CHAPTER - 2

Review of Literature
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research investigations may be conducted either to explore new field or to test hypothesis where already a substantial body of research or theoretical background exists. In both the cases it is necessary to review the literature which is either directly connected to the research problem or which throws light on its relevant aspects.

Some studies are being presented here in the context of present study.

Studies related to emotional intelligence in adolescents:

Studies of emotional intelligence have shown its relevance to many aspects of life and the roles it plays in the interactions and decisions of any given day according to Goleman (1995). Emotional intelligence predicts as much as 80% of a person is success in life, whereas IQ predicts about 20% research indicates that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership (Bertges, 2002).

Boys and girls are taught very different lessons about handling emotions. Parents, in general, disuse emotions with the exception of anger more with their daughters than their sons. Girls are exposed to more information about emotions than are boys. When parents make up stories to tell their pre-school children, they use more emotion words when talking to daughters than to sons.

When mothers play with their infants they display a wider range of emotions to daughters than to sons, when mothers talk to daughters about feeling, they discuss in more detail the emotional state itself than do with their sons though with the sons they go into more detail about the causes and consequences of emotions like anger.
Brody and Jadith Hall, who have summarized the research on
difference in emotions between the sexes, propose that because girls
develop facility with language more quickly than do boys, this leads them
to be more experienced at articulating their feelings and more skilled than
boys at using words to explore and substitute for emotional reactions such
as physical fights in on, they note, “boys, for whom the verbalization of
affects is emphasized may become largely unconscious of their emotional
states, both in themselves and others.”

In sets with over seven thousand people in the United States and
eighteen other countries, the benefits of being able to read feelings from
non-verbal cues included being better adjusted emotionally, more
popular, more outgoing and perhaps not surprisingly more sensitive.

In general women are better than men at this kind of empathy and
people whose performance improved over the course of the forty five
minute test a sign that they have a talent for picking up empathy skills –
also had better relationships with the opposite sex. Empathy it should be
no surprise to learn helps with romantic life.

Hundreds of studies have found, for example, that on average
women are more empathic than men, at least as measured by the ability to
read someone else’s unstated feelings from facial expression, tone of
voice, and other nonverbal cues. Likewise it is generally easier to read
feelings from a woman’s face than man’s while there is no difference in
facial expressiveness among very young boys and girls, as they go
through the elementary school grades boys becomes less expressive, girls
more so.
A number of studies have examined the role of emotion perception in children’s everyday social life (Barth & Bastiani, 1997 Cassidy et al., 1992, Custrini & Feldman 1989, Saarni 1999).

Photographs of people experiencing a discreet emotion, and then asking them a series of questions concerning the emotion being expressed, the sort of situation that might lead to the emotion, and the appropriate responses to the emotion. Cassidy et al. found that children who were good at perceiving and understanding emotions tended to be more accepted by their peers.

In a similar study, Custrine and feldman found that among girls (age 9 to 12), but not boys the ability to perceive others facial expressions was related to the degree of social competence.

Spirito et al. presented young people (aged 9 to 13 years) with a list of common stressful events, and asked them to describe what coping strategies they used and how effective they believed the coping strategy to be. They found that younger participants (aged 9 – 10 years) used certain coping strategies more often than did older participants (aged 14 years). Other studies have used parent and teacher reports to assess emotion management skill and have found the reports to be related to young people’s is social competence (Eisenberg et. al. 1995).

Studies in gender differences are inconclusive. Although some research has found that women are more emotionally intelligent than men. Other studies have found no significant differences between genders. More research is required in this regard.

Studies by Mayer and Geher (1996) Caruso and Salovey (1999) and more recently Mandell and Pherwani (2003) have found that women
are more likely to score higher on measures of emotional intelligence than men, both in professional and personal settings.

Deniel Goleman (1998) asserts that no gender differences in emotional intelligence exist, admitting that while men and women may have different profiles of strengths and weaknesses in different areas of emotional intelligence their overall levels of emotional intelligence, are equivalent.

Brackett and Mayer (2003) found that females scored higher than males on emotional intelligence when measured by a performance measures (the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence Test).

Emotional intelligence has been found to be a predictor of life satisfaction, healthy psychological adaptation, positive interactions with peers and family, and higher parental warmth.

Several Studies have found that emotional intelligence can have a significant impact on various elements of everyday living. Palmer, Donaldson and Stough (2002) found that higher emotional intelligence was predictor of life satisfaction.

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) found that higher emotional intelligence correlated significantly with higher parental warmth and attachment style, while others found that those scoring high in emotional intelligence also reported increased positive interpersonal relationships among children, adolescents, and adults (Rice, 1999, Rubin, 1999).

In a study of 15 male adolescent sex offenders (15-17 years old) it was found that sex offenders have difficulty in identifying their own and others’ feelings, two important elements of emotional intelligence (Moriarty, Stough, Tidmarsh, Eger, & Dennison, 2001).
A similar study by Boyatzis (1999) found that when partners in a multinational consulting firm were assessed on emotional intelligence competencies, partners who scored above the median on nine or more competencies delivered 1.2 million more profit than did other partners.

The results of longitudinal studies further implicated emotional intelligence as being important. One study involving 450 boys reported that IQ had little relation to workplace and personal success, rather, more important in determining their success was their ability to handle frustration, control emotions, and get along with others (Snarey & Vaillant, 1985).

Additionally, Pellitteri (2002) reported that people higher in emotional intelligence were also more likely to use an adaptive defense style and thus exhibited healthier psychological adaptation. No gender difference were observed for these associations (Trinidad & Johnson, 2002; Brackett and Mayer, 2003).

Ciarrochi, Chan et al. (2000) expected emotional intelligence to relate to gender, which would be consistent with the substantial amount of evidence suggesting that females are more emotionally competent than males.

A similar study by stimpson, Neff, Jensen and Newby (1991) also found gender differences in preference for a caring value orientation.

Molouff & Schutte (1998) found in their study that the persons with higher emotional intelligence were more socially accepted and displayed better skills.
Similar studies have linked age (Femandez & Radriguez, 2003) and locations of residence (Conger & Elder, 1994, 2000) to emotional processes and development during adolescence.

Petrides, K. U. & Furnham, Adrian, Explored the validity of the Psychometric properties of the self report emotional intelligence (EI) measured by N.S. Schutte et al (1998) to determine if the scale is unifactorial. 260 university students (mean age of 22.21 years) complete the emotional intelligence questionnaire. It is argued that by virtue of the construction strategy adopted by Schutte the test cannot by measuring a general emotional intelligence factor further more that it has not been successfully mapped on to P. Salovey and J.D. Mayer's (1990) emotional intelligence model. It is also shown via confirmatory factor analysis that the test is not unifactorial. A theoretical distinction between trait and information processing emotional intelligence is proposed. Trait emotional intelligence appears on the greater personality realm whereas information processing emotional intelligence is an attempt to chart new territory in the field of human mental health.

Kocovski, Mancy & Norman S. Self regulation, trait depression and social anxiety were investigated in a group of 174 (124 female, 50 male) college students (aged 18-41 years). Aspects of goal setting, self-monitoring, self-evaluation and self-reinforcement were assessed as facets of self-regulation. These 4 facts accounted for 62% of the variance in depression.

The pattern of relationships between self-regulation and social anxiety was very similar to the pattern of relationships between self-regulation and depression. Individual who were high on social anxiety were low on the expectancy to achieve goals, low on self evaluation, and
low on positive self reinforcement. Individuals who were high on depression were also low on the expectancy to achieve goals low on self-evaluation and low on positive self-reinforcement.

The authors investigated whether emotional intelligence would account for increases in individual cognitive based performance over and above the level attributable to traditional general intelligence, using a sample of college students (aged 18-33 years). The authors measured emotional intelligence with the multifactor emotional intelligence scale (MEIS, J.D.) Mayer et al, 1997). As measured by the MEIS, overall emotional intelligence is a composite of the 3 distinct emotional reasoning abilities: perceiving, understanding, and regulating emotions (J.D. Mayer & P. Salovey, 1997). Although further psychometric analysis of the MEIS is warranted, the authors found that overall emotional intelligence, emotional perception, and emotional regulation uniquely explained individual cognitive based performance over and beyond the level attributable to general intelligence.

Matalio Extremera & David Pizarro examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, anxiety and depression among adolescents. 250 High School students were administered the trait meta-mood scale a self report measure of emotional intelligence along with measures of thought suppression self-esteem, anxiety, and depression. The results provided support for the hypothesis that emotional abilities are important and unique contributor to psychological adjustment.

Sing and Nitesh, (2008), Paper is an attempt to stimulate debate on the role of emotional intelligence on different dimensions of mental health by covering its definitions development, and problematic nature. Multiple regression analysis based on the data obtained from 50 male
undergraduate students revealed that out of ten facets of emotional intelligence altruism, emotional stability and self motivation were found to be predicted significantly with greater variance on the criterion dimension of mental health such as egocentrism and expression, alienation and social conformity, respectively but not on emotional unstability.

In a comparison of several hundred adults and adolescents, Salovey and Mayer (1990) found that adults across the board had higher EQ. An evaluation of the emotional intelligence of more than 3000 men and women of ages varying from teens to the 50s, revealed small but steady and significant increases in their emotional intelligence with advancing age.

Further, a peak was observed in the 40s age group. It was confirmed that emotional intelligence developed with increasing age and experience as a person progressed from childhood to adulthood. Additionally it was seen that when it come to cultivating emotional competence, maturity remained an advantage, it may be slightly harder to ‘teach young doegs new tricks’.

**Studies Related to Mental Health in Adolescents:**

Sarkar (1988) has done empirical study to the dimensions of mental health in adolescents (N = 500). Out of five hundred, hundred and fifteen students possessed poor mental health and rest three hundred and eighty five students exhibited good mental health scoring wide rang of scores from 153 to 215 on all the six dimension of mental health.

Kinnier etal (1994) studied adolescents substance abuse and psychological health aged (12 to 18) years and found that the relationship
between substance abuse and psychological health was linear. Increasing drug use was associated with an increase in self steam and a deterioration of purpose in life.

Saha (1988) studied the mental health of school going children and its relationship with their socio-economic status and he found that better socio-economic condition & facilitated better mental health condition and the boys showed significantly better condition in mental health then the girls.

Sarkar (1885) found significant relationship between mental health and variable intelligence and various dimension of creativity viz. further fluency, flexibility and originality among rural school going adolescents.

The present study was undertaken to investigate certain components of mental health status among rural and urban students from the point of identifying students, who have potential for future development of mental health problems. The school is considered second to the home in its influence on the development of children’s personality. The sample of study comprised 400 high school going children, out of which 200 were boys and 200 were girls. Their socio-economic status was taken into consideration. The results revealed no difference between urban and rural students, with regard to their mental health status. Boys and girls in the sample slightly differed from each other with regard to their mental health status, where as the socio-economic status did not contribute to their mental health status.

Charli and Zahoor (2008) conducted a study to assess mental health of male and female youths. The sample consisted of (N=100) respondents, 50 male and 50 female. The age of respondents ranged
between 18-26 years. Mental health of respondents was measured with the help of a well standardized mental health inventory, consisting of 56 items developed by Jagdish and Srivastava (1983). The analysis of data was done with the help of t-test. Statistical analysis reveals significant difference between means of two groups on mental health scale. The findings are of immense significance.

Previous studies (e.g. Elkind & Bowen, 1979) have generally found that adolescents egocentrism is more prevalent in females and that it increases during early adolescence, peaks at about 14 to 16 years of age and then decreases during later adolescence.

A study by Peterson and Roscoe (1991) found egocentrism in female college freshman to be at a level higher than is typically found in same high school students. This result is somewhat surprising, given the expectation that adolescent egocentrism should have been declining.

Adolescents who experienced high psychological control reported greater psychological problems or poor mental health. A fundamental purpose of this study was to demonstrate that deficiencies in these two areas of socialization lead to different outcomes in adolescents. Moreover, over behaviour restriction was also associated with adolescent's internalizing problems, both internal and external. Inadequate control had crippling effect on the development of psychological autonomy or individual identity partly because they failed to learn to be aware of or to express, personal initiative or self-reliance (White, 1989), and partly because they had learnt that they had little control in their interactions with others, particularly parents (Seligman & Peterson, 1986).