability.

Ozabaci (2006) conducted a study to examine the relationship between EQ and family environment. In study 274 participants were selected as a sample in Istanbul (Turkey). Data were collected by emotional intelligence scale (EQ-NED) and family environment scale” to assess the EQ and family characteristics. The results of the study indicate that there was a significant relationship between EQ and dimensions of family environment. With changes in the level of emotional Intelligence the characteristics of family environment may change. Authors additionally commented that the family environment is mostly important, it enhance the emotional and social development of the child. Emotional processes are much more affected by the family environment.

Sharma and Sandhu (2006) conducted a study to examine the association between parenting dimensions and externalizing behavior in children. The sample comprised of 240 girls from middle class nuclear families of Patiala in Punjab. Authors revealed that parenting dimensions were significantly connected with externalizing behavior such as emotion.

Aligre and Benson (2007) conducted a study to examine the parenting practices and style of Spanish parents. They also studied how Spanish parents influence the nourishment of emotional intelligence. From four different private and public schools in Spanish city, 159 children’s were selected in the study. All families reflected a variety of SES. Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQI) was used to measure emotional intelligence of the children. Parents answered three different questionnaires about their parenting style. Study reported that, Spanish mother’s parenting practices had a significant impact on children’s emotional intelligence. Authors also reported that Spanish mothers who more interact with their children, they enhanced more educational activities and better emotional intelligence. The time they spend watching television on the other hand correlated negatively. One another shocking result
reported by authors i.e. the time fathers spend playing with their children and reading books seemed to have a negative influence in their children.

Duhan and Chhikara (2007) have studied the emotional intelligence skills in relation to parenting techniques and exposure to TV program. Results reveal that emotional intelligence competencies are significantly connected with parenting techniques. More specifically they noted that more suitable the parenting style better will be the emotional intelligence skills. Additionally, authors also reports that TV programs was found not significant with emotional intelligence skills.

Misra (2007) commented that emotional intelligence is a person’s innate potential for emotional functioning. Emotional skills are developed or damaged through different life experiences. Specifically, during the adolescence and childhood different emotional lessons are taught by parents, siblings, caretakers, family, friends etc. and it produce positive and negative emotional issues. The impact of these lessons results in one’s level of “EQ”. Author reported in other words, the habits of a child from an abusive home will make him grow up to have low “EQ”. Abused neglected and emotionally damaged children will score much lower on the existing emotional intelligence tests. The term “EQ” represents a relative measure of a person’s healthy or unhealthy development of their innate emotional intelligence. Author claimed that, it is possible for a person to start out with high emotional intelligence, but then be emotionally damaged in early childhood, causing low emotional quotient later in life. In contrast, it is possible for a child to start out with relatively low emotional quotient, but receive healthy and good emotional modeling, promotion etc. which will result in moderately high emotional quotient. Author also commented that, “It is much easier to damage a high emotional intelligence child than to develop the “EQ” of a low emotional intelligence child. This follows the principal that, it is generally easier to destroy than create.
Misra (2007) studied emotional intelligence among boys in relation to family environment. The sample of the study consisted of 75 boys studying in 9th class of three schools of Allahabad city. Self constructed ‘Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire’ and ‘Family Environment Inventory’ was used to measure the emotional intelligence and family environment. Inventory used for measuring student’s emotional intelligence and perception of family environment. Study revealed that the level of emotional intelligence of boys does not influence the quality of warmth, humanized thrust, control, empathy, cohesiveness, compulsion, spirit, formality, acculturation, conformity and competition as exhibited by parents when they interact with their sons. But study also revealed that, boys with high, moderate and low emotional intelligence differ from one another in their perceptions of hindrance, friction, democratic orientation, insecurity, apathy, tension, hostility, rewards and neglect in their family environment.

In the same study product moment coefficient of correlation were computed to find out relationship of emotional intelligence with various dimensions of family environment. Results reveal that emotional intelligence is significantly and negatively associated with apathy, hostility, friction, hindrance and tension, whereas, remaining dimensions were not significantly associated with emotional intelligence.

Varshney (2007) studied the impact of parental encouragement on emotional intelligence of 100 intermediate students. Results revealed that parental encouragement had a positive effect on the emotional intelligence of boys and girl subjects, more specifically revealed that parental encouragement is associated with good emotional intelligence and vice-versa. It involves that discouragement do not flourish the emotional intelligence of the students. Study also demonstrates that affectionate, open-minded and understanding home environment promotes the emotional intelligence.

Sethi and Ajawani (2008) have studied the impact of parent-child relationship on emotional intelligence. A total sample of 240 students aging 16
to 18 years were randomly selected in the study. In which 120 students having good parent-child relationship and 120 students having poor parent-child relationship were selected from a large population. Results reviewed that an average emotional intelligence score of the subjects with good parent-child relationship was found to be higher than that of with poor parent-child relationship.

Audichya and Jain (2009) conducted study to examine the emotional maturity of adolescent boys and girls from joint and nuclear families. The study was carried out in Udaypur city of Rajasthan. The sample comprised of 240 adolescents from Joint families and 240 adolescents from nuclear families in age range of 14 to 18 years. These boys and girls were purposively selected from secondary and senior secondary schools of Udaypur city. 'Emotional Maturity Scale' was developed by Singh and Bhargav (1990) was used to assess the emotional maturity of adolescent boys and girls. Results of the study revealed that boys from joint families and girls from nuclear families were having high maturity as compared to their counterparts.

Mirza et al. (2010) conducted study to determine the relationship between father’s emotional intelligence and their pleasure-anger responses to children’s behavior. The study was carried out among 107 fathers of Iranian students in the Iranian primary school located in Kuala Lampur, Malaysia. The students were 8-10 years old. Data were collected using the Emotional Intelligence Inventory - adult version (Bar-On EQ-I-1997) and Parent Affect Test (PAT, Linehan and Egen, 1983). Results indicate that, fathers with high emotional intelligence displayed more positive responses to children’s behavior in comparison to the fathers with low emotional intelligence. Study also indicates that fathers with low emotional intelligence displayed more anger responses to children’s behavior in comparison to the fathers with high emotional intelligence.

Mohanty and Devi (2010) have examined the relationship of adolescents Emotional Intelligence with secure attachment style of family and
selected socio-personal variables. The sample comprised of 60 adolescents studying intermediate course from Hyderabad and Secunderabad city of Andhra Pradesh. The study shows that, those adolescents who were securely attached with their parents had better interpersonal relation, good problem solving skills and were happier. It was further concluded that the conductive home environment with secure feelings, give raise to emotional intelligent individuals in future.

**Bala (2011)** studied some psycho-social predictors of emotional intelligence. A total of 745 higher secondary students from rural and urban areas of Durg district of Chhattisgad state in India were randomly selected in the study. 2x2x2 factorial design was applied on emotional intelligence. ‘Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory’ (MEII-2007) was used to measure emotional intelligence and family environment was measured by ‘Home Environment Inventory’ (HEI-1989) designed by Mishra. Results revealed that home environment was found to be an insignificant predictor of emotional intelligence.

**Gardner and et al. (2011)** studied temperament, family environment and childhood trauma as developmental correlates of emotional intelligence. In this study 97 university students were participated. The mean age of the students was 22.29 year. Scutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) and Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIS) were used to measure ability and trait Emotional Intelligence respectively. Co-relational analysis revealed that temperament characteristics were related to trait emotional intelligence, but not related to ability emotional intelligence. Components of family environment and childhood trauma were not significantly related to emotional intelligence. Multiple regression analyses confirmed the importance of temperament in predicting trait emotional intelligence, but provided little support for the role of environmental factors or their interactions with temperament in predicting either type of emotional intelligence.
Kausar and Kazmi (2011) investigated relationship between Parental acceptance-Rejection and self-efficacy of Pakistani adolescents. Sample was recruited from different public sector schools of Lahore, Pakistan and it comprised of 162 adolescents with equal number of girls and boys. Shortened Urdu Versions of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) and General self-efficacy Scale (GSE) were used for assessment. Significant positive relationship between mother and father’s warmth and general self-efficacy of adolescents was found. Study also revealed the significant negative relationship of mother and father’s hostility, neglect and undifferentiated rejection with self efficacy of adolescents. Findings highlight significance of parental acceptance rejection in adolescent’s psychological development.

Naghavi and Redzuan (2012) found in previous literature that, family environment influence emotional intelligence, the level of parental education as one of the important determinants which buffer this effect received little empirical attention. So they investigate the moderating role of father’s education on the relationship between family environment and emotional intelligence among 234 early adolescents in 11-14th grade students of Tehran, Iran. Emotional Quotient Inventory Youth Version EQ-i: YV and Moos and Moos Family Environment Scale were employed on above sample. Authors reported that favorable family environment promotes better emotional intelligence in early adolescents. In addition, the finding demonstrated that education of father moderated the connection between emotional intelligence and family environment. Particularly, early adolescents have a tendency to indicate more emotional intelligence at favorable family environment when fathers have more educated.

Nasir and Iqbal (2012) intended to examine the relationship of selected demographic factors including gender, age, area of residence, household income and parent’s education with Emotional Intelligence. The participants of the study were 595 randomly selected students studying in three public universities located in Islamabad. Emotional intelligence was measured with
the help of Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EQi). Result indicated that parental (Father and Mother) education has significant impact on Emotional Intelligence. Students staying in educated family environment have developed better emotional intelligence than that of non-educated family environment.

Baker and Hoerger (2012) observed the relation of parental child-rearing strategies in family with individual differences in emotional adjustment, social adjustment, psychopathology and self-regulation in early adulthood. 286 young adult participants were recruited from a large Mid-Western university. The age range of the Ss was 18-35 years. Authors demonstrated that parental warmth was found to be significantly associated to academic adjustment, overall better self-regulation and improved interpersonal relation. It was also found that parental rejection and their over-control on their child were significantly associated with general deficits in self-regulation, psychopathology and difficulties in adjustment. Additionally, parental rejection found to be most related to internalizing clinical behavior such as depression and anxiety, while over-control was most associated with increased hypomanic activation and psychoticism. Author’s mediation analysis demonstrated that the relationship between parental child-rearing strategies and socio-emotional adjustment and psychopathology were partially mediated by self regulation.

Biglan and et al. (2012) in their study they mentioned importance of environmental factors in human well-being. They argued that, environment foster successful development and prevent the development of psychological and behavioral problems. Environments minimize biologically and psychologically toxic events. Environmental factor promotes pro-social behavior which become productive adult member of the society. As well as environment fosters psychological flexibility – the ability to be mindful of one’s thought and feelings and to act in the service of one’s values even when one’s thought and feelings discourage taking value action.
Sonthalia and Dasgupta (2012) studied the impact of family attachment style on self-esteem, emotional intelligence, and risk behavior among adolescent’s (boys and girls). The sample consist of 120 adolescents boys and girls. Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA-1979) was used to measure the attachment style of parents, Self-esteem of students was measured by Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES-1965), and emotional intelligence was measured by Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) prepared by Salovey and Mayer (1990). Results revealed that, positive attachment style of parents is very important to increase self-esteem and emotional intelligence of adolescent’s.

Sunil Kumar (2014) conducted a study to explore the emotional maturity of adolescent students in relation to family relationship. Author reveals that there is significant relation between emotional maturity and family relationship of adolescent students. Author shows that family relationship determinates emotional maturity of adolescent students.

2.4 Gender Differences and Emotional Intelligence

Huston and et al. (1981) Argued that female are not smarter than male and male also not superior than female on the construct of Emotional Intelligence. Each of them has personal profile of strengths and weaknesses in these competencies. Some people may be highly empathic but lack some abilities to handle their own distress; others may be quite aware of the minutest shift in their own moods, yet be highly aware socially. In sum authors argued that male and female have a tendency to show gender specific profile of strong and weak points.

Brody and Hall (1993) studied the difference in emotions among the male and females. They proposed that girls develop facility with language more quickly than do boys they are better at articulating their feelings and more skilled than boys at using words to explore and substitute for emotional reactions such as physical fights.
Goleman (1995) argued boys and girls are taught very different lessons about handling emotions. Usually parents discuss about emotions more with their girls than boys. Girls are exposed to more information about emotions than boys. When parents make up stories to tell their pre-school children, they use more emotional words when talking to daughters than do sons, besides this, when mothers play with their infants, they display a wide range of emotions to daughters than do sons. Mothers talk to daughters about feelings in detail where as with sons they go more detail about the causes and consequences of emotions like anger. According to Goleman, male and female has their specific emotional strengths and weaknesses. Females are supposed and trained to be more kind and consequently they are frequently superior to male in emotional judgments. Men are often better at managing their moods key component of Emotional Intelligence

Salovey et al. (1995) studied the gender differences in dimensions of Emotional Intelligence among College students. Study reports that female student placing greater attention on their emotions than male students. Female students perceived to be more skilled at not only dealing with their emotions but also understanding them, while male students are more skilled at controlling impulses and tolerating stress.

Bar-On (1996) found through his Emotional Quotient Inventory, there are several notable differences between male and female. Female have significantly stronger interpersonal skills than their male counterparts, male appear to have stronger sense of self and deal better with stress. According to Bar-On (1996) female are perform better in self as well as social awareness, interpersonal relationship and more socially responsible than males. In contrast, males perform better than females in issues such as stronger self regard and better coping strategies among immediate stressful problems. Bar-On explained that those female having more emotional awareness are show more empathy and they act more socially responsible than male whereas males having better emotional awareness are cope better with stress than females.
Ballou (1997) explained that male and female have equal opportunities to enhance their emotional intelligence. Usually, females are a stronger in empathy and social based competencies where as male tend to be better in self-regulation than females. The same study of MBA students discovered that men and women could improve to some extent, No matter where they start out on a given competence.

Bar-on (1997) does not found any significant differences in overall emotional social intelligence between males and females.

Goleman (1997a) in his research, an analysis of emotional intelligence in thousands of men and women, found that women on an average are more aware of their emotions, show more empathy and are capable to adapt more interpersonally. The research also reveals that women work better with others than men. Men on the other hand are more self-confident and optimistic. They adapt more easily, and handle stress better.

Bar-On (2000) analyzed emotional intelligence scores of over 7700 peoples, revealed that male and females do not differ on the emotional intelligence. However, significant gender differences were found in dimensions of emotional intelligence. Males are more superior to females on impulse control, flexibility, stress tolerance and management, self actualization, boldness. While females found to be significantly better on interpersonal relationship, social responsibility and empathy.

Heinz (2000) in his clever study argued that, men like women, can express their feelings if they are given the words and opportunities to do so. Usually males are supposed to brave, they do not cry and if they cry they are get undesirable labels from society. In the male world, one of the first things boys learn is that the expression of any so-called female feelings will quickly bring mockery, ridicule, rejection, and other forms of social disapproval. Boys are usually given a social training to play with injuries and are accepted when they tolerate pain. However, men have taught to blindly follow in brave areas
such as military and even in some other corporations. A man who is trained to kill animals for trophies, to fight bulls for entertainment and to kill other animals in battle is a man who has been conditioned to alienate himself from his feelings. Finally author reported that, now it seems women are becoming more like men, but men are not interesting in fields of female.

**Petrides and Furnham (2000)** studied the gender differences in measured and self estimated emotional intelligence. 260 (175 females and 85 males) white participants completed a measure of ‘Trait Emotional Intelligence Inventory’ to estimated their scores on emotional intelligence facets. Study revealed that, females scored higher than males on the “Social Skills” factor of measured trait emotional intelligence. But, when the all areas of emotional intelligence were combined into single reliable scale score found to be constant. Study also revealed correlation between measured and self estimated scores were generally higher for males than females, and a regression analysis indicate that gender was a significant predictor of self estimated Emotional Intelligence.

**Thingujam and Ram (2000)** in their attempt of Indian adaption of ‘Emotional Intelligence Scale’ (Schutte et al. 1998) had developed Indian norms (N=811) for male and female separately and found that females were significantly scoring higher than males.

**Ciarrochi and et al. (2001)** demonstrated that female demonstrate better emotional awareness, show more empathy, better interpersonal relationship and are more social responsible than that of men. However, males are superior in positive self regard, optimistic, better coping strategies, ability of problem solving at immediate situation, more self dependent, more flexible etc. than females. Overall emotional intelligence in females found better than males.

**Simon (2001)** reported through research that women are not more emotionally intelligent than that of men. Instead, they are emotionally intelligent in different ways. Additional author claimed that woman
demonstrate more inter-personal skills, possess more self awareness and show more empathy than men. On the other hand, men are found to be more self-confident, optimistic and adaptable, and manage stress better. In general, men and women share more similarities than differences in terms of Emotional Intelligence. As Simon puts it, some men are as empathetic as the most inter-personally sensible women are; while some other women are just as able to withstand stress as the most emotionally resilient men. Other studies have also found evidence that men and women may differ in specific competencies.

Reif (2001) found no difference between emotional intelligence scores of male and female professional and non-professional students.

Charbonneau and Nicol (2002) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and sex differences among 134 adolescents involved in six week training camp run by the military. Results revealed that girls scored somewhat but not significantly higher than the boys on emotional intelligence.

Brackett and Mayer (2003) found that gender difference in emotional intelligence is a matter of which measure is used to examine the emotional intelligence. When performance measure of ‘Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test’ was used then females scored better than male in emotional intelligence whereas on the ‘self report measure of Bar-On Emotion Quotient Inventory’ (EQ-I.) and ‘self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test’ (SREIT) no such evidence was found. Authors additionally suggest that gender differences found in emotional intelligence only when one define emotional intelligence in a purely cognitive manner rather than through mixed prospective. It could also be the case that gender differences do exist but measurement artifacts such as over-estimation of ability on the part of males are more likely to occur with self-report measures.

Chouhan and Bhatnagar (2003) conducted a study on ‘assessing emotional maturity, emotional expression and emotional quotient of adolescent’s male and female students’. The sample consisted of 120 male and
120 female adolescents. The results revealed that post-adolescent females possessed a higher degree of emotional quotient than their male counterparts.

Alloway (2004) express that senior level manager, regardless of gender, scored higher than middle level managers on total emotional intelligence. Females performed higher on total emotional intelligence and its various dimensions viz. managing emotions, using emotions, perceiving emotions, and understanding emotions of self and others.

Brackett, Mayer and Warner (2004) have reported in their study among 330 college students that women scored significantly higher in emotional intelligence than men. Authors also reports that lower emotional intelligence in males with their inability to perceive emotions and to use emotion to facilitate thought.

Hunt and Evans (2004) conducted a study to assess the gender differences on emotional intelligence. 414 individuals (181 male and 233 females) having traumatic experiences selected as a sample and simultaneously studied on their emotional intelligence levels. Results showed that males have higher emotional Intelligence than females.

Kafetsios (2004) conducted a study to access the gender differences in emotional intelligence. He selected 239 Ss aged between 19 to 66 years. Mayer Salovey and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT V2.0) was used to measure the emotional intelligence of the sample. Author reported that females scored higher on emotion perception and experimental areas than males.

Pande and Tripathi (2004) conducted study to examine the role of age and gender in development of emotional intelligence. 50 boys and 50 girls having five age groups (5-6 years, 8-9 years, 11-12 years, 14-15 years and 17-18 years) were selected from population of schools in Gorakhpur city of east Uttar Pradesh. Self prepared 'Emotional Intelligence Inventory' (2003) was used to measure emotional intelligence of subjects. The 5x2 factorial between
groups ANOVA performed separately for each measure yielded highly significant main effect of age for all the five measures. On almost all measure the scores has increased with advancing age. Study also reported that, the girls consistently scored higher on all the measures than boys. However, the main effect of gender was significant for only three measures namely ‘identification of emotion’, ‘perception and recognition of emotion with probing’ and ‘emotion intensity rating’. It means that, gender carry very significant role in development of three dimensions of Emotional Intelligence namely, ‘identification of emotion’, ‘perception and recognition of emotion with probing’ and ‘emotion rating’. On other hand gender does not carry any significant impact on ‘perception and recognition of emotion without probing’ and ‘understanding emotional meaning’.

**Pandit (2004)** conducted study on 230 (120 male and 110 female) college going students and examine the gender differences in Emotional Intelligence among the students. Purposive method was used for collecting data. Author does not found significant gender differences in Emotional Intelligence.

**Pant** and **Prakash (2004)** evaluates the construct of Emotional Intelligence. 60 participants (30 male and 30 female) students selected for study. The students were enrolled at University of Delhi in graduate courses. Emotional Intelligence was assessed by the multi-factor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). Authors found very few significant differences between these two groups. The results also suggest that the emotional intelligence construct is not unique ability in the Indian sample as measured by the MEIS.

**Petrides, Furnham and Martin (2004)** examined participant’s estimates of own and parental psychometric intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EI). About 224 participants (82 males, 138 females and 4 who did not reported their gender) were asked to estimate their own and parent’s IQ and EI scores on a normal distribution from 55 to 145 points. Authors concluded that people perceive psychometric intelligence as a primarily masculine
attribute in contrast with emotional intelligence, which they perceive as a primarily feminine attribute whereas this result has been altered when the subjects had estimated their scores on a range of specific EI facets instead of overall self estimate.

Taylor et al. (2004) studied the sex differences in managing and manipulating others feelings and behavior. 219 undergraduate students completed the ‘Changing People’s Feelings’ (CPF) and ‘Changing People’s Behavior’ (CPB). Study revealed that woman scored significantly higher than men on the CPF. The difference on the CPB approached but did not reach statistical significance.

Tiwari and Srivastav (2004) investigated developmental changes in Emotional Intelligence. A sample of 270 children (135 male and 135 female) from Hindi, English and mixed medium instructions of Gorakhpur city of Uttar Pradesh participated in the study. Emotional Intelligence was measured with the help of an abridged version of Schutte (1997) measure of Emotional Intelligence. The result showed that gender had no significant main effect on all the components of Emotional Intelligence namely ‘Appraisal and expression of emotions’, ‘Regulation of emotions’ and ‘Utilization of emotions’.

Stys and Brown (2004) reviewed literature and implications of Emotional Intelligence for corrections. They argued that, studies in gender differences regard with Emotional Intelligence are inconclusive. Although some research has found that female are more emotionally intelligent than male, other studies have found no significant differences between genders. They suggest more research is required in this regard.

Tyagi (2004) conducted a study on emotional intelligence of secondary teachers in relation to gender and age. 350 male and 150 female students studding in secondary schools from Dhule district of Maharashtra was selected as a sample. Author demonstrated that there was no event of significant difference in emotional intelligence with respect to gender and age.
Aleem (2005) conducted the study to find out the prevalence of emotional stability among the male and female students. Emotional Stability Questionnaire (ESQ) was administered on 50 male and 50 female students of different colleges of New Delhi. Result shows that male students are found to be more emotionally stable than female students.

Austin, Evans, Goldwater and Potter (2005) studied among a group of 156 1st year medical students who have been completed measures of emotional intelligence and physician empathy, and a scale assessing their feelings about a communication skills course component. Results indicate that females scored significantly higher than males on emotional intelligence.

Brackett, Worner and Bosco (2005) assessed the gender differences in ability measure of emotional intelligence. In their study they selected 86 heterosexual couples. They revealed that female partners were significantly higher on emotional intelligence scores than male partners and that emotional intelligence scores were uncorrelated within couples.

Katyal and Awasthi (2005) examined the gender differences in Emotional Intelligence. A total of 150 students studying in tenth grade from three government senior secondary schools of Chandigarh are selected as a sample. Male and female ratio was kept constant having 15 years. Authors demonstrated that average sample had good emotional intelligence whereas girls were found to be better emotional intelligence than that of boys.

Mathur, Malhotra and Dube (2005) evaluate the gender differences in the selected variables of emotional intelligence. 83 adolescents from which 47 were girls and 36 were boys, were selected in the age group of 13 to 15 years from a local public school representing an upper-middle socio-economic strata of the city. The study revealed no significant gender differences on the dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Rana and et al. (2005) examined the relationship between family environment and the development of aggressive tendencies. They also tested.
the gender differences in relation to aggression. A total of 100 girls and 100 boys, ranging in age from 15 to 18 years participated in the study. Same sex peer-estimated data was used. The results demonstrated that family environment affected aggressive behavior. Gender differences, as they expected showed that boys score higher than girls on physical, verbal, or indirect aggression.

Devi (2005) examines the gender differences in dimensions of emotional intelligence. The sample comprised of 120 children between the age ranges of 15-17 years from the City of Vishakhapatnam. Emotional Intelligence Inventory developed by Uma Devi and Mayuri (2003) was used to find out the emotional intelligence level of adolescents. Results revealed that in the interpersonal subscale of emotional intelligence children's gender was significantly related with the social responsibility dimension but not significantly related with the dimensions of empathy and interpersonal relations. This indicates that boys are more socially responsible than girls.

Van Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005) assessed gender differences on emotional intelligence by administrating a common measure of emotional intelligence on 275 participants. Results indicated that female scored slightly higher than males.

Bindu and Thomas (2006) examined the relationship between intelligence and creativity which are cognitive variables and between emotional intelligence and maladjustment which are non-cognitive variables. They selected 90 youth adults as a sample. The results indicate that two gender groups differed significantly in the mean score on the variables and also in their inter-correlations. It was found that in male subjects maladjustment was identified as the significant predictor of all other variables. However, in the female subjects emotional intelligence played a significant role to determine creativity and maladjustment. The relationship between intelligence and creativity was found to be stronger in the female group than in the male group.
Biradar (2006) conducted a study to assess gender differences in Emotional Intelligence of the college students. The population of the study consisted of undergraduate respondents of college of agriculture and college of 'Rural Home Science' at Hubali-Dharwad, Karnataka. The age range of the respondents was 18 to 23 years. The selected sample was consisted of 500 respondents, in which 300 males and 200 females. Emotional Intelligence was measured using 'Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire' developed by Dulewicz and Higgs (2001). Results revealed that, there was no significant difference between male and female respondents with respect to Emotional Intelligence and its components.

Castro-Schilo and Kee (2006) examined the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and right hemisphere processing regarding gender. 122 ethnicity diverse college students were selected in the study, which 54 males and 68 females. Results indicate that, males with more aroused right hemisphere tend to have greater Emotional Intelligence and greater knowledge of how feelings evolve and combine to form different feelings, and that women with less right hemisphere arousal can identify the most effective action to experience a specific emotion.

Depape, Hakim-Larson, Volker, Page et al. (2006) have conducted a study to know gender as a predictor of emotional intelligence. In their study they included 126 graduate participants in which 42 men and 84 women. Authors reveal that gender found to be in-significant predictor of emotional intelligence.

Tapia and Marsh (2006) were conducted a study to examine the effect of sex on Emotional Intelligence of secondary school students. The sample consisted of 319 students, in which 162 males and 157 females, who attended school at a Bilingual (English and Spanish) college preparatory schools. General linear analysis revealed significant differences in empathy scores when grouped by gender. Female scored higher than males in empathy.
Bhandarkar (2007) conducted a study on 900 Junior college students of Nagpur district of Maharashtra. It includes 450 boys and 450 girls. The aim of the investigation was to study the Emotional Intelligence and gender differences among the students. The result indicates significant gender differences between girls and boys in regard with Emotional Intelligence. Boys are emotionally more intelligent than girls.

Done (2007) conducted a study on 1577 11th grade college students in which 781 males and 796 females. All students were attaining different public and government colleges in Kolhapur district. Author does not found remarkable sex difference in Emotional Intelligence.

Alumran and Punamaki (2008) conducted a research to examine gender and age differences in Emotional Intelligence. A total of 312 students randomly selected from various educational institutes viz. intermediate school, high schools and the University of Bahrain. Emotional intelligence of the subjects was measured by Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (WQ-I:YV). Result showed that gender was significantly associated with Emotional Intelligence. Girls showed higher levels of Interpersonal Emotional Intelligence than that of boys.

Cleik and Deniz (2008) conducted study to investigate whether or not there were differences between the emotional levels of Turkish scouts and scouts from other countries (England, Norway and Ireland) with regard to age and gender variables. The participants were 215 scouts who attended to an International scout camp in England. 90 of the participants were Turkish in which 45 boys and 45 girls and 125 were from other countries in which 74 boys and 51 girls. The age range of the scouts was 11-20. Study revealed that, female scouts have significantly high Emotional Intelligence than male scouts.

Niazi and Adil (2008) intended to explore the relationship between panic attack and aggression with respect to age and gender. The sample comprised of 150 individuals with equal number of male and female (75 males
and 75 females) with an age range of 17 to 45 years. The study indicated that non-significant gender differences in aggression and panic attack.

**Namdar** and et al. (2008) assessed Emotional Intelligence and its relationship with some demographic factors. The population of the study was included 144 nursing students in Tabriz School of nursing. The method of sample selection was census method. Bar-On ‘Emotional Quotient Inventory’ (EQI) was used to measure Emotional Intelligence of the nursing students. Some personal and demographic data were gathered from the students. Study reported that, there was no significant difference between Emotional Intelligence of male and female students.

**Nasar** and **Nasar** (2008) conducted study to assess gender differences in emotional intelligence of 100 male and 100 female undergraduate college students, having age range of 17-20 years with a mean of 18.75 years. Socio-economic status, educational level and IQ level have been matched in both the sample. All students were from urban background. Hindi version ‘Emotional Intelligence Scale’ (HEIS-26) by Pandey and Anand (2003) was used to assess the Emotional Intelligence of the students. Authors found significant gender difference in emotional intelligence. Female students were emotionally more intelligent than that of male students.

**Sanchez-Numez** et al. (2008) studied the gender differences in dimensions of Emotional Intelligence among adolescents. Study reported that, no clear significant differences in self reported Emotional Intelligence have been found among male and female adolescents. But female adolescents were more skillful at directing and handling their own and other people’s emotions, better at Emotional attentions and empathy, while males are better at regulating emotion.

**Saranya** and **Velayudhan** (2008) conducted a study to know the gender differences in emotional intelligence among 60 University students in which 30 male 30 females were consisted. Authors report that male and females are
equally competent in their various emotional intelligence skills. In other words there is no significant gender difference in emotional intelligence as well as its dimensions. However, significant gender difference was found in the dimension of motivation; girls are better motivated than boys.

Shah and Thingujam (2008) were aimed to studying coping in relation to Emotional Intelligence. Gender differences also examined in the same study. The sample comprised of 197 students, between the ages of 18 to 25 years (Mean age was 20.34 years). Participants completed the self–reported measures of emotional intelligence. No significant difference was found in perceived emotional intelligence and ways of coping except for self-control, where males reported higher than female adolescents.

Singh, Chaudhry and Asthana (2008) studied the impact of gender on emotional intelligence of adolescents. They selected 400 adolescents from various schools and colleges consisting 200 male and 200 females. The results revealed that both male and female adolescents are equally competent in caring, giving, supportive and enriching.

Audichya and Jain (2009) conducted study to examine the emotional maturity of adolescent boys and girls from joint and nuclear families. The study was carried out in Udaypur city of Rajasthan. The sample comprised of 240 boys and 240 girls in age range of 14 to 18 years. These subjects were purposively selected from secondary and senior secondary schools of Udaypur city. ‘Emotional Maturity Scale’ developed by Singh and Bhargav (1990) was used to assess the emotional maturity of adolescent boys and girls. Results of the study revealed that boys were emotionally more mature than girls.

Carr (2009) has studied gender differences in emotional intelligence among the 177 students sample of medical school. Results revealed that male students are more superior on emotional intelligence than their female counterparts.
Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have been reported a significant effect of a gender on emotional intelligence, in their study among 300 B. Ed. Teacher trainees.

Jadhav and Havalappanavar (2009) examined emotional intelligence among 200 male and female police constable trainees. Results indicated that women police constable trainees have scored significantly high on emotional intelligence than male police constable. Authors are given probable reasons for these differences. Men spend most of their time with peers and home, whereas, women spend most of their time from the childhood in the home, with family members and even their latter life at house. Hence they learn how to behave with others and how to control their emotions. Women are keener in every aspect and they utilize opportunities properly etc. In addition, the results also reported that females are better on various emotional intelligence dimensions namely, self motivation, emotional stability, commitment, altruism, empathy and self awareness than males.

Joshi and et al. (2009) assessed gender differences in emotional maturity among adolescents. The data was collected from 100 boys and 100 girls (N=200). Emotional maturity of the adolescents was measured by ‘Emotional Maturity Scale’ constructed by Singh and Bhargav (1990). The results of the study revealed a significant difference on emotional maturity. Boys were found to be more emotionally matured than girls.

Mishra and Ranjan (2009) have studied the gender differences in emotional intelligence among adolescents. 80 adolescents were selected as a sample in which 40 males and 40 females. The results revealed that adolescent boys and girls differ significantly on emotional intelligence and boys were found to be significantly higher on emotional intelligence than the girls. Authors revealed that male subjects are better on various emotional dimensions namely, interpersonal, adaptability and stress management skills and their overall general mood (happiness and optimism) than the girls.
Rai and Pande (2009) conducted study to examine the emotional maturity of Mizo adolescents, a distinctive tribe of North-East India. The Sample of 100 adolescents (50 boys and 50 girls) from the various schools of Aizawl city the capital of Mizoram was selected. The age of the adolescents ranged between 16 to 19 years. SES and age were controlled. Emotional maturity of the adolescents was measured by ‘The Emotional Maturity Scale’ developed by Singh and Bhargav (1990). The findings revealed that Mizo girls have higher emotional instability, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence in comparison to Mizo boys. The significant difference on total score of emotional maturity scale also indicates that boys are more emotionally matured than girls.

Tatawadi (2009) studied gender differences in emotional maturity among students studying in a management school. Author revealed that the female are emotionally stronger than the males. The females are found to be higher than males in their empathy, social responsibilities and interpersonal relationships. They are more sensitive towards their relationships with parent, friends and siblings. All these traits help them to acquire more emotional intelligence as compared to boys.

Mohanty and Devi (2010) examine the gender differences in Emotional Intelligence among adolescents. The sample comprised of 60 adolescents studying intermediate course from Hyderabad and Secunderabad city of Andhra Pradesh. Study concluded that securely attached adolescent girls were well aware of their feelings and more optimistic than that of securely attached boys.

Waddar and Aminbhavi (2010) aimed to investing whether PG students staying at home and hostel do differ significantly from each other in Emotional Intelligence? Gender differences with respect to emotional intelligence also studied in the same study. The study was conducted on a sample of 200 PG students, out of which 100 students staying at home and 100 PG students staying at hostel. Both groups (consisting 50 male and 50 female
students) are selected from different departments of Karnataka University, Dharwad. Results revealed that Gender has significantly contributed to the emotional intelligence.

**Abdel-Khalek and et al. (2011)** conducted a study to assess self-esteem among college students from four Arab countries. They explore sex-related differences in these four Arab countries. Four samples of 2643 students were recruited from Egypt (n=576), Kuwait (n=674), Lebanon (n=826), and Oman (n=567). Out of 2643 students 1026 were males and 1617 were females. They responded to the Arabic Version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES). Results revealed that, men in Kuwait had a significantly higher on self esteem than did their female. The sex-related difference in self-esteem is a controversial result and it may not be replicable in different countries.

**Bala (2011)** studied some psycho-social predictors of emotional intelligence. A total of 745 higher secondary students from rural and urban areas of Durg district of Chhattisgarh state in India were randomly selected in the study. 2x2x2 factorial design was applied on emotional intelligence. 'Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory' (MEII-2007) was administered to measure emotional intelligence of the students. Study revealed that sex was an insignificant in predicting emotional intelligence.

**Kadam et al. (2011)** was carried out a study to find gender differences among male and female performers from Rambo circus, Pune on Emotional Intelligence. Incidental sample of 40 in which 20 male and 20 female performers were selected. Age of these performers was between 25-35 years and those belonging to various activities in the circus. Tool used in the study was the Schutte Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSREIT). Results indicate that, there is no significant difference found among male and female performers regarding Emotional Intelligence.

**Mimrot (2011)** studied the role of area of residence, and sex on the development of Emotional Intelligence and self concept of adolescents. The
sample for the study was selected from rural and urban area of Aurangabad district Maharashtra. 350 subjects were selected from rural area and 350 subjects were selected from urban area from various Junior colleges. The age range of the subjects was 14 to 16 years. The Emotional Intelligence of the subjects was measured by Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) of Anukool Hyde, Sanjyot Pethe and Upinder Dhar. Authors do not found significant gender differences on Emotional Intelligence. Thus they suggest that gender has no influence on Emotional Intelligence.

Naghavi and Redzuan (2011) assessed the relationship between gender and Emotional Intelligence based on the literature review. They found that, emotional intelligence is associated with factors such as life satisfaction, adaptability, optimism, overall intelligence, birth order, gender, family size, personality and emotional disorders like alexithymia, depression, anxiety. They also argued that, girls are higher than boys in their emotional intelligence but in boys emotional intelligence is a better predictor for achievement.

Nasir and Iqbal (2011) intended to examine the relationship of selected demographic factors including gender, age, area of residence, household income and parent’s education with Emotional Intelligence. The participants of the study were 595 randomly selected students studying in three public universities located in Islamabad. 48% of the sample consisted of male students (N=285) and 52% female students (N=310) with the age range 18 to 30 years. Emotional Intelligence was measured with the help of Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EQi). Result indicated that gender has no significant influence on Emotional Intelligence.

Pawar (2011) studied the effect of locality and gender on emotional adjustment level of adolescents. 400 effective participants were selected from various junior and senior colleges of Aurangabad district as a sample in which 200 from rural area and 200 urban adolescents. Male-female ratio was approximately 1:1. Age range of the sample was 16 to 18 years. Factorial design was used to conduct the study. Study reported that, emotional
adjustment had significantly better among female adolescents than male adolescents.

Shabani and Damavandi (2011) examined the role of emotional intelligence in mental health. Study also interested to show the moderating role of gender on the relationship between emotional intelligence and mental health. A sample of 247 students from public high school in Gorgan (City in north Iran) was selected. All students are enrolled in 10th and 12th class having 14 to 17 years. The result demonstrated that mental health could be influenced by emotional intelligence. In addition, gender was a significant moderator for the relationship between emotional Intelligence and mental health.

Najib and et al. (2012) conducted a study to determine the emotional intelligence level of Malaysian university students from different demographic aspects. A total of 3101 final year students from 10 public universities were randomly chosen as a sample. In which 2290 were female students and 769 were male students and 42 participants did not specified their gender. The Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EQ-i:S) was used to measure the emotional intelligence of the students. Results indicated that, the male and female students do not differ on emotional intelligence.

Rao and Raju (2012) was conducted a study to find out the relationship between gender with emotional and behavioral problems among early adolescents studying in high schools. The sample size included 343 (Boys=162; Girls = 181) in Shrikakulam District of Andhra Pradesh. Achenbach’s Youth Self Report (YSR) was used for the study. The results indicated that, boys were having more emotional problem than girls. It was also observed that, private school was having emotional and behavioral problems. But emotional problems were evident in Government school adolescents.

Salguero and et. al. (2012) conducted study aims to examine the moderator role of gender in ability Emotional Intelligence and depression relationship. Participants in this study were 620 high-school and undergraduate
students, in which 280 male and 340 female students. All students were completed an ability measure of Emotional Intelligence, and depression inventory. Results confirmed that, gender differences in ability Emotional Intelligence, with higher level in females compared to males. Next, interaction analyzes showed that gender moderated the ability emotional intelligence-depression relationship.

**Kar, Saha, and Mongal (2014)** conducted a study to examine emotional intelligence of secondary school students in relation to their gender. A total of 235 subjects were randomly selected from the district of Purulia, WB, India. The results reveal that gender does not affect the level of emotional intelligence.

**Makvana (2014)** conducted a study to observe the association of emotional intelligence and gender. They argued that females are emotionally better that that of male students.

**Nara, Archana (2014)** conducted a study to examine the emotional intelligence of school students of Haryana with respect to sex. Sample of 800 secondary school students from four districts of Haryana were selected through random sampling method. Results reveal significant difference in emotional intelligence of male and female school students. Female students are emotionally more superior to male students.

**Naik (2014)** conducted a study to search the influence of sex on emotional intelligence of college students. He selected 360 undergraduate college students from various colleges of the Kolhapur and Sangli city. Results revealed that the sex factor of college students does not affect significantly on emotional intelligence.

**Sunil Kumar (2014)** conducted a study to search the gender differences in emotional maturity. A sample of 60 adolescent students of higher secondary level were selected from Karnal city in which 30 boys and 30 girls. Results reveal that there is a significant difference in emotional maturity of boys and girls adolescent.
2.5 Socio-Economic Status and Emotional Intelligence

Bharadwaj (1981) found emotional intelligence of social teachers to be positively associated with SES. School student’s emotional maturity increases as SES increases.

Sharma (2003) found positive relationship between emotional intelligence and SES among B.Ed. students.

Singh (2004) found that students of high SES excel those of low SES in emotional maturity.

Bagdy et al. (2005) conducted study to determine the effects of socio-economic diversity within the classroom on the social-emotional development of preschool children of low income backgrounds. Twenty-seven children were enrolled in two classrooms in a private universities’ child development center. Twenty of the twenty-seven children were selected from low-income backgrounds for the study. The children were tested to determine a baseline measure of their social emotional skills. Post-testing was done at the conclusion of the school year to determine growth in social-emotional skills. Authors found there were significant differences in social-emotional development. These results suggest that, mixed income grouping as well as teacher interactions influence social-emotional development of children from low-income backgrounds.

Holmes (2007) conducted an exploratory study to assess the relationship between emotional intelligence and socio-economic status. In his study emotional intelligence was considered as criterion variable and socio-economic status as predictor. Socio-economic status was measured by household income, parent education and occupation. Correlation analysis revealed significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and dimensions of socio-economic status viz. parent education and occupation but emotional intelligence is not significantly associated with respect to mother’s occupation and households income.
Namdar and et al. (2008) assessed Emotional Intelligence and its relationship with some demographic factor including socio-economic status. The population of the study was included 144 nursing students in Tabriz School of nursing. The method of sample selection was census method. Bar-On 'Emotional Quotient Inventory' (EQI) was used to measure Emotional Intelligence of the nursing students, which includes 90 questions in five categories and 15 scales. Some personal and demographic data were gathered from the students. Study reported that, there was significant difference between Emotional Intelligence scores of students, who were satisfied with their family socio-economic status and those who were not satisfied with it. In other words there was a remarkable relationship between Emotional Intelligence scores and the student’s satisfaction of their family socio-economic status.

Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have conducted a study to find out the effect of monthly income on the level of emotional intelligence among 300 B. Ed. teacher trainees. Results indicated that the socio-economic status or monthly income do not cause any significant effect on the emotional intelligence.

Jacques (2009) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and socio-economic status among 221 college students. The study reported that socio-economic status did not predicted emotional intelligence.

Kraus and et al. (2010) studied the role of social class in the development of empathic accuracy. Empathic accuracy is the ability to judge the emotions of other individuals. It is captured with well validated standard test as well as in the accuracy with which individuals judge the spontaneous emotions of others. Authors argued that, empathetic accuracy tends to rise with greater interdependence and is an important predictor of relationship outcomes and social adjustment. Authors hypothesized; subjects of a lower social class are more empathically accurate in judging the emotions of other people. 200 participants in which 134 female and 66 male from Public University were assigned in the study. Study reported that, lower-class subjects received higher
scores on a test of empathetic accuracy, judged the emotions of an interaction partner more accurately and made more accurate inferences about emotion from static images of muscle movements in the eyes compared with upper-class subjects.

Mohanty and Devi (2010) in their study, they reported that good education and occupation of parents positively and significantly associated with interpersonal relationship (EI) of the adolescents. It means that parents having good education and occupation have adolescents having the ability in establishing and maintaining mutually satisfying relationship characterized by emotional closeness and intimacy.

Nasir and Iqbal (2012) intended to examine the relationship of selected demographic factors including gender, age, area of living, household income and parent’s education with Emotional Intelligence. The participants of the study were 595 randomly selected students studying in three public universities located in Islamabad. 48% of the sample consisted of male students (N=285) and 52% female students (N=310) with the age range 18 to 30 years. Emotional Intelligence was measured with the help of Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EQi). Result indicated that income has significant impact on Emotional Intelligence.

Shinde (2012) conducted a study to assess the strength of association between socioeconomic status and emotional intelligence among the subjects. 40 girls between the age ranges of 18 to 23 years from Phalton, in Maharashtra were participated in the study. The education level of the girls was 12th grade to under-graduation. Emotional Intelligence of the students was measured by the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) of Hyde and Pethe and socioeconomic status was measured by Socio-economic Status Scale (SES) prepared by D. S. Janbandhu. Results revealed that, there is no significant association found between socio-economic status and emotional intelligence.
Yoshikawa, and et al. (2012) conducted a theoretical research and argued that Poverty is critical risk factor for many of the mental, emotional, and behavioral disorder. It was found that poverty is related with a range of negative outcomes for children in the realms of language and cognitive development, physical health, and educational achievement.

Naik (2014) conducted a study to examine the influence of socioeconomic status on emotional intelligence of college students. A sample of 360 undergraduate college students from various colleges of the Kolhapur and Sangli city was selected. Author exposed that socioeconomic status of college students affect significantly on emotional intelligence. He also coined that upper socioeconomic status students are having high emotional intelligence than lower socioeconomic status and middle socioeconomic status students.

This brief review of studies shows controversy in results. In India, there is a need of more studies of emotional intelligence to be done systematically. There are very least researches conducted to show the relation between socioeconomic status and emotional intelligence in Indian culture. This is a need to emphasize this factor in relation to emotional intelligence. Present study probably is a very small attempt.