CHAPTER - II\textsuperscript{nd}

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Every research work is a step towards acquiring new knowledge and this knowledge is always based on previously gained knowledge. Hence, it should take into account all the relevant information, thinking and researches that have preceded it. A researcher ought to be well acquainted with the previous researches related to his/her area of investigation. Review of literature helps to develop the researcher, an insight of the problem to be investigated, to get information of what others have done in the related field, and
what remains to be done. Keeping this in mind, the investigator has made an attempt for a comprehensive review of related studies in the field of emotional intelligence.

Rosenthal (1977) has found that people who were best at identifying other’s emotions were more successful in their work as well as in their social lives.

Boyatzis (1982) reported that accurate self-assessment is the hallmark of superior performance.

Hunter and Hunter (1984) reported that I.Q. by itself is not a very good predictor of job performance and estimated that at best I.Q. accounts to about 25 percent of variance.

Spencer and Spencer (1993) found that the ability to read others' needs will come naturally to the best managers of product development teams.

Burke & Greenglass (1995) conducted a longitudinal study of a process model of psychological burnout proposed by Cherniss; Professional Burnout in Human Service Organizations (1980). In this model, work setting characteristics and individual difference variables have both direct effects on burnout and indirect effects on burnout through levels of experienced stress. Data were collected at two points in time separated by one year using questionnaires.
Respondents were 362 school-based educators. Considerable support for the Cherniss model was found using path analysis.

Feist and Barron (1996) had done a longitudinal study on American men and women of science to see the success in their own fields based on resumes, evaluations by experts and found that social and emotional abilities were four times more important than I.Q. in determining professional success and prestige.

Pool (1997) reported that emotional well-being is a predictor of success in any job.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) reported that occupations that require emotional intelligence include social work, teaching and organisational leadership. Emotional intelligence also predicts positive relationships and work histories.

McClelland (1998) has showed that a wide range of emotional intelligence competencies distinguished top performers from average ones. Those that distinguished most powerfully were achievement drive, developing others, adaptability, influence, self-confidence and leadership.

Walker & Quinn (1999) investigated relationship between sensation seeking behaviour, life satisfaction, emotional intelligence and depression by employing 25 participants (students) of North-east Ohio University.
Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist (Lubin & Zuckerman 1965). Quality of Life Inventory and Emotional Intelligence Scale (Mayer - Salovey - Caruso) were administered. This study found association among sensation seeking, depression, emotional intelligence and level of life satisfaction in college students.

George (2000) has found that people with above average level of emotional intelligence are usually above average in their ability to cope with stress which is very important for generating and maintaining enthusiasm, confidence and cooperation in the workplace. And also stress is an inevitable part of workplace but the people are more optimistic and trusting if they work around or for individuals who know how to cope under pressure.

Tucker, Sojka, Barone and McCarthy (2000) found that EQ training programme with the help of an instructor is essential for improvement as well as for assuring the success of any teaching and learning activity.

Parker, Taylor & Bagby (2000) investigated the empirical association between the apparently similar constructs of emotional intelligence and alexithymia was examined using latent variable analysis in a large community sample of adults (N=734). The Twenty-Item Toronto Alexithymia Scale examined using latent variable analysis in a large community sample of adults
The Twenty-Item Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20) and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) were used to assess alexithymia and emotional intelligence. Results revealed that although the constructs are independent, they overlap considerably and are strongly and inversely related.

Ciarrochi, Chan & Bajgar (2001) found that EI was higher for females than males and was positively associated with skill at identifying emotional expressions, amount of social support, extent of satisfaction with social support and mood management behaviour.

Pettit, Laird, Dodge, Bates & Criss (2001) collected parenting data during home visit interviews with 440 mothers and their 13 year old children and assessed their behaviour problems i.e. anxiety/depression and delinquent behaviour. Results indicate that high levels of psychological control were associated with more delinquent problems for girls and for teens who were low in preadolescent delinquent problems, and with more anxiety in depression for girls and for teens who were high preadolescent anxiety/depression.

Trimidad & Johnson (2001) conducted a study to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and adolescent tobacco and alcohol use (TAU). Subjects were 205 multi-ethnic adolescents (52% male) from middle schools in Southern California (mean age=12.63 years), 153 from a public school and 52 from a parochial school. An abbreviated
version of the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale, Student Version [Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P. & Caruso, D.R. (1997) was used to assess the EI of the students. EI was negatively correlated with a general, overall measure of tobacco and alcohol use, and with individual tobacco and alcohol scales and items. It is plausible that the adolescents with high EI may possess a greater mental ability to read others well and detect unwanted peer pressure. These abilities may have led to an increased resistance to TAU, thus explaining the negative correlations found in this study.

Taylor (2001) stated that the high emotionally intelligent people have skills that help them towards success in various spheres of help both at work and in achieving a balance of work and family. They do not have one side priority of work and hence do not show extreme value of work motivation.

Derksen, Kramer & Katzko (2002), in his research paper, one of the theoretical claims made regarding the concept of emotional intelligence is that at concerns a range of human abilities which are independent of the more familiar concept of intellectual ability. This study was conducted to evaluate the divergent validity of Bar-On's EQ-i as compared to the General Adult Mental Ability Scale (GAMA), a measure of fluid intelligence. In a Dutch subject sample (n=873), results indicated that the correlations between the EQ-i and the GAMA were very low, for both the total sample as well as for the sexes separately. These findings indicate that the two tests are psychometrically independent,
in that the EQ-i is measuring something other than the GAMA. There were also some small age-related changes in the correlations between the EQ-i and GAMA. These results replicate and elaborate those reported by Bar-On (Bar-on, R. (1977). *Bar On Emotional Quotient Inventory: technical manual*. Toronto: Multi Health Systems).

Hastings & Brown (2002) identified some challenging behaviour as a source of staff stress, few researchers have directly addressed this relationship. In the present study, 55 teachers and support staff in special schools for children with mental retardation completed questionnaire assessing burnout, coping strategies for challenging behavior, and their exposure to challenging behavior. Results showed that (a) use of maladaptive coping strategies for challenging behaviour constitutes a risk for staff burnout, (b) this risk is in addition to that associated with exposure to challenging behavior, and (c) use of maladaptive coping strategies moderated the impact of exposure to challenging behaviors on emotional exhaustion burnout. Implications for future research and for the support of staff working with individuals who have challenging behaviors are discussed.

Olafson & Ferra (2002) investigated the effect of emotional state on lexical processing was investigated. Subjects were randomly assigned to either a happy or sad mood condition. Emotional state was then induced by listening to 8 min of classical music previously rated to induce happy or sad moods. Response times and error rates were analyzed in a lexical decision task involving sad words,
happy words, and pseudowords. Results suggest that emotion aided the participants in responding to emotion-congruent stimuli. The sad group responded faster than the happy group to sad words and the happy group responded faster than the sad group to happy words.

Ciarrochi, Deane & Anderson (2002) conducted a cross-sectional study to investigate the EI as moderator of relationship between stress and mental health by employing 302 university students. This study involved measuring life stress, objective self-reported emotional intelligence, and mental health. Regression analyses revealed that stress was associated with: (i) greater reported depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation among people high in emotional perception compared to others; and (ii) greater suicidal ideation among those low in managing others’ emotions.

Gohm, Baumann & Sniezek (2002) investigated the role of emotional experience and understanding in acute stress situations, the relations between three individual difference variables (clarity, attention, and intensity) and cognitive difficulties under acute stress were examined. Fifty-nine firefighter trainees completed personality measures several weeks before engaging in a series of four live-fire exercises. Individuals who were typically clear about their emotions (high clarity) reported fewer instances of cognitive difficulties, such as "blanking out" and being unable to think clearly during the exercises. Emotional intensity and attention to emotion were unrelated to reports of these symptoms.
Singh (2003) has studied the emotional intelligence and adjustment of teachers working in different levels of education. Sample for the study consisted of 300 teachers selected from 17 institutions of Agra City. Teachers Adjustment Inventory (Rashi Ojha) and EI Scale (Anukool Hyde and Upender Dhar) was used as tools for the study. He found that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and adjustment. Teacher working in higher educational institution have better emotional intelligence and adjustment in comparison to the teachers in secondary and primary schools.

Trinidad, Unger, Chon & Johnson (2003) opine that previous research has explored the direct association between emotional intelligence (EI) and adolescent smoking, however its relation to psychosocial smoking risk factors has yet to be determined. EI is defined as the ability to: accurately perceive, appraise, and express emotion; access and/or generate feelings in facilitating thought; understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and regulate emotions. EI was assessed with a shortened version of the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale, Adolescent Version, and was administered to 416 6th graders (53% girls) from middle schools in the Los Angeles area (mean age =11.3 years; 32% Hispanic/Latino, 29% Asian/Pacific Islander, 13% White, 19% Multiethnic, 6% Other). Results indicate that high EI is a protective factor for smoking risk factors in adolescents. Linear regression models revealed that high EI was associated with greater perceptions of the negative social
consequences of smoking (P<0.001) and with being more efficacious in refusing cigarette offers (P<0.001). Logistic regression models revealed that high EI was associated with a lower likelihood of intending to smoke in the next year (OR=0.96, 95% C.I. : 0.92-0.99). Those with high EI may be better able to benefit from social influences-based prevention programs and, as adolescent smoking prevention programs evolve, taking EI into account may lead to increased effectiveness.

Hunt & Evans (2003) investigated whether emotional intelligence (EI) can predict how individuals respond to traumatic experiences. A random sample of 414 participants (181 male, 233 female) were administered a measure of EI along with the Impact of Event Scale - revised [IES-R; Weiss, D.S. & Marmar, C.R. (1997). The Impact of Events Scale - revised. In J.P. Wilson & T.M. Keane (Eds.), Assessing psychological trauma and PTSD (pp. 399-411). New York : Guilford Press], and the monitoring and blunting questionnaire [MBQ, Anxiety Stress Coping 7 (1994) 53]. The results showed that participants with higher NEIS scores report fewer psychological symptoms relating to their traumatic experiences, that monitors are more likely to have higher NEIS scores than bluters. Traumatic events had a greater impact on females than males, and males had higher EI than females.
Perry, Ball and Stacey (2004) have studied about a measure of emotional intelligence that relates directly to the work of teachers in schools and the levels of emotional intelligence held by teachers at the beginning of their career. The present measure was planned to refer to aspects of teaching normally experienced by teachers and in the context of particular situations where emotional intelligence might be presumed to operate. 357 students undertaking the second year of a four year teacher education course were taken as sample. Drawing on the four branch model of emotional intelligence (identifying emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions) a framework, a series of ten teaching situations were presented before the student-teachers. Each of the item were rated on five point Likert Scale. The situations for the measure were typical of those that could be expected as part of the practice of teaching. Categorical finding based on gender, faculty, age-group and teaching focus shows that: (i) a strong and significant gender difference exists on emotional intelligence reactions, (ii) emotional intelligence is directly related to the understanding of teaching motivation and self directed learning of student-teachers.

Dougles, Ceasor, Frink, Duright, Ferris and Gerold (2004) says that the results of hierarchical moderate regression analysis supported the hypothesis by demonstrating that the relationship between conscientiousness
and work performance is positive for individual's high (versus low) in emotional intelligence.

Duran-Extremra and Rey (2004) examined the relationships among dimensions of self-reported emotional intelligence, engagement and burnout and found that emotional functioning and work-related variables in a professional sample were significantly related.

Austin, Saklofske & Egan (2004) assessed the emotional intelligence personality, alexithymia, life satisfaction, social support and health status of 500 Canadian and 204 Scottish respondents. EI was found to be negatively associated with alexithymia and alcohol consumption and positively associated with life satisfaction and social/network size and quality. The result of these analyses shows that EI is more strongly associated than with personality with social network, size, but social network quality, life satisfaction, alcohol consumption, number of doctor consultations and health status are more strongly related to personality.

In the study of Warwick & Nettlebeck (2004), eighty-four tertiary students completed questionnaires measuring emotional intelligence (EI), personality, affiliation, abstract reasoning ability, emotional knowledge, and task orientation. Among personality variables, extraversion and agreeableness correlated moderately with total Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS) \( p<0.01 \), and weakly \( p<0.05 \) with openness, conscientiousness and neuroticism. TMMS
was also correlated with emotional knowledge \( (p<0.01) \) but not with abstract reasoning or interest in affiliation. Results from the same sample with the Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) revealed inconsistencies between the two EI scales. Thus, openness, extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism and interest in affiliation were not significantly related to the MSCEIT. Results also found that EI as estimated by the TMMS, but not the MSCEIT, was correlated with task orientation \( (p<0.01) \); but this effect disappeared when personality was controlled for. Taken as a whole, the differential performance of the TMMS and MSCEIT supports a proposal for two distinct types of EI: trait EI and ability EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

Priyadarshini (2005) has studied emotional intelligence among the academic professionals from different departments of technical institutions and found that there is a significant difference in the perception of male and female staff members with respect to their perception towards the components of emotional intelligence such as emotional sensitivity, emotional maturity and emotional competence. Majority of the staff members have got moderate emotional intelligence. Males and females are having moderate EQ though females were higher on emotional intelligence than men. It has been also found that there is significant difference between emotional intelligence with respect to educational level and emotional intelligence increases with increase in
the span of experience and experience is found to be the most important factor of emotional intelligence.

Landy (2005) has found that emotional intelligence, as a concept related to occupational success exist outside the typical scientific domain.

Gabel, Dolan & Cardin (2005) investigated emotional intelligence as a predictor of cultural adjustment for success in global assignments. The approach posits the construct of emotional intelligence as a critical predictor for inter-cultural adjustment, thereby leading to success. Analysis is based on cross-sectional data of 67 cases (based on questionnaire) and on 39 cases with rectangular data where both supervisory input and questionnaires were used. A significant correlation was found between the interpersonal emotional component and scientific performance.

Jamal (2005) examined the relationship of job stress with overall burnout and its three dimensions (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lack of accomplishment) and health problems among employees in Canada (N=535) and the People's Republic of China (N=685). Data were collected by means of a structured questionnaire from Canadian employees in Montreal and Chinese employees in Beijing. Pearson correlation and moderated multiple regressions were used to analyze the data. Job stressors such as work overload, ambiguity, conflict and resource inadequacy, were
significantly related to many dependent variables in both countries. Moderated multiple regressions only marginally supported the role of gender as a moderator of stressor-burnout relationship.

Gohm, Croser & Daesky (2005) investigated among 158 freshmen examined the association between emotional intelligence (emotion-relevant abilities) and stress (feelings of inability to control life events), considering personality (self-perception of the meta-emotion traits of clarity, intensity, and attention) as a moderating variable. Results suggest that emotional intelligence is potentially helpful in reducing stress for some individuals, but unnecessary or irrelevant for others.

Gannon & Ranzin (2005) hypothesized that EI would explain unique variance in life satisfaction beyond that predicted by personality IQ and control variables. A community sample (N = 191) aged 18-79 years (M = 35.94, SD = 14.17) was recruited. Because IQ showed no bivariate relationship with life satisfaction, IQ was not used in further analyses. It was concluded that EI predicted some unique variance in life satisfaction and that there was substantial conceptual overlap between EI and personality.

Lyons & Schider (2005) opine that emotional intelligence (EI; the ability to perceive, integrate and understand emotions) may influence appraisals of stressful tasks and subsequent task performance. This study examined the relationship of ability-based EI facets with performance under stress. We expected high levels of EI would promote challenge appraisals and
better performance, whereas low EI levels would foster threat appraisals and worse performance. Undergraduates (N=126) performed mental math and videotaped speech tasks. Certain dimensions of EI were related to more challenge and enhanced performance. Some EI dimensions were related to performance after dimensions of EI were related to more challenge and enhanced performance. Some EI dimensions were related to performance after dimensions of EI were related to more challenge and enhanced performance. Some EI dimensions were related to performance after dimensions of EI were related to more challenge and enhanced performance. Some EI dimensions were related to performance after controlling for cognitive ability, demonstrating incremental validity. This pattern of findings differed somewhat for males and females.

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Nikolaou (2005) investigated the relationship of emotional intelligence (EI) characteristics, such as perception, control, use and understanding of emotions, with physical and psychological health. In the first
study, 365 individuals filled in measures of emotional intelligence and general health. It was hypothesized that EI would be negatively associated with poor general health. In the second study, 212 working adults completed the same measure of emotional intelligence and another measure, which apart from the standard information regarding psychical and psychological health, provided also information about other health related behaviours, such as smoking, drinking, and exercising. It was also hypothesized that EI would negatively correlate with smoking and drinking and positively correlate with exercising. The findings confirmed both hypotheses and provided further support on the claims that there is a relationship between EI and health functioning.

Mishra (2006) has studied the teaching work motivation among emotionally intelligent student-teachers. 64 student teachers were taken as a sample and Test of Emotional Intelligence (Student-Teacher Form) and Teaching Work Motivation Inventory, both prepared by K.S. Misra were administered. He found that as compared to high emotionally intelligent student-teachers, less emotionally intelligent student-teachers have less teaching work motivation. For highly emotionally intelligent student-teachers emotional intelligence was found to be positively related to teaching work motivation. But for less emotionally intelligent student-teachers the relationship was not significant.

Extrema & Fernandez-Berrocal (2006) examined the association between EI, anxiety, depression and mental, social and physical health in university
students. The sample was made up of 184 university students. EI was evaluated by the Trait-Meta Mood Scale (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey & Palfai 1995) which evaluates the three dimensions - Attention, Clarity and Mood Repair. Results showed that high Emotional Attention was positively and significantly related to high anxiety, depression, and to low levels of Role Emotional, Social Functioning, and Mental Health. However, High levels of Emotional Clarity and Mood Repair were related to low levels of anxiety and depression, high Role Physical, Social Functioning, Mental Health, Utility and General Health.

Parker et al. (2006) had studied the emotional intelligence of 464 Principals or Vice- Principals from the elementary and secondary schools and found that women scored higher than men on the inter-personal dimension of emotional intelligence. Also task-oriented Principals are found to have impulse control, self-awareness, assertiveness, self-actualization, empathy, social responsibility, interpersonal relations, adaptability, problem solving, independence, stress tolerance, optimism and happiness. Gender, inter-personal, intra-personal relations and adaptability were found to be the predictor of task oriented Principals and Vice-Principals.

Mestre, Guil, Lopes, Salovey and Gil-Olrate (2006) employed a sample of 127 Spanish adolescents, the ability to understand and manage emotions,
assessed by performance measure of emotional intelligence (the MSCEIT), correlated positively with teacher ratings of academic achievement and adoption for both males and females. Among girls, these emotional abilities also correlated positively with peer friendship nominations. Results indicate that emotional abilities are associated with indicators of social and academic adaptation to school.

Kulshrestha & Sen (2006) investigated the subjective well being in relation to emotional intelligence and locus of control among executives by employing 150 executives of different job state of Hero Honda Motor Ltd. The Chadda's (2001) Emotional Adjustment Quotient Test, Rotter's (1966) Social Reactive Inventory, Bradburn's (1969) Positive and Negative Affect Scale and Andrews and Whitey's (1976) Life Satisfaction Scale were used to collect the data. The results of the study reveal that emotional intelligence and locus of control have significant correlation with subjective well being. Subjects with high emotional intelligence and internal locus of control scored significantly high on positive affect and scored significantly low on negative affect. Similarly, subjects scored high on emotional intelligence and locus of control scored significantly high on all the three dimensions of Life Satisfaction Scale.

Eacka, Hogastya, Greenwalda, Hogartya & Keshvanab (2006) explored the preliminary effects of Cognitive Enhancement Therapy (CET) on social cognition in early course schizophrenics employing an objective, performance-based measure of emotional intelligence. Individuals in the early
course of schizophrenia were randomly assigned to either CET (n=18) or Enriched Supportive Therapy (n=20), and assessed at baseline and after 1 year of treatment with the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test. A series of analyses of covariance showed highly significant (p=.005) and large (Cohen's d=.96) effects favouring CET for improving emotional intelligence, with the most pronounced improvements occurring in patients' ability to understand and manage their own and others' emotions.

Parker, Hogan, Eastbook, Oke & Wood (2006) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic retention. Participants were selected from a sample of 1270 young adults (368 men and 902 women) making the transition from high-school to university. Participants were recruited during the first week of classes in their first year at the university and completed a measure of emotional intelligence. Participants' academic progress was tracked over the course of the year and students were divided into two groups. The first group consisted of students who withdrew from the university before their second year of study (N = 213); the second group consisted of a matched sample (on the basis of age, gender and ethnicity) of students who remained at the university for a second year of study (N = 213). Results revealed that students who persisted in their studies were significantly higher than those who withdrew on a broad range of emotional and social competencies.
Bindu & Thomas (2006) investigated the nature and extent of the relationships that exist among two cognitive variables, viz., intelligence and creativity, and two non-cognitive variables, viz., emotional intelligence and maladjustment among a sample of young adults (n=90). The results revealed that the two gender groups differed significantly in the mean scores on the variables and also in their inter-correlations. Maladjustment was identified as the most important predictor of all the other variables, in the case of the male sample. Emotional intelligence played a significant role in determining overall creativity and maladjustment in the female sample. The relationship between intelligence and creativity was found to be stronger in the female group than in the male group.

Sillick & Schulte (2006) examined the extent to which perceived parental love is associated with happiness levels in adulthood and investigated whether emotional intelligence and self-esteem mediate this relationship. In a sample 88 Australian adults, with a mean age of 41.55, S.D.=12.78 perceived parental and self-esteem were related to both perceived parental love and happiness was mediated by emotional intelligence and self-esteem. When perceived maternal and parental love were examined separately, maternal love was positively associated with adult happiness with mediation through higher emotional intelligence and self-esteem. While early parental love had a direct association with adult happiness, there was no mediating effect of self-esteem or emotional intelligence. Also only maternal love made a unique contribution
to predicting adult happiness, suggesting that perceived love received from a mother during childhood may be particularly important to the development of happiness.

Monroe (2007) using an analysis of variance technique, investigated the effect of the following 3 variables on intra-individual variability scores on the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale: intelligence level, adjustment type, and geographical locality. Conclusions were: (1) Kansas sample of subjects seemed to be more variable than an Indiana sample, (2) interaction seemed to exist between the adjustment and intelligence variables as influences of Bellevue scatter, (3) extreme scatter on the scale was characteristic only of those schizophrenics with low intelligence.

Mohanty & Devil (2007) assessed the emotional intelligence levels of adolescents in different attachment styles. The sample comprised in the age range of 15-17 years from twin cities Hyderabad and Secunderabad. Attachment Scale by Hazen & Shaver (1987) was used to find out their perception of different attachment styles and Emotional Intelligence Inventory (2003) was used to find out the emotional intelligence levels of adolescents. Results revealed that adolescents of secure attachment styles are more emotionally intelligent than that of the adolescents of anxious-ambivalent and avoidant attachment styles.
Sridhar & Badiei (2007) examined the level of teacher efficacy and emotional intelligence of primary school teachers in relation to gender age and educational levels by employing 100 primary school teachers of Mysore south. The study sample responded to two valid and reliable inventory instruments - Teacher Efficacy Scale and Emotional Intelligence Test. There is no significant difference between the means of TE and EQ with reference to two independent variables which are considered in this study - gender and educational level. In the respect of the third independent variable (age) a significant difference has been observed.

Gallagher & Vella - Brodrick (2008) examined the predictive value of social support (SS) and emotional intelligence (EI), and their interaction effects, on subjective well-being (SWB) beyond variance already explained by personality and socio-demographic variables. Participants were 267 adults (196 female) who anonymously completed measures of satisfaction with life, positive and negative affect, social support, emotional intelligence, personality and social desirability. Exploratory hierarchical multiple regression analyses showed that SS and EI, and their interaction effects, significantly predicted SWB, and explained 44%, 50% and 50% of the variance in SWL, positive affect (PA), and negative affect (NA) respectively. At step-two SS predicted NA and SWL, at step-three EI predicted PA and SWL, and at step-four one interaction effect was significant (SS : Significant Other × EI for PA). This study elucidates the predictive value of SS, EI
and their interaction on SWB, and provides the first published insight into a possible conditional relationship between SS and SWB with regard to EI, suggesting that SS may not always be necessary for SWB.

The study of Ravindranadan & Raju (2008) intended to examine the emotional intelligence and quality of life of parents of children with special needs. The study was conducted on a sample of 200 parents, of which 100 are parents of children with special needs and 100 matched parents of normal children. The five selected categories of special needs are ADHD, Autistic disorder, Down syndrome, Mental Retardation and Learning Disabilities. The tools used for the study are Emotional Intelligence Scale and Quality of Life Scale. The results reveal that parents of children with special needs are significantly different from the parents of normal children on the study variables irrespective of the category to which the child belongs. It is also interesting to know that the condition of the child affects both the parents equally.

Tiwari & Verma (2008) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and coping strategies. Three hundred adolescents (150 boys and 150 girls) from various educational institutes were assessed on their emotional intelligence and coping strategies using the Emotional Intelligence Scale (Hyde and Pethe, 2002) and the Ways of Coping with Stress Questionnaire developed by Singh (2000) based on Lazarus and Folkman (1984) model. Results revealed that emotional intelligence was positively correlated with appraisal of
situation to be changed and problem-solving coping in male and female adolescents and appraising the situation controllable was related with emotional intelligence only in male adolescents. Threatened, lost, aggressive efforts and self-criticism were negatively correlated with emotional intelligence in male as well as in female adolescents. Sex difference was observed significant regarding the appraisal of situations as threatening females appraised the situation more threatening as compared to male respondents.

Upadhyaya (2008) conducted a study emotional intelligence among student-teachers in relation to academic anxiety, personality traits and teaching motivation. The sample consisted of 513 student-teachers from seven institutions of Allahabad and Varanasi city.

The findings of present study are as follows:

01- Male and female student-teachers do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

02- Student-teachers of arts and science streams do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

03- Student-teachers of general, OBC and SC categories do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

04- As compared to male student-teachers with low academic anxiety, male student-teachers with moderate or high academic anxiety have more emotional intelligence.
05- As compared to male student-teachers with moderate academic anxiety, male student-teachers with high academic anxiety have more emotional intelligence.

06- Female student-teachers with low, moderate and high level of academic anxiety do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

07- As compared to male student-teachers with low teaching motivation, male student-teachers with moderate and high teaching motivation have more emotional intelligence.

08- Male student-teachers with moderate and high level of teaching motivation do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

09- As compared to female student-teachers with low teaching motivation, female student-teachers with moderate and high teaching motivation have more emotional intelligence.

10- As compared to female student-teachers with moderate teaching motivation, female student-teachers with high teaching motivation have more emotional intelligence.

11- Male student-teachers belonging to low, moderate and high groups on Personality factors - A, B, C, E, F, H, I, L, M, M and Q, do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.
12- Male student-teachers belonging to low and moderate groups on Personality factors - 'Expedient vs. Conscientious' and 'Placid vs. Apprehensive' do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

13- Male student-teachers belonging to high and moderate groups on Personality factors - 'Expedient vs. Conscientious', 'Group-Dependent vs. Self-Sufficient', 'Undisciplined self-Conflict vs. Controlled' and 'Relaxed vs. Tense' do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

14- Male student-teachers with high scores on Personality factor - 'Expedient vs. Conscientious' have more emotional intelligence than their counterparts having low scores on this personality Factor.

15- Male student-teachers with high scores on Personality factor - 'Placid vs. Apprehensive' have less emotional intelligence than their counterparts with low or moderate scores on this personality Factor.

16- As compared to male student-teachers with low scores on Personality factor - 'Group-Dependent vs. Self-Sufficient', male student-teachers with moderate or high scores on this personality Factor have less emotional intelligence.
17- As compared to male student-teachers with low scores on Personality factor - 'Undisciplined Self-Conflict vs. Controlled', male student-teachers with moderate or high scores on this personality Factor have more emotional intelligence.

18- As compared to male student-teachers with low scores on Personality factor - Q₄, male student-teachers with moderate or high scores on this personality Factor have less emotional intelligence.

19- Female student-teachers with low, moderate and high scores on Personality factors - A, E, F, H, I, L, M, N, Q₁ and Q₂ do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

20- Female student-teachers with low and moderate scores on Personality factor - B i.e. 'Less intelligent vs. More intelligent' do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

21- Female student-teachers with high and moderate scores on Personality factors - B, C, G, and Q₃ i.e. 'Less intelligent vs. More intelligent, Affected by feelings vs. Emotionally stable, Expedient vs. Conscientious, Undisciplined self-Conflict vs. Controlled' do not differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

22- As compared to female student-teachers with low scores on Personality factor - B i.e. 'Less Intelligent vs. More intelligent', female
student-teachers with high scores on personality factor B have more emotional intelligence.

23- As compared to female student-teachers with low scores on Personality factor - C i.e. 'Affected by Feelings vs. Emotionally stable', female student-teachers with moderate or high scores on this personality Factor have more emotional intelligence.

24- As compared to female student-teachers with low scores on Personality factor - G i.e. 'Expedient vs. Conscientious', female student-teachers with moderate or high scores on this Personality factor have more emotional intelligence.

25- As compared to female student-teachers with low scores on Personality factor - O i.e. 'Placid vs. Apprehensive', female student-teachers with moderate or high scores on this Personality factor have less emotional intelligence.

26- As compared to female student-teachers with moderate scores on Personality factor - O i.e. 'Placid vs. Apprehensive', female student-teachers with high scores on this Personality factor have less emotional intelligence.

27- As compared to female student-teachers with low scores on Personality factor - Q\textsubscript{3} i.e. 'Undisciplined self-Conflict vs. Controlled', female student-teachers with moderate or high scores on this Personality factor have more emotional intelligence.
28- As compared to female student-teachers with low scores on Personality factor - Q$_4$ i.e. 'Relaxed vs. Tense', female student-teachers with moderate or high scores on this Personality factor have less emotional intelligence.

29- Emotional intelligence among student-teachers is negatively related to academic anxiety.

30- Emotional intelligence among male, arts and OBC student-teachers is negatively related to teaching motivation.

31- Emotional intelligence among female, science, general and SC student-teachers is positively related to teaching motivation.

32- Emotional intelligence among student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - A i.e. 'Reserved vs. Outgoing'.

33- Emotional intelligence among male, female, arts, science, general and OBC student-teachers is positively related to Personality factor - B i.e. 'Less intelligent vs. More intelligent'.

34- Emotional intelligence among science and scheduled caste student-teachers is not related to Personality factor B i.e. 'Less intelligent vs. More intelligent'. 
35- Emotional intelligence among female, science and general student-teachers is positively related to Personality factor - C i.e. 'Affected by feeling vs. Emotionally stable'.

36- Emotional intelligence among male, arts, OBC and SC student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - C i.e. 'Affected by feeling vs. Emotionally stable'.

37- Emotional intelligence among student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - E i.e. 'Humble vs. Assertive'.

38- Emotional intelligence among student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - F i.e. 'Sober vs. Happy-Go-Lucky'.

39- Emotional intelligence among male, female, arts, science, general and OBC student-teachers is positively related to Personality factor - G i.e. 'Expedient' vs. Conscientious'.

40- Emotional intelligence among scheduled caste student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - G i.e. 'Expedient vs. Conscientious'.

41- Emotional intelligence among female, science, general and SC student-teachers is positively related to Personality factor - H i.e. 'Shy vs. Venturesome'.

42- Emotional intelligence among male, arts and OBC student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - H.

43- Emotional intelligence among student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - I i.e. 'Tough-Minded vs. Tender-Minded'.

44- Emotional intelligence among student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - L i.e. 'Trusting vs. Suspicious'.

45- Emotional intelligence among male, arts and OBC student-teachers is negatively related to Personality factor - M i.e. Practical vs. Imaginative'.

46- Emotional intelligence among female, science and general category student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - M.

47- Emotional intelligence among student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - N i.e. 'Forthright vs. Shrewd'.

48- Emotional intelligence among student-teachers is negatively related to Personality factor - O i.e. 'Placid vs. Apprehensive'.

49- Emotional intelligence among OBC category student-teachers is negatively related to Personality factor - Q i.e. 'Conservative vs. Experimenting'.
50- Emotional intelligence among male, female, arts, science, general and SC student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - Q₁, i.e. 'Conservative vs. Experimenting'.

51- Emotional intelligence among science and general category student-teachers is negatively related to Personality factor - Q₂ i.e. 'Group-Dependent vs. Self-Sufficient'.

52- Emotional intelligence among male, female, arts, OBC and SC student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - Q₂ i.e. 'Group-Dependent vs. Self-Sufficient'.

53- Emotional intelligence among female, science, general and SC student-teachers is positively related to Personality factor - Q₃ i.e. 'Undisciplined self-Conflict vs. Controlled'.

54- Emotional intelligence among male, arts and OBC student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - Q₃ i.e. 'Undisciplined Self-Conflict vs. Controlled'.

55- Emotional intelligence among male, female, arts, science, general and SC student-teachers is negatively related to Personality factor - Q₄ i.e. 'Relaxed vs. Tense'.

56- Emotional intelligence among OBC student-teachers is not related to Personality factor - Q₄.
57- Among male student-teachers, academic anxiety and Personality factors viz. $Q_2$ i.e. 'Group-Dependent vs. Self-Sufficient' and $Q_3$ i.e. 'Undisciplined Self-Conflict vs. Controlled' are the best predictors of emotional intelligence.

58- Among female student-teachers, teaching motivation and Personality factors viz. $F$ i.e. 'Sober vs. Happy-Go-Lucky', $G$ i.e. 'Expedient vs. Conscientious' and $Q_4$ i.e. 'Relaxed vs. Tense' are the best predictors of emotional intelligence.

59- Among student-teachers of arts stream, academic anxiety, teaching motivation and Personality Factors viz. $I$ i.e. 'Tought-Minded vs. Tender-Minded' and $O$ i.e. 'Placid vs. Apprehensive' are the best predictors of emotional intelligence.

60- Among student-teachers of science stream, teaching motivation and Personality factors viz. $G$ i.e. 'Expedient vs. Conscientious', $Q_2$ i.e. 'Group dependent vs. Self-Sufficient' and $Q_4$ i.e. 'Relaxed vs. Tense' are the best predictors of emotional intelligence.

61- Among student-teachers of general category, academic anxiety, teaching motivation and Personality Factors viz. $G$ i.e. 'Expedient
vs. Conscientious', and \( Q_4 \) i.e. 'Relaxed vs. Tense' are the best predictors of emotional intelligence.

62- Among student-teachers of OBC category, academic anxiety, teaching motivation and Personality factor - \( F \) i.e. 'Sober vs. Happy-Go-Lucky' are the best predictors of emotional intelligence.

63- Among student-teachers of SC category, teaching motivation and Personality Factors viz. \( L \) i.e. 'Trusting vs. Suspicious' and \( O \) i.e. 'Placid vs. Apprehensive' are the best predictors of emotional intelligence.

Malterer, Glass & Newman (2008) explored the association between psychopathy and EI, as measured by the Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCL-R) and Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS). Consistent with the Response Modulation (RM) model of psychopathy low-anxious psychopathic individuals had significantly lower scores on TMMS Repair and Attention compared to controls. Consistent with proposals by Gohm et.al. (2005) regarding PCL-R factors, these EI deficits related to different aspects of the psychopathy construct. Correlations revealed significant inverse associations between PCL-R factor I and Attention and PCL-R factor 2 and Repair. They proposed that the multi-
dimensional EI framework affords a complementary perspective on laboratory-based explanations of psychopathy.

Suresh & Joshith (2008) found a significant negative relationship between emotional intelligence and stress for the total sample and subsamples, and conclude that individual having high EI may have low stress and this will directly contribute to the positive development of the individual. The results obtained for EI in respect of aided, unaided and govt. training colleges revealed that the type of management of the college doesn't matter in the emotional intelligence of student teachers.

Singh, Singh & Singh (2009) conducted a study to compare the score of emotional adjustment between alcohol dependent and normal control group and find out relationship between emotional intelligence and adjustment in alcohol dependent patients. 30 alcohol dependent patients diagnosed as per ICD-10 DCR of male sex, within the age range of 18-50 years and educated upto 10th class, were taken as experimental group. Socio-demographic and clinical Data sheet, Severity of Alcohol Dependence Questionnaire (Edwards & Gross 1976), General Health Questionaire (Sunder et al. 1986), Baron Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On. Rewen 2004) & Mohsin - Shamshad Bell Ajustment Inventory were used. Result of the present study shows but two groups differed significantly on total Emotional Intelligence Scale, particularly in Adaptability Composite
Factor and Stress Management Composite Factor on Emotional Intelligence Scale.

Hayat, Bangash & Khan (2009) investigated EI among male and female respondents employing 160 (80 male and 80 female) respondents. EQ-i was used to find out the level of EI. Results reveal that males have high EI as compared to females.

Chaubey, Singh & Pandey (2009) examined the role of emotional intelligence (EI) in predicting stress and health. The moderating role of EI in stress-health relationship was also examined. A heterogeneous sample of 209 adults belonging to different occupational groups in the age range of 21 to 50 years were assessed on the self report measures of EI, psychosocial stress, and physical and mental health. The findings revealed that emotional intelligence and its various component abilities, in general, are associated with better health outcomes. Similarly, the findings also revealed that EI is associated with lower levels of stress. However, among the four dimensions of EI examined in the present research, the ability to manage emotion in self was found the best predictor of stress as well as health. Findings also revealed that two components of EI, namely, ability to appraise and express emotions and ability to utilize emotions significantly moderated the stress-health relationship. Another important observation was that the ability to appraise and express emotion, though, was found to adversely affect an individual's health, the findings
of the moderated regression analyses identified it as a positive resource in high stress condition.

Siu (2009) in his study examined how trait emotional intelligence, as measured using the 33-item Emotional Intelligence Scale, is related to internalizing and externalizing problem behavior in 325 adolescents in Hong Kong. An item factor analysis yields four dimensions of emotional intelligence. This set of Chinese data, together with a data set from the UK, suggests the inadequacy of the original one-factor model in describing this type of intelligence. The female adolescents scored significantly higher in self-management of emotions and social skills, whereas no significant differences between genders were identified in awareness of others’ emotions and positive use of emotions. There was an inverse relationship between emotional intelligence and problem behavior. The self-management of emotions was negatively associated with all types of problem behavior, whereas social skills were related to aggression and delinquency. Regression analysis suggests that poor use of emotions may lead to higher levels of problem behavior, such as depression, aggression and delinquency, whereas a higher degree of self-management may lead to less anxiety.

Nordang, Lord & Farup (2010) opine that burnout is a psychological reaction triggered by interaction between personal characteristics and stress factors. Reorganizations and downsizing with increased
workload imply stress for health-care professionals. In his quasi-experimental retrospective cohort study, burnout was assessed in nurses with long work experience in three surveys during a 30 months' period with two comprehensive reorganizations and downsizing of a hospital unit with mostly seriously ill patients with cancer. Burnout was measured with Bergen Burnout Indicator (BBI) at each survey, and "Sense of Coherence" (SOC) with Antonovsky's Questionnaire at the last survey. Results indicate that there was a significant increase in burnout during the study period, the mean increase in BBI-score was 12.5 pr year (p < 0.001). The proportion of satisfied nurses at the first and last survey were 84% and 35% respectively, and the proportions with burnout were 0% and 29% respectively (p < 0.001). Except for auxiliary nurses with experience from the medical department, all subgroups experienced a significant increase in BBI. Burnout was associated with low SOC (p < 0.001, r square 0.33). It may be concluded that there was a significant development of burnout in a group of nurses during a period with two reorganizations and downsizing. Burnout was associated with low SOC. Working with seriously ill patients with cancer has probably made the nurses exceptionally vulnerable to the stress and workload related to the reorganizations.

Jadhav & Patil (2010) attempted to study the Emotional Intelligence in relation to General Intelligence and Academic Achievement. For this study, the Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory developed by Mangal and Mangal (2004)
and General Intelligence Test by Pal & Mishra (1998) were used as tools. Academic achievement was obtained from college records. On the basis of findings of the study it was concluded that (i) there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and general intelligence of student teachers, (ii) there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of student teachers.

Sahaya-Mary & Samuel (2010) attempted to find out the influence of emotional intelligence on attitude towards teaching of student teachers at govt. colleges of education in Chennai. The sample consists of 87 males and 104 females from two govt. colleges. The findings of the study reveal that there is a significant difference between qualification, community, influence to be a teacher and attitude towards teaching of student teachers. There is no significant difference between gender, subject, community, influence of others, previous teaching experience and the emotional intelligence of the student teachers.

Beygi, Padakannaya & Gowramma (2010) investigated the impact of remedial intervention on students' performance with dyscalculia in teaching addition and subtraction. Forty male students with dyscalculia (20 in experimental, and 20 in control groups) from fourth and fifth grades in Arak, Iran were the participants. The experimental group received a remedial program in addition to
their regular classroom teaching (every other day). Data analysis indicated a significant increase in the subtraction and addition performance after remedial intervention.

Lu, Fong, Hsu & Williams (2010) examined the relationship between athletes' Emotional Intelligence (EI) and precompetitive anxiety. Taiwanese intercollegiate track and field athletes (N = 111; 64 men, 47 women) completed the Bar-On EQ-i 1 mo. before a national intercollegiate athletic meet, and the Competition State Anxiety Inventory-2R 1 hr. before the competition. Analyses indicated that participants with the lowest EI scores reported greater intensity of precompetitive cognitive anxiety than those with the highest EI scores. No other statistically significant differences were found among the groups. Further, correlational analyses and multiple stepwise regression analyses revealed that EI components such as stress management, intrapersonal EI, and interpersonal EI were associated with precompetitive anxiety. Current EI measures provide limited understanding of precompetitive anxiety.

Swami, Vegum & Petrides (2010) examined associations between trait emotional intelligence (trait EI) and two measures of body image, namely actual-ideal weight discrepancy and body appreciation. A total of 108 women completed the Photographic Figure Rating Scale, the Body Appreciation Scale, the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, the Sociocultural Attitudes Toward Appearance Questionnaire-3, and provided their demographic details.
Correlations showed that all trait EI factors were significantly associated with both actual-ideal weight discrepancy and body appreciation. In multiple regressions, only the well-being factor emerged as a significant predictor of actual-ideal weight discrepancy and body appreciation, respectively, once participant weight status and media influence had been controlled.

Barlow, Qualter & Styliaanon (2010) investigated the associations of Machiavellianism (Mach) with trait and ability emotional intelligence (EI), and theory of mind (ToM) in 109 primary school children. Consistent with previous research with adults, negative associations were found between Mach and social and emotional understanding. Subsequent multiple regression analyses for girls showed that being more adept at emotional and social understanding does not lead them to manipulate others in social encounters. This was not the case for boys.

Gujjar, Naoreen, Aslam & Khattak (2010) reported findings drawn from an amended version of Wong & Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLIS), university students' of Punjab. 600 students from three universities were selected as the sample for the study. Gender wise, the male students and qualification wise the B.Sc. degree holders were found significantly better than their counterparts. There were also some significant differences in terms of
the university the students were studying in. The study concludes that the emotional intelligence is positively correlated with age, gender, qualification as well as the educational institution the student is enrolled in.

Nandwana & Joshi (2010), in his study, conducted on 60 tribal adolescents (30 boys and 30 girls) of 16-18 years studying in senior secondary school of purposively selected "Tidi" village of Udaipur. The level of emotional intelligence of the tribal adolescents was assessed by administering a standardized Emotional Intelligence Inventory - MEII (2004) by S.K. Mangal and Shubhra Mangal. Percentages were calculated to draw inferences and t-test was applied to assess the impact of gender on emotional intelligence of tribal adolescents.

Afalabi, Awosola & Omle (2010) examined the influence of emotional intelligence and gender on job performance and job satisfaction among Nigeria Police Officers. It employs a 2×2 factorial design as well as multiple regressions with emotional intelligence and gender as the independent variables. One hundred and nineteen police officers were randomly selected from Esan Area Command. The results show that Police Officers who are of high emotional intelligence are more satisfied and perform better than Police Officers who are of low emotional intelligence. Also, respondents who have male or female roles with high emotional intelligence perform better and more satisfied with their job than respondents who have male or female roles with low emotional
intelligence. Based on the above, recommendations are made on how to increase Police Officers' efficiency.

Khalatbari, Ghorbanshiroudi, Siahbalaei & Keikhayfarzaneh (2011) studied the relationships between self-concept, self esteem and internal control resource with emotional intelligence employing 658 respondents. Piers-Harris Self-concept scale, copper-smith self-esteem Scale Twiki-strickland Internal scale, Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire and Oxford Happiness Scale were administered. The result showed that there are relations among self-concept, self-esteem and internal control source with emotional intelligence and happiness.

Subramanyam (2011) studied the effect of EI and study skills of high school students, 60 high school students constituted the sample of the study. EI scale developed by Nutankumar Thingujam and Usha Ram (1999) and Study Skills Inventory developed by Prof. P.V. Ramamurthy and Geetha Nath (1977) were administered on the sample to assess their level of Emotional Intelligence and study skills. Based on the findings of the study it was concluded that there is no significant difference with regard to the impact of gender on Emotional Intelligence and study skills of high school students.

Ajwani & Verma (2011) explored the roles of emotional intelligence and gender in altruistic behaviour. A final random sample of 120 students XIth and XIIth classes belonging equally to high and low emotional intelligence of groups of
males and females was administered Emotional Intelligence Scale (Ajwani et al. 2002). It is evident from results that students with high EI excelled those win low emotional intelligence in regard to their altruistic behaviour, however, gender was neither found to play and true independent role nor its joints effect with emotional intelligence on altruistic behaviour was found genuine.

Singh (2011) examined the relationship of EI with occupational stress and burnout and also examine the relative significance of EI in predicting occupational stress and burnout. A relatively heterogeneous sample of 120 doctors belonging to different fields of medical specialities in the age range of 35 to 55 years was assessed on the self report measure of emotional intelligence, Medical Professionals work Related Stress Inventory and Maslach’s Burnout Inventory Hindi version. The findings revealed EI and its components abilities are correlated negatively with occupational stress and its subdominants and burnout, except one dimensions of burnout (personal accomplishment) significantly and positively related with emotional intelligence.

Vaidya & Upadhyaya (2011) investigated the influence of EI on adjustment of urban and rural adelescent students (1013 urban and 987 rural of 9th and 11th classes from Jabalpur district. The tools administered for the study were Emotional Intelligence Test (Hyde, Pethe & Dhar) and Adjustment Inventory
(Singh & Sengupta). The result reveal that adolescent students of both urban and rural areas belonging to different levels of EQ are found to have significant interaction on adjustment.

Kavitha & Salimath (2011) explored the relationship between EI and styles of leadership/effective leadership EI is assessed by a modified version of the Trait Meta Mood Scale in 43 participants employed in middle management roles. Effective leaders are identified as those who displayed a transformational rather than transactional leadership style as measured by the multi-factor leadership questionnaire. Emotional intelligence is correlated with several components of transformational leadership suggesting that it may be an important component of effective leadership. In particular emotional intelligence may account for how effective a leader can influence and respond to his/her subordinate and make them feel at work.

Lal, Sharma & Sharma (2011) investigated the relationship between self-concept and emotional intelligence. The Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory and Bhatnagar's Self Concept Inventory were administered on the 584 Scheduled Caste male and female students of Arts and Science streams of class XI. It is evident from the results that
1. i) The level of expectation regarding achievement and aspiration is similar for the male Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

   ii) The level of confidence is similar for the male Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

   iii) The withdrawing tendencies are much higher for the male Scheduled Caste students having Low Emotional Intelligence than for the male students of the same caste and the same grade but having High Emotional Intelligence.

   iv) The inferiority feelings are similar for the male Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

   v) The emotional instability is much higher for the male Scheduled Caste students having Low Emotional Intelligence than for the male students of the same caste and the same grade but having High Emotional Intelligence.

2. i) The level of expectation regarding their achievement is similar for the female Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

   ii) The level of confidence, is much higher for the female Scheduled Caste students of Arts stream having High
Emotional Intelligence than for the female students of the same caste and the same grade but having Low Emotional Intelligence.

iii) The withdrawing tendencies are similar for the female Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

iv) The inferiority feelings are similar for the female Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

v) The emotional instability is similar for the female Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

3. i) The level of expectation regarding their achievement is much higher for the male Scheduled Caste students having High Emotional Intelligence than for the male students of the same caste and the same grade but having Low Emotional Intelligence.

ii) The level of confidence is similar for the male Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

iii) The withdrawing tendencies are similar for the male Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.
iv) The inferiority feelings are more abundant for the male Scheduled Caste students having Low Emotional Intelligence than for the male students of the same caste and the same grade but having High Emotional Intelligence.

v) The emotional instability is much higher for the male Scheduled Caste students having Low Emotional Intelligence than for the male students of the same caste and the same grade but having High Emotional Intelligence.

4. i) The level of expectation regarding their achievement is much higher for the female Scheduled Caste students having High Emotional Intelligence than for the female students of the same caste and the same grade but having Low Emotional Intelligence.

ii) The level of confidence is similar for the female Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

iii) The withdrawing tendencies are similar for the female Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

iv) The inferiority feelings are similar for the female Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.
v) The emotional instability is similar for the female Scheduled Caste students having High and Low Emotional Intelligence.

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