

CHAPTER –2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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Review of literature

Emotional intelligence is a dynamic construct influenced by diverse biological, psychological, and social factors. A good deal of research has been conducted on emotional intelligence and it was found to be appearing as an important factor in the prediction of personal, academic and career success. Studies on emotional intelligence with respect to various psychosocial correlates have been found in a variety of fields. Empirical studies investigating the relationship of emotional intelligence with numerous psychological and psychosocial factors were reported by several researchers and simultaneously revealing the significance of emotional intelligence and its beneficial aspects with remarkable contribution in the field of interpersonal relationships, success in work and personal life, health psychology, managing occupational stress, academic field, improving personality, enhancing performance and many more positive behavior pattern. Review of literature on emotional intelligence regarding different demographic and psychological correlates is presented below:

Demographic correlates

Research on emotional intelligence with regard to certain demographic factors such as age, sex, locale and socio economic status has been reported widely. Numerous studies were intended to find out the impact of demographic variables on emotional intelligence of individuals. However, these studies doesn't reached to similar conclusions but, have reported the significance of demographic variables in studying emotional intelligence. Following are some of the reviews in this context:-

Age

The older children displayed greater emotional competence than their younger counterparts. It has been found that emotional intelligence increases with age or grade. It has been also reported that emotional maturity was positively related with physiological maturity. Salovey and Mayer, 1990) have shown that the EI developed with increasing age and experience. Goleman (1995) found that the signs of EI appear among very young children.

Goleman (1996) have also stated that emotional intelligence increases with age and it can be learned, cultivated and increased in adulthood. In a series of longitudinal studies, it was shown that people can change their EI competencies over two to five years (Boyatzis, 2000).

Mayer et al. (2000) also showed with a series of studies that emotional intelligence increased with age and experience which qualifies it as an ability rather than a personality trait. Wong and Law (2002) working with different samples have found that, age is positively correlated with emotional intelligence across different job situations.

Similarly, Kafetsios (2004) had reported in his study among 239 adults aged between 19-66 years, that older participants scored higher on three out of four branches of EI i.e. facilitation, understanding and management. This study supports the view that emotional intelligence develops with age.

Srivastava and Bharamanaikar (2004) concluded from their study among the sample of 291 Indian army officers regarding the relationship between EI and their age, that EI had increased with age.

To measure the emotional intelligence and its relation with age among secondary school teachers, Tyagi (2004) have conducted a study and found that the level of emotional intelligence is low and independent of age.

Another study examining the long term stability (32 months) of emotional intelligence- related abilities over the course of a major life transition (The transition from high school to university) was reported by Parker, Saklofske, Wood, Eastabrook et al. (2005). During the first week of full time study, a large group of undergraduates completed the EQ-i: short; 32 months later a random subset of these student (N=238), who had started their postsecondary education within 24 months of graduating from high school, completed the measure for a second time. The study found EI scores to be relatively stable over the 32 month time period. EI scores were also found to be significantly higher at time 2; the overall pattern of change in EI- levels was more than can be attributed to the increased age of the participants.

Van Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005) have made a study in which a common measure of emotional intelligence was administered to 275 participants. (216 female) to examine how different groups score on a test of EI differences were compared for age. Results indicated that emotional intelligence scores tended to increase with age.

Chapman and Hayslip (2006) have made a cross sectional analysis in order to measure emotional intelligence in young and middle adulthood. Differentiation of the construct of emotional intelligence was investigated in young and middle-aged adults. Mid life adults reported significantly greater use of optimism (a component of emotional intelligence) as a mood regulation strategy than was reported by young adults.

Another study on relationship between emotional intelligence and age reported by Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) among B.Ed. teacher trainees

(N= 300) have revealed a significant effect of age on emotional intelligence. Contradictory to this finding, Jacques (2009) had reported that age did not predicted emotional intelligence among a sample of 221 college students.

Sex

Thingujam and Ram (2000) in their attempt of Indian adaptation of Emotional Intelligence Scale (Schutte et al, 1998) had developed Indian norms (N=811) for males and females separately and found that women were significantly scoring higher than men. Similarly, Mohanty and Devi. L (2010) have revealed in their study on gender differences among EI (N=60) that girls are more optimistic and well aware of their feelings in comparison to boys. Girls are more aware and understand their own feelings (Components of EI) than boys.

Similarly Ciarrochi, chan and Bajgar (2001) found that EI was reliable measured in adolescents and was higher for females than males.

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

Mishra and Ranjan (2008) have also been studied whether the gender difference affects emotional intelligence of adolescents (N=80, 40 male, 40 female). The results showed that adolescent boys and girls differ significantly on emotional intelligence and boys were found to be significantly higher on emotional intelligence than the girls. The higher scores of adolescent boys indicate that they are better on interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptability and

stress management skills and their overall general mood (happiness and optimism) are of higher order than the adolescent girls.

To observe emotional intelligence levels of undergraduate male and female college students (N=200) (100 males and 100 female) 17-20 years, Nasar and Nasar (2008) have made an attempt and the results ensures the presence of higher emotional intelligence in the adolescent girls students in comparison to the boys. Brackett, Mayer and Warner (2004) have also been reported in their study among 330 college students that women scored significantly higher in emotional intelligence than men. Lower emotional intelligence in males shows principally the inability to perceive emotions and to use emotion to facilitate thought was associated with negative outcomes including illegal drug and alcohol use, deviant behaviour and poor relations with friends.

In the study reported by Uma Devi and Rayal (2004) based on gender differences among EI (N=224) it was revealed that seventy six percent of girls have scored EI above average. Whereas, eighty one percent of boys have scored their EI above average. This concluded that boys have scored slightly higher on their emotional intelligence as compared to their counterparts.

Hunt and Evans (2004) have reported in their study on individuals [N=414 (181 male and 233 female)] having traumatic experiences and simultaneously studied on their emotional intelligence level, and the results showed that males have higher EI than females.

However, Kafetsios (2004) had reported gender differences in emotional intelligence from a sample of 239 adults aged between 19 to 66 years who completed the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT V2.0) in which females scored higher than males on emotion perception and experimental area.

Moving ahead to next review on sex differences in emotional intelligences. Study reported by Pandey and Tripathi (2004) on a sample of 100 individuals (50 males and 50 females) completing the measure of EI, consisting of identification of emotion, perception and recognition of emotion with probing, perception and recognition of emotion-without probing, understanding emotional meaning and emotion intensity rating. Results revealed that females scored significantly higher than male and were more proficient in managing and handling their own emotions as well as of others.

Pant and Prakash (2004) have studied gender differences in emotional intelligence for Indian participants (N=60). 30 male and 30 female subject/individuals were approached for the study from personnel and human resources departments of both government and non-governments organizations; as well as students with an educational level of post graduation. Multifactor emotional intelligence scale was used for assessment process. Results showed no substantial gender differences on the various EI dimensions. More specifically indicating that both males and females do not differ significantly on the two sub- tasks of 'managing emotions'. Whereas, 'Managing others' (sub tasks) has the males (M=0.28, S.D. = 0.08) scoring higher than the females (M=0.26, S.D.=0.08) on the sub-task of 'managing self', both the males and females have the same mean (m=0.25). However, women scored higher, though not significantly than men on total EI (M women = 5.13, M men=4.86).

Petrides, Furnham and Martin (2004) examined participant's estimates of own and parental psychometric intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EI). About 224 participants (82 male, 138 female and 4 who did not reported their gender) were asked to estimate their own and their parent's IQ and EI scores on a normal distribution ranging from 55 to 145 points. The results confirmed the hypothesis supporting the view that people perceive

psychometric intelligence as a primarily masculine attribute in contrast with emotional intelligence, which they perceive as a primarily feminine attribute. But this result has been altered when the participants had estimated their scores on a range of specific EI facets instead of overall self estimate.

In order to measure the relationship between emotional intelligence and gender, Tyagi (2004) have conducted a study among secondary teacher. The results revealed that emotional intelligence is independent of gender.

Mathur, Malhotra and Dube (2005) have evaluated the gender differences in the selection variables of emotional intelligence, which were attribution, taking responsibility and scholastic achievement in high school students (N= 83, M=36, F=47) with an age group of 13 to 15 years. The study does not revealed any significant gender-differences on the dimensions of emotional intelligence. So, the study concluded that there is no significant difference among boys and girls on the selected components of EQ.

Assessing on an ability measure of EI, Brackett, Warner and Bosco (2005) find out in their study on 86 heterosexual couples that, female partners were significantly higher on their emotional intelligence scores than male partners and that EI scores were uncorrelated within couples.

VanRooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005) in their study examined gender differences on emotional intelligence by administrating a common measure of emotional intelligence on 275 participants (216 female). Results indicated that females scored slightly higher than males.

Similarly, Austin, Evans, Gold water and Potter (2006) studied among a group of 156 first year medical students who have been completed measures of emotional intelligence and physician empathy, and a scale

assessing their feelings about a communications skills course component. Results showed that females scored significantly higher than males on EI.

Depape, Hakim-Larson, Voelker, page et al. (2006) has examined the gender as the predictor of emotional intelligence, in a diverse sample of 126 undergraduate participants (42 male, 84 female) and reported that gender was not a significant predictor of emotional intelligence, as contrary to their expectation.

Miville, Carlozzi, Gushue and Schara (2006) examined culturally relevant variables including, universal-diverse orientation (UDO - an attitude characterized by awareness and acceptance of similarities and differences between self and others, and emotional intelligence. 211 counseling graduate students completed measures of these variables as well as demographic sheets. Hierarchical regression analysis indicated that UDO and emotional intelligence along with gender, significantly explained variance in empathy.

Contrary to this, Hunt and Evans (2004) have reported in their study on individuals [N=414 (181 male and 233 female)] having traumatic experiences and simultaneously studied on their emotional intelligence level, and the results showed that males have higher EI than females.

Study done by Saranya and Velayudhan (2008) among 30 male and 30 female, university students regarding gender differences in emotional intelligence revealed that there exists no significant difference in self awareness, self regulation, social awareness and social skills among day scholars boys and girls. There exists a significant difference in the dimension of motivation. Girls are better motivated than boys, this is because girls have a better driving and pulling forces which result in persistent behaviour directed towards certain goals.

Another study made by Singh Chaudhary and Asthana (2008) on impact of gender on emotional intelligence of adolescents, among a sample of 400 adolescents (200 male and 200 female) from various schools and colleges. The results revealed that male and female adolescents exhibit some emotional intelligence, concluding that both male and female adolescents are caring, giving, supportive and enriching.

Carr (2009) have studied sex differences in emotional intelligence among a student sample of medical schools (N= 177). Results indicated that male candidates had higher emotional intelligence scores than females.

However, Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have been reported a significant effect of gender on emotional intelligence, in their study among 300 B.Ed teacher trainees.

Jadhav and Havalappanavar (2009) investigated the level of emotional intelligence among male and female police constable trainees (N=200). Results revealed that women police constable (WPC) trainees have scored significantly high on emotional intelligence than their counterparts. It may be because of the fact that 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 in their later 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. Furthermore, the results also revealed that the women police constable trainees (WPC) scored higher on self motivation, emotional stability, commitment, altruism empathy and self awareness factors of emotional intelligence in comparison of male candidates.

Tatawadi (2009) have studied the differences in emotional maturity among male and female students studying in a management school. The

results revealed that the females are emotionally stronger than the males. The girls score higher with regard to empathy, social responsibilities and interpersonal relationships than boys. They are more sensitive towards their relationships with parents, friends and siblings. All these traits help them to acquire more emotional intelligence as compared to boys.

Socio-economic status

Studies on emotional intelligence in relation with socio-economic status are reviewed as under:

An exploratory study of the relationship between emotional intelligence and socio economic status was done by Holmes (2007) in which emotional intelligence was considered as criterion variable and SES as predictor, and measured by household income, parent education and occupation. Bivariate and multivariate correlational analysis revealed significant positive relationship except mother's occupation and household income. Further Namdar, Sahebihagh, Ebrahimi and Rahmani (2008) have found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence score and the student's satisfaction of their family socioeconomic status among nursing students.

In order to find out the effect of monthly income on the level of emotional intelligence among B.Ed. teacher trainees (N=300) Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have executed an empirical study and results showed that the socio economic status or monthly income do not cause any significant effect on the emotional intelligence.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and socio economic status was studied by Jacques (2009) among 221 college students and the

study reported that socio economic status did not predicted emotional intelligence.

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

Locale

Mayer and Salovey (1997) have suggested that individuals from different sub-cultures approach emotions differently. According to Sibia, Srivastava and Misra (2003) EI, differ across cultures.

Study locating the discourse on emotions in the context of culture and human development by Sharma and Sharma (2004) was explored the notion of emotional competence among a sample of adolescents (N=70) aged 12-18 years included boys and girls studying in class VI to class XII in a one senior secondary school in a rural zone of New Delhi. The children lived their sharing of common ecology, facilitative of greater interaction among each other and were much less exposed to the spaces and lives outside. On the basis of open ended interview and classroom-based enactments as well as written exercises accompanied by group discussions it was concluded that the developing awareness of emotions in children as means of describing oneself is revealing of the interplay of developmental aspects of thought and feeling. The study enabled to discern the varied understanding and use of emotion in children's everyday lives.

To delineate the human ecological factors affecting emotional intelligence skills of school teachers (N=60) a study was made by Duhan and Chhikara (2007). Study revealed a significant association between the developmental facilities (exosystem variables), provided in community surrounding and emotional intelligence skills of teachers. The results also revealed that most of the high category respondents (16.7%) were having more developmental facilities (i.e. hospital, bank, park, club, market etc.) in their surroundings, whereas near about 19% (out of 28%) of low category respondents were having less number of development facilities. Carr (2009) have 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 (mean= 110, SD= 19.0) and perceiving emotions (mean=94, S.D.=15.6) respectively.

Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) have studied the locate 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.

Social Correlates

Persons with higher emotional intelligence are found to be more social. There are some studies available in the literature related to the emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence plays a significant role in establishing and maintaining relationship (Goldman, 1995) Molouff and Schette (1998) found in their study that the persons with higher emotional intelligence were more socially accepted and they display better social skills. Emotional intelligence includes those traits that are most likely to ensure success in

marriage or love affair and the lack of it explains the reasons why people face failures in their personal and professional life despite having high IQ.

All meaningful relationships such as parent-child, teacher- student, between peers or colleagues etc., which are perceived as our strengths are usually based on dimensions of emotional intelligence. Theories supported that if one has a good amount of emotional intelligence, the person will have a good ability to adjust and a special capacity to solve problems of daily life. An analysis of the traits of persons high on psychometric intelligence (IQ) but low on emotional intelligence (EQ) yields the stereotype of a person who is critical, and uncomfortable with others.

EI was correlated slightly but positively with belief in social relation (Thingujam and Ram1999).

Schutte et al. (2001) found that higher scores EI had higher scores on close affectionate relationship.

Lopes, Salovey and Straus (2003) had explored links between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relationships; in a sample of 103 college student and found that individuals scoring highly on the managing emotions subscale of the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso emotional Intelligence test (MSCEIT), were more likely to report positive relations with others, as well as perceived parental support and less likely to report negative interactions with close friends.

Kafetsios (2004) studied the relationship between attachment orientation and emotional intelligence (N=239) adults, aged 19-66 years, who completed the MSCEIT V2.0 and the relationship questionnaire. Results revealed that secure attachment was positively related to all sub-scales (except perception of emotion) and total EI scores. Further, contrary to

expectations, dismissing attachment was positively associated with the ability to understand emotion.

Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz et al. (2004) have studied on emotional intelligence and social interaction among a sample of 118 American college students. Higher scores on the 'managing emotions' subscales of the MSCEIT were positively related to the quality of interactions with friends, evaluated separately by participants and two friends. Further in a diary study of social interaction with 103 German College students, 'managing emotions' scores were positively related to the perceived quality of interactions with opposite sex individuals, scores on this subscale were also positively related to perceived success in impression management in social interactions with individuals of the opposite sex.

An empirical study undertaken to conceptualize the notion of EI in the Indian social-cultural context was reported by Sibia, Misra and Srivastava (2004). Responding to open ended questions, the participants (N=1047) described the emotional qualities desired by them in children and those required to be successful in life. The indigenous view of EI takes into cognizance such as factors as social sensitivity, pro-social values, action tendencies and affective states. Results indicate that the Indian view of EI is context sensitive and focuses on the role of family and society in shaping one's emotions.

Another finding was that successful social adjustment was related to a more accurate perception of variations in other's mood, which strengthens the hypothesis that emotion perception is essential for adaptation on a social level. To assess whether emotional intelligence is related to self-assessed relationship quality, an ability test of EI and measures of relationship quality were administered to 86 heterosexual couples in a university setting, as

reported in the study made by Brackett, Warner and Bosco (2005). Results revealed that, couples with both partners low on EI tended to have the lowest scores on depth, support and positive relationship quality and the highest scores on conflict and negative relationship quality. Furthermore, couples with both partners high on EI did not consistently have higher scores on positive outcomes and lower scores on negative outcomes than couples with one high-EI partners.

Linguistic characteristics of writing about the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks were evaluated through a social cognitive processing theory framework by Graves, Schmidt and Andry Kowski (2005). A total of 537 people completed an internet based survey and 177 chose to write about their thoughts and feelings related to 9/11 people who wrote about their thought and feelings reported more total symptoms of 9/11 related distress and greater attention to feelings. Linguistic differences emerged among participants classified by high, moderate, or low distress and were also evident in terms of participant's emotional intelligence and perceived social environment.

To examine the relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and selected social variables among 120 parents and their children between the age range of 15-17 years a study was reported by Uma and Uma Devi (2005) and the results revealed that the parental education and occupation has significant and positive relationship with the dimension of emotional intelligence like social regard, social responsibility, impulse control and optimism. The total intra personal subscale is significantly and positively related to significantly and positively related to mother's education, occupation and income emphasizing the significance of mother in enhancing the self development skills of adolescents. The second component of emotional intelligence is the interpersonal sub scale, which include the dimensions empathy, interpersonal relations and social responsibility. In the

interpersonal subscale of emotional intelligence of the total sample it was noted that none of the parent related and family related variables had any significant relationship with any of the dimensions or to the total interpersonal sub scale.

Parker, Saklofske, Shaughnessy, Huang et al., (2005) have reviewed that culture can influence the experience and expression of emotions. they have made a cross cultural study and examined the generalizability of the youth form of a widely used self-report measure of EI (EQ-i: Yv) in a sample of 384 aboriginal youth from several rural areas in Canada (mean age= 125. years) This sample was matched (by age and gender) with a second rural Canadian sample of non aboriginal youth (N= 384). The four factor model for the measure (separate dimensions for interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptability and stress management abilities) was tested using confirmatory factory analysis with both samples. Multiple goodness of fit indicators revealed that the model had good fit to the data from both samples. The aboriginal respondents were found to score significantly lower on the interpersonal, adaptability and stress- management dimensions compared to the non-aboriginal children. Further, results are discussed in the context of EI as a vulnerability factor for a number of health-related problems in children and adolescents.

Schmidt, and AndryKowski (2005) had examined the role of social and dispositional variables associated with emotional processing in adjustment to breast cancer. This study investigated psychological adjustment as a function of emotional intelligence, social support and social constraints in 210 patients recruited via postings to internet- based breast cancer support groups. Regression analysis indicated high social constraints and low emotional intelligence were associated with greater distress. Evidence suggested high emotional intelligence could buffer against the negative impact of a toxic

social environment. Furthermore, results support a social- cognitive processing model of adaptation to traumatic events and suggest consideration of emotional intelligence may broaden this model.

Van Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran (2005) had studied group difference in emotional intelligence. In this study a common measure of emotional intelligence was administered to 275 participants to examine how different group score on a test of EI. Group differences existed for ethnicity but favoured minority groups, mitigating potential adverse impact concerns, as shown by results.

The effect of social skills intervention on the emotional intelligence of children with limited social skills was examined by Betlow (2006). In this study, children identified as socially deficient either did, or did not attend weekly group social skills intervention over an 8 week period. Both experimental and wait list control groups were assessed pre and post intervention using the Baron Emotional Quotient inventory: youth version to evaluate baseline and resultant levels of emotional intelligence. Results did not reveal statistically significant differences between children enrolled in a social skills training group as compared to a wait- list control group.

With a purpose to investigate whether emotional intelligence has any role to play in regard to altruistic behaviour Bhatpahari and Ajawni (2006) have made a study by considering equal numbers of subjects (N=60), randomly selected from larger population of high and low EI groups. Altruism was studied in an experimental situation, wherein sharing behaviour was studied as the criterion of altruistic behavior. It was found that subject with high EI excel those with low EI as regarding to their altruistic behavior i.e. they share more of the received reward with the co-participations than emotionally low intelligent subject.

Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman and Lerner et al (2006) have made a study relating emotional abilities to social functioning, further making a comparison of self report and performance measures of emotional intelligence. Three studies used J.D. Mayer and P. Salovey's (1997) theory emotional intelligence (EI) as a framework to examine the role of emotional abilities (assessed with both self-report and performance measures) in social functioning. Self ratings were assessed in ways that mapped on to the Mayer-Salovey- Caruso Emotional Intelligence test (MSCEIT) , a validated performance measure of E.I. In study 1, self rating and MSCEIT scores were not strongly correlated. In study-2, men's MSCEIT scores, but not self-rating, correlated with perceived social competence after personality measures were held constant. In study 3, only the MSCEIT predicted real time social competence, again, only for men.

Kim (2006) had examined the relations between adult attachment orientations and both emotional intelligence and cognitive fragmentation. Authentic self, which refers to a genuine sense of the self, was proposed as a mediator of such relations. 115 undergraduate students participated in the study. Applying structural equation modeling, the results showed that degree of authentic self mediated the relations between attachment dimensions and either emotional intelligence or cognitive fragmentation. Specifically, a higher score on the secure attachment dimension was associated with a greater degree of authentic self, which in turn, was associated with greater levels of emotional intelligence and having a fewer fragmented cognitive concepts about the self and romantic relationships. On the other hand a higher score on the anxious ambivalent attachment dimension was associated with lower degree of authentic self, which in turn, was associated with a lower level of emotional intelligence and having more fragmented cognitive concepts about the self and romantic relationships.

Kumar and Bhushan (2006) have examined the relationship among emotional intelligence and interpersonal communication practices (IPC); among 120 male students of IIT Guwahati. Results revealed that IPC neither correlated with EI. Dimensions of interpersonal communication were found to be negatively correlated with self management and social skill dimension of emotional intelligence.

Moving ahead to another study made by Petrides, Sangareau, Furnham and Frederickson (2006) on trait emotional intelligence and children's peer relations at school. Trait emotional intelligence (or trait emotional self efficacy) is a constellation of emotion related self-perception and dispositions comprising the affective aspects of personality. This study was aimed at investigating the role of trait EI in children's peer relation at school. (N=160) participants were administered the trait EI questionnaire and were subsequently asked to nominate all, classmates who fitted each to seven distinct behavioural descriptions (cooperative, disruptive, shy, aggressive, dependent, leader, and intimidating). The teachers were also asked to nominate all pupils who fitted the seven descriptions. As a result, pupils with high trait EI scores received more nominations for cooperation and leadership and fewer nominations for disruption, aggression and dependence. Factor analysis of teacher nominations revealed two orthogonal factors encompassing pro-social and anti social descriptions, respectively. Finally the study concluded that high trait EI pupils scored higher on the pro social and lower on the antisocial factor.

In order to investigate the relationship between social anxiety and emotional intelligence or of their shared impact upon interpersonal adjustment, Summerfeldt, Kloosterman, Antony and Parker (2006) have been made a study, by using structural equation modeling with self report data from a large nonclinical sample (N= 2629). EI was found to be highly related

to social interaction anxiety, but not performance anxiety. A model permitting these three predictors to inter-correlate indicated that the EI factor was the dominant predictor of interpersonal adjustment, substantially reducing the unique contribution made by interaction anxiety. This pattern reflected the principal contributions made to interaction anxiety by the interpersonal and particularly, intrapersonal domains of Emotional Intelligence.

Emotion regulations abilities and the quality of social interaction was studied by Lopes, Salovey, Cote, Beers et al., (2005) emotional regulation abilities measured on a test of emotional intelligence, were related to several indicators of the quality of individual's social interaction with peers. In a sample of 76 college students, emotion regulation abilities were associated with both self reports and peer nominations of interpersonal sensitivity and prosocial tendencies, the proportion of positive vs negative peer nominations, and reciprocal friendship nominations. These relationships remained statistically significant after controlling for the Big-five personality traits as well as verbal and fluid intelligence.

Previous studies have consistently shown emotion regulation to be an important predictor of intercultural adjustment Emotional intelligence theory suggests that before people can regular emotions they need to recognize them, thus emotion recognition ability should also predict intercultural adjustment. Keeping this in view Yoo, Matsumoto and Le Roux (2006) made a study testing this hypothesis in international students at three times during the school year. Recognition of anger and emotion regulation predicted positive adjustment, recognition of contempt, fear and sadness predicted negative adjustment. Emotion regulation did not mediate the relationship between emotion recognition and adjustment, and recognition and regulation jointly, predicted adjustment. These results suggest recognition of specific

emotions may have specific functions in intercultural adjustment, and that emotion recognition and emotion regulation play independent role in adjustment.

Duhan and Chhikara (2007) have studied the association of parenting technique and types of exposure to mass media (T.V. Programs) referred as macrosystem variables, with emotional intelligence skills. Results revealed a significant association between parenting techniques and emotional intelligence skills. The results show that most of the parents of the high category respondent (16.7%) adopted authoritative discipline in home where as, 11.7 percent followed permissive type of techniques. Out of 28% of the low category respondents, 13.3% adopted authoritarian parenting discipline and only 3.3% exerted authoritative type of discipline. It may be inferred that more suitable the parenting style, better will be the emotional intelligence skills. The results further show that the other macro system variable i.e. type of T.V. Programs was found non significant with emotional intelligence skills of respondents.

Singh and Saini (2007) have revealed in their study regarding emotional intelligence and interpersonal relationships, that the measures of emotional stability is significantly related with the variables of managing relations and integrity which concludes that the persons who are emotionally stable posit good interpersonal relations, they enjoy the trust of other and they tend to be less aggressive and hostile to others.

Similar study was reported by Varshney (2007) on influence of parental encouragement on emotional intelligence of intermediate students (N=100, 50 boys, 50 girls). Results revealed that parental encouragement had a positive effect on the emotional intelligence of boys and girls, revealing there by that higher parental encouragement is associated with good

emotional intelligence and vice-versa. It implies that discouragement do not flourish the emotional intelligence of students. The higher mean scores of EI show that affectionate, liberal and considerate home environment promotes the E.I.

In order to analyze the effect of parent's emotional intelligence on self destructive intelligence syndrome (SDI) of individuals, study was made by Goyal and Singh (2008), conducted on the sample of 80 students of MIT Moradabad. The subjects were requested to fulfill the self-destructive intelligence syndrome scale by themselves and the emotional intelligence scale by their parents (father only). The high emotionally intelligent father and the low emotionally intelligent father groups were formed on the basis of scores obtained from emotional intelligence scale. By mean of ANOVA, the results revealed that the parent's emotional intelligence is a significant determinant of SDI Syndrome of the individual.

With a purpose of studying the effect of emotional intelligence training on peer relationship of the adolescent students; Purohit and Ajawani (2008) selected a random sample of 240 student studying in eleventh class, assigned equally to control (non training) and experimental (training) groups. Both the groups were initially tested for their peer relationship and then experimental group followed a EI training programme for 18 days while the control group passed a silent period of 18 days, after 18 days they were retested for their peer relationship. Results revealed that, training group genuinely improved more in comparison to those of Non- training group in regard to their peer relationship.

To see the difference among day scholars and hostel student (N=60) in prosocial behaviour and emotional intelligence, Saranya and Velayudhan (2008). The results clearly indicated that there was a significant difference

among day scholars and hostel student in different dimensions of prosocial behaviour viz Altruism civic sense, courtesy, conscientiousness sportsmanship and perception towards university environment. There is a significant difference among day scholars and hostel students in their emotional intelligence dimensions. viz. self awareness self-regulation, motivation, social-awareness and social skills. Furthermore, the hostel students seem to have a better emotional intelligence than day scholars.

Sethi and Ajawani (2008) have studied emotional intelligence as the function of parent- child relationship. To study whether parent-child relationship exerts any effect on emotional intelligence, a sample of 120 students aging 16 to 18 years and studying XI and XII class with good parent-child relationship and 120 students with poor parent-child relationship were selected randomly from a large population. Parent- child relationship scale (Sharma & Chauhan, 2002) and emotional intelligence scale (Ajawani et al., 2003) were used to assess the parent child relationship and emotional intelligence of the subjects respectively. An average emotional intelligence score of the subjects with good parent-child relationship ($M=309.94$) was found to be higher than that of with poor parent-child relationship ($M=235.20$). The obtained CR ($CR=45.49$) for the difference is significant at 0.01 level of significance.

Another study aimed at examining the direct and indirect relationships between emotional intelligence, subjective fatigue and the amount of social support gained, made by Brown and Schulte (2009). 167 university students completed the questionnaires assessing, subjective fatigue, emotional intelligence and social support. Results indicated that the amount of social support and satisfaction with social support, both partially mediated between emotional intelligence and fatigue. It concluded that the association between

subjective fatigue, emotional intelligence and social support may facilitate an understanding of the etiology of fatigue.

Mohanty and Uma Devi (2010) have examined the relationship between the EI of adolescents of secure attachment style and selected socio personal variables among 60 students, measuring attachment style by 'Attachment scale Hazen and Shaver (1987) and emotional intelligence inventory (2003). Results revealed 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 conducive home environment with secure feeling, give raise to emotionally intelligent individuals in future.

Biological / Health correlates

Health is an important factor in the life of the individuals, as it affects almost every single aspect of their life and determines their well-being. Poor health can make one to be dependent on others even for the basic necessities of life and this can effect one's perception of oneself. In essence, health seems to be one of the most significant factors effecting adjustment, well-being and happiness. Health can not be limited to only physical well-being alone. It have many aspects. One of them is psychological health, comprises good self esteem, enjoying a general feeling of well being, creativity, problem-solving skills and emotional stability.

Modern life is becoming highly complex because of the process of urbanization and related social changes which influence the lives of people (Kaur, 1992) Anxiety and stress owing to the competitive life are reflecting on the behavior of individuals in every sphere of life which not only negatively influence their emotional health and social interaction but also adversely effect their overall adjustment in their respective fields and

performance. The consequent stress may lead to symptoms such as, headaches, backaches, high blood pressure, panic, stomach problems, sexual dysfunction, reduced autoimmune problems like allergies or some form of arthritis, mood and sleep disturbances and also disturbed relationship with family and friends.

Thingujam and Ram (2000) during the process of Indian adaptation of emotional intelligence scale (Schulte et al., 1998) reported, as a part of the convergent validity studies that EI was correlated strongly and positively with coping with stress, and moderately and negatively with trait-anxiety.

It has been found that cognitive intellectual abilities are largely based in the neocortex areas of the brain, while emotional functioning is largely supported by the neurologic circuitry found in limbic areas (eg. the amygdala). In terms of the two cerebral hemispheres, the right hemisphere is more involved in emotional processing (particular negative affect) than the left which sustains linguistic and logical activities (Carlson, 2001).

Jausovec, Jausoves, and Gerlic (2001) recorded electro encephalogram (EEG) of people with high emotional intelligence (EIQ=120) and average emotional intelligence (EIQ=89) while solving tasks from an emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT). Significant differences in relating to EI were found in induced and event related band power in the theta (4.4.-6.4 Hz) lower-2 alpha (8.4-10.4 HZ) and upper alpha band (10.4-12.4Hz), individuals with high EIQ showed less desynchronization in the upper alpha band, as well as more left hemisphere theta desynchronization. Besides EIQ and the mean frequency were significantly correlated. They claim that these results are similar to those reported for performance and verbal components of general intelligence.

Slaski and Cartwright (2002) investigated the relationship between a measure of EQ, subjective stress, distress general health, morale, quality of working life and management performance among management population (N=224) of a large retail organization. The results found, indicated that managers who scored higher in EQ, suffered less subjective stress, experienced better health and well being, and demonstrated better management performance.

Emotional intelligence is the single most important factor predicting success and happiness in life and leading to good mental health (Sugarcane, 2002) Studies have shown that lower emotional intelligence related with many self-destructive behavior such as deviant behavior and cigarette smoking (Trinidad and Johnson, 2001; Brackett and Mayer, 2003).

In order to explore mental health nurse's experiences of emotional intelligence in their nursing practice by means of qualitative interviews, Akerjordet and Severinsson (2004) developed interview questions from the literature on EI and studied using a hermeneutic analysis. Four main themes emerged relationship with the patient; the substance of supervision; motivation; and responsibility. It was concluded that EI stimulates the search for a deeper understanding of a professional mental health nursing identity. Emotional learning and maturation process are central to professional competence that is, personal growth and development. In addition, the moral character of the mental health nurse in relation to clinical practice is of importance. The findings imply multiple types of intelligence related to nursing science as well as further research possibilities within the area of EI.

Leible and snell (2004) have examined Borderline personality disorder (BPD) and multiple aspects of emotional intelligence. It was investigated that whether personality disorder symptomatology would be associated with six

aspects of emotional intelligence: motional awareness, private emotional preoccupation, and public emotional monitoring. The results indicated that several personality disorders were systematically associated with these aspects of emotional intelligence.

Trinidad, Unger, Chou and Johnson (2004) had studied about the protective association of emotional intelligence with psychosocial smoking risk factors for adolescents. EI was assessed with a shortened version of the multifactor emotional intelligence scale, (adolescent version) and was administered to 416, sixth graders from middle schools in the Los Angeles area. 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. Those with high EI may be better able to benefit from social influences based prevention programs.

Research has correlated high emotional intelligence with lower levels of perceived stress, positive conflict styles and other measures of positive adaptations in difficult work environment (Abraham, 2005).

In an another study done by Austin, Saklofske and Egan (2005) emotional intelligence, life satisfaction and health related measures were assessed in Canadian (N=500) and Scottish (N=204) groups. Results showed that EI was found to be negatively associated with alcohol consumption and positively associated with life satisfaction and EI is a good predictor of health-related outcomes.

Jain and Sinha (2005) had studied the predictive ability of emotional intelligence, trust, and organizational support in general health. The sample consisted of 250 middle-level executives from 2-wheeler manufacturing organizations. Results suggest that the dimensions of EI termed positive attitude about life predicted both factors of general health positively : (a) sense of accomplishment and contribution and (b) botheration- free existence 'organizational support' predicted sense of accomplishment and contribution, whereas 'vertical trust' predicted botheration free existence, accompanied by the 'assertiveness' and 'positive self-concept' dimension of EI. The implications of the results are discussed in terms of promoting the general health of employees through training on EI skills and through the criterion of an atmosphere of trust and recognition within the organization.

Another study aimed at examining the direct and indirect relationships between emotional intelligence and subjective fatigue; reported by Brown and Schulte (2006). 167 university students completed questionnaires assessing subjective fatigue, emotional intelligence and a range of other psychological factors. A series of regression analyses were used to examine the direct and indirect relationships between subjective fatigue and psychological factors. Results indicated that higher emotional intelligence was associated with less fatigue. The psychological variables depression, anxiety, optimism, internal health locus of control, each mediated partially between emotional intelligence and fatigue. Additionally, sleep quality partially mediated between emotional intelligence and fatigue.

Day, Therrien and Carroll (2006) had examined emotional intelligence's ability to predict health outcomes after controlling for related constructs, or EI's ability to moderate the stressor- strain relationship. The study explored the relationships among EI (as assessed by a trait-based measure, the EQ-i) daily hassles, psychological health/ strain factors (in terms

of perceived well-being, strain and three components of burnout). After controlling for the impact of hassles, the five EQ-i subscales accounted for incremental variance in two of the five psychosocial health outcomes. However, the EQ-i scales failed to moderate the hassles- strain relationship.

Gohm, Corser and Dalsky (2006) examined the association between emotional intelligence (emotion-relevant abilities) and stress (feelings of inability to control life events) among 158 freshman. The results suggest that emotional intelligence is potentially helpful in reducing stress for some individuals, but unnecessary or irrelevant for others. The results highlights among the highly stressed intense but confused participants in particular because they have average emotional intelligence, but do not appear to use it, presumably because they lack confidence in their emotional ability.

Kulshreshtha and Sen (2006) had investigated subjective well being in relation to emotional intelligence and locus of control among 150 executives of different job strata. The results of the study reveal that emotional intelligence and locus of control have significant correlation with subjective well being. The results further concluded that emotional intelligence is a strong predictor of 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 have internal locus of control scored significantly high on all the three dimensions of life satisfaction scale.

Rieb (2006) have made a correlational study exploring the association between measures of emotional intelligence and ratings, of student clinical effectiveness. The EQ-I and the MSCEIT were administered to 30 clinicals psychology graduate students undergoing training in basic, interviewing skills. Test results were compared with coder ratings of these same student

clinicians engaged in videotaped role-plays of counselling sessions. Specific core interpersonal qualities (eg. Warmth, genuineness, respect, empathy) were rated, and an average core competency score was determined. Results did not show any significant correlations.

Shulman and Hemenover (2006) studied whether dispositional EI predicted psychological health. Participants (N= 263) completed measures of three EI disposition viz. perception, understanding and regulation of emotions, psychological well being and emotional distress. Participants completed the health scales a second time three month later. Results revealed that dispositional EI is related to health outcomes crosssectionally and predicts health over time.

Trinidad, Unger, Chou and Johnson (2006) have studied the impact of EI on adolescent smoking. For this purpose multifactor emotional intelligence scale, Adolescent version was used to measure emotional intelligence of adolescents. The results reported that High emotional intelligence (EI) is associated with decreased adolescent smoking. Hunt and Evans (2004) investigated whether emotional intelligence (EI) can predict how individuals respond to traumatic experiences. On a sample of 414 participants (181 male, 233 female), a measure of EI along with the impact of event scale revised, the monitoring and blunting questionnaire (MBQ) were administered. The results showed that participants with higher NEIS scores (emotional intelligence) report fewer psychological symptoms relating to their traumatic experiences, that monitors are more likely to have higher NEIS scores than blunters. Results also revealed that traumatic events had a grater impact on females than males.

Benson, Truskett and Findlay (2007) have explored burnout prevalence rates and examined the relationship between burnout and EI in an Australian

surgical population. The sample comprised 126 participants (53 Ssts, 75 fellows ; mean age 44.03 years) completed a battery of self report measures of burn out, EI and social desirability. Measures achieved reliability coefficients between 0.68 and 0.89 indicating adequate internal consistency. A series of independent samples t-test indicating that burn out levels regardless of career stage, correlated significantly with early retirement and / or retraining intentions and was inversely related to overall EI level. A series of regression analyses revealed that emotional control, emotional recognition and expression and understanding of emotions were significant predictors of burn out.

Recent research in psychology indicates that a personal competence in the recognition, management and utilization of emotions may hold the key to personal health, wealth and happiness. Emma and Dianne (2008) examined the predictive value of social support and emotional intelligence and their interaction effects on subjective well-being. The results showed that social support and emotional intelligence and their interaction effects, significantly predicted subjective well-being and explained 44%, 50% and 50% of the variance in SWL, positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA) respectively. At step-two social support predicted NA and SWL, and at step-four one interaction effect was significant.

Review examining the joint predictive effects of trait EI, extraversion conscientiousness and neuroticism on 2 facets of general well being was reported by Singh and Woods (2008) among a sample of 123 individuals of employed community from the Indian subcontinent, who have completed the measure of the five- factor model of personality, trait-EI and general well-being facets worn-out and up-tight. Trait EI was released but distinct from the 3 personality variables, but predicted general well-being no better than neuroticism. In regression analyses, trait- EI predicted between 6% and 9%

additional variance in the well being criteria, beyond the 3 personality traits. Finally it was concluded that trait- EI may be useful in examining dispositional influences on psychological well-being.

In an another study, (Hertel, Schutz and Lammers 2009) emotional abilities were measured with MSCE17 (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, 2002) in patients diagnosed with major depressive disorder, substance abused disorder or borderline personality disorder and a non clinical control group. Findings showed that all clinical groups differed from controls with respect to their overall emotional intelligence scores. Specifically it was found that the ability to understand emotional information and the ability to regulate emotions best distinguished. The groups findings showed that patients with substance abuse disorder and borderline personality disorder was most impaired.

Study focussing on new mother's perceptions of emotion intelligence reactions and thoughts by means of a descriptive design was reported by Akerjordet and Severinsson (2009). The study included 250 postnatal mothers (a response rate of 80%) the data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Results confirmed that from a health perspective emotional intelligence is an important component in relation to stress management and mental health. However, emotionally perspective women seem to be affected by stress and depression to a greater extent. The relative strength of the association between the score also provides a valid and useful overall measures of new mother's perceptions.

A number of different psychological factors have been implicated in the multifactorial aetiology of disordered eating (DE), attitudes and behaviours. With respect to this view a study aimed to explore the possible differences in emotional intelligence, body image and anxiety levels in young

females with disordered eating attitudes and healthy controls was reported by Costarelli, Demerzi and Stamon (2009) among 92 Greek female university students 18-30 years old responding on Eating Attitudes Test (EAT-26). The multi dimensional body self questionnaire (MBRSQ), the state trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) and The Bar On EQ-i. The EAT-26 revealed that 23% of the subjects presented D,E, attitudes. Women in the DE attitudes group had lower levels of EI in comparison to the control group, particularly in factors such as emotional self awareness ($P<0.05$), empathy ($p<0.05$), interpersonal relationships ($p<0.001$), stress management ($p<0.05$) and happiness ($P<0.05$). the MBRSQ has revealed significant difference between the two groups in terms of over weight pre occupation ($P<0.001$) the DE attitudes group had higher anxiety scores (STAI) although the differences were non-significant. Finally anxiety levels (STAI) were significantly correlated with levels of EI ($P<0.001$).

Priya Thulasi, C., Jiji and Jayakumari, S. (2009) have investigated whether there is any significant difference in the emotional intelligence of Poliomyelitics and non-poliomyelitics ($N=120$) age ranged 18-35 years. The result revealed that the psychological aspects (namely self awareness, mood management, self motivation, impulse control, people skills, empathy, sociability, self regulation) of emotional quotient are more or less same for the poliomyelitics and non-poliomyelitics, which means that the two groups do not differ in their emotional intelligence. It further concluded that basic psychological processes in physically handicapped person are not different from others as a function of disability.

In order to analysis the differences in emotional intelligence among alcoholics, deaddicts and non alcoholic, a study was made by Radhakrishnan, Gayatridevi and Velayudhan (2009). Results revealed that alcoholics had lower level of emotional intelligence than deaddicts. Emotional intelligence

was found to increase as a result of deaddiction. The individual improved on all sub dimensions of emotional intelligence namely self awareness, self regulation, motivation, social awareness and social skills. They were able to be aware of their emotions, to manage themselves and meet commitments, to achieve and initiate, and to influence people and to communicate effectively. This was the effect of the psychotherapy and treatment they received during deaddiction. The result also revealed that alcoholics had a lower level of emotional intelligence than non-alcoholics. Emotional intelligence of alcoholics was found to be lower than that of the normal population. Whereas it was found that deaddicts had a lower level of emotional intelligence than non alcoholics.

Li-chuan Chu (2010) evaluated the benefits of mediation in regard to EI, perceived stress and negative mental health with cross sectional and experimental studies, among 351 full time working adults with different amount of experience in meditation and found that those participants with greater meditation experience, exhibited higher EI and less perceived stress and negative mental health than those who had less or none. It then randomly divided 20 graduate students with no experience of meditation into a mindfulness meditation group (n=10) and a control group (n=10) and measured them for same variables. Pre-treatment and post-treatment to test the hypothesis, found that those who completed the mind fullness meditation training demonstrated significant improvements compared to the control group.

Educational correlates

Research evidence demonstrating the predictive effects of emotional intelligence on academic achievement is growing enormously.

Alan Mc Cluskey (1999) highlighted the importance of emotional intelligence to find their way into school curricula. According to him, introducing emotions in schools would be a radical change.

A strong indication that emotional intelligence is predictive of academic success is provided in several studies (Parker, 2004; Swart, 1996) Pau et al. (2004) found that students with a high level of emotional intelligence were more likely to adopt reflection and appraisal, social and interpersonal, organization and time management skills. Whereas, low emotionally intelligent students were more likely to engage in health damaging behaviour.

Following are some more relevant reviews regarding academic success and emotional intelligence:-

Mathur, Dube and Mallhotra (2003) have studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. Data was collected on a sample of 83 adolescents (boys and girls) from a local public school. Results revealed that emotional intelligence corroborates and compliments academic achievement. The data also exhibits that adolescents who have higher level of responsibility do better on scholastic performance, make better adjustments and are more confident.

The education sector, it has been reported that children with high EI are more confident, are better learners, have high self esteem and few behavioural problems, are more optimistic and happier, and also handle their emotions better (Ghosh and Gill, 2003).

Barchard (2004) had examined the ability of emotional intelligence to predict academic achievement, in a sample of undergraduate psychology students using year-end grades as the criterion. The predictive validity of

emotional intelligence was compared with the predictive validity of traditional cognitive abilities and the Big-five dimensions of personality. In addition, the incremental predictive validity of each of these three domains was assessed. Only some measures of emotional intelligence predicted academic success, and none of these measures showed incremental predictive validity for academic success over and above cognitive and personality variables. This may be due to the overlap between many emotional intelligence measures and traditional measures of intelligence and personality limits their incremental predictive validity in this context.

Parker (2004) have studied on the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. The transition from high school to university was used as the context for examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. During the first month of classes 372 first-year full time students at a small Ontario university completed the short form of the emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i short). At the end of the academic year the EQ-i: short data was matched with the student' academic record. When EQ-i: short variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly successful student who achieved a first- year university GPA of 80% or better versus relatively unsuccessful students who received a first- year GPA of 59% or less) academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence.

However, Petrides, Frederickson and Furnham (2004) investigated the role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and in deviant behaviour at school on a sample of 650 pupils in British secondary education (mean age = 16.5 years). Trait EI moderated the relationship between cognitive ability and performance. In addition, pupils with high trait EI scores were less likely to have had unauthorized absences

and less likely to have been excluded from school. It was concluded that the constellation of emotion-related self-perceived abilities and disposition that the construct of trait EI encompasses is implicated in academic performance and deviant behaviour, with effects that are particularly relevant to vulnerable or disadvantaged adolescents.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement was examined by Parker, Creque, Barnhart, Harris et al (2005) among 667 high school students. The students completed EQ-i: YV. At the end of the academic year EQ-i :YV, data was matched with student's academic records for the year. When EQ-i: YV variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly successful students, moderately successful and less successful based on grade-point-average for the year), academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence. Further, results are discussed in the context of the importance of emotional and social competency on academic achievement.

Reilly (2005) in his article suggests that negotiation courses using traditional lectures combined with role plays and simulated exercises can be used to train students in understanding emotion and increasing their emotional intelligence. The article defines emotion and emotional intelligence, describes and analyzes one simulated exercise that has proven to be particularly potent in the classroom for teaching both the theory and practice of emotional intelligence; sets forth the rudimentary components of a possible curriculum for emotions training, and concludes with reasons why law schools and other professional degree-granting programs can and should make training in emotions a curriculum staple.

Another study aimed at examining academically gifted (N=38) and non gifted (N=125) high school students from Israel, to compare mean emotional intelligence scores; was reported by Zeidner, Shani-Zinovich, Matthews and Roberts (2005) various assessment procedure and relation between emotional intelligence and ability, across different populations participants completed the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional Intelligence test (MSCEIT), the Schutte Self-Report Inventory (SSRI), and the vocabulary subtest of the Hebrew version of the Weschsler Intelligence scale for children-Revised (WISC-R-95). Gifted students scored higher on the MSCEIT, but lower on the SSRI. Findings suggest that individual differences are measures dependent, with the profile of scores variable across EI assessment procedures. Concepts assessed by the MSCEIT resemble a type of intelligence, whereas findings with the SSRI are problematic from this perspective.

Another study in this context was investigated by Austin, Evans, Goldwater and Potter (2006) among a group of 156 first year medical students who have completed measures of emotional intelligence and physician empathy, and a scale assessing their feelings about a communication skills course component. Exam performance in the autumn term on a course component (health and society) covering general issues in medicine was positively and significantly related to EI score but there was no association between EI and exam performance later in the year. High EI students reported more positive feelings about the communication skills exercise. Structural equation modelling showed direct effect of EI on autumn term exam performance, but no direct effects other than previous exam performance on spring and summer term performance. EI also partially mediated the effect of gender on autumn term exam performance. These findings provide limited evidence for a link between EI and academic performance for this student group.

However, in the study of Bastian, Burns and Nettelback (2006) on 246 predominantly first year tertiary students investigating the relation between emotional intelligence and academic achievement, it was reported that correlations between emotional intelligence and academic achievement were small and not statistically significant.

Parker, Hogan, Eastabrook, Oke et al., (2006) had examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic retention. Participants were selected from a sample of 1270 young adults (368 male, 902 female) making the transition from high school to university. They were recruited during the first week of classes in the first year at the university and completed a measure of emotional intelligence. Participant's 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), and 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 student who persisted in their studies were significantly higher than those who withdrew on a broad range of emotional and social competencies.

The construct of emotional intelligence provides a framework for understanding emotional processes in students with reading disabilities. Pellitteri, Dealy, Fasano and Kugler (2006) in their article examined underlying affective processes as they relate to cognition, motivation and social functioning. Ecological and individual interventions for influencing learning and social adjustment were described. Consideration was given to the emotional factors in the school environment, the interpersonal interactions of peer groups, opportunities for facilitating emotional learning, and dynamic affective- aesthetic responses of the individual during the reading process.

Moving ahead to an article created by Hawkey (2006) on emotional intelligence and mentoring in pre-service teacher education, the emerging discourse of emotional intelligence is discussed in relation to mentoring in pre-service teacher education. Possible reasons for the neglect of emotion and affect in pre-service teacher education, and in education more broadly, are discussed. The emerging focus on emotion in these fields is also examined in light of existing policy critiques. The dangers and pitfalls of using an emotional lens to look at the activity of mentoring are identified. The article focuses on policy and practice in relation to mentoring in pre-service teacher education in Britain, although the issues it raises are pertinent in the wider international field.

Austin, Evans, Magnus and O'Hanlon (2007) have done a preliminary study of empathy, emotional intelligence and examination performance among medical students in year 2,3 (pre clinical) and 5 (clinical). In order to find out whether EI and Empathy are related to academic success, questionnaires assessing EI and empathy were made completed by students. Associations of EI and empathy with academic success were examined using Pearson correlation. Results showed that associations between academic performance and EI were sparse and there were none between academic performance and empathy, but the effects of EI on problem-based learning (PBL) groups were found positively correlated.

To explore the relationship of spiritual intelligence and emotional intelligence with science achievement of Higher secondary male students, Bansal (2007) have made a study among a sample of 200 male students of the age group of 15 to 18 years, studying in eleventh class of the intermediate colleges of Mathura city. Results show that high positive correlation ($r=.65$) was found between science achievement and emotional intelligence whereas

very high positive correlation ($r=.73$) was found between science achievement and spiritual intelligence.

To explore the relationship between teaching effectiveness and emotional intelligence. Chhabada and Ajawani (2008) have conducted a study on 30 teachers having high emotional intelligence and 30 of them having low emotional intelligence ($N=60$). The study aimed at finding out the difference between teaching effectiveness of both the aforesaid groups of teachers. Results revealed that teachers having high emotional intelligence score higher on teaching effectiveness as compared to teachers having low emotional intelligence. Further it confirmed a significant relationship at (0.01 level of significance) between teaching effectiveness and emotional intelligence.

EI is reported to be a predictor of the interpersonal and communications skills medical schools are looking for in applicants. Study done by Carr (2009) describes EI scores in medical students and explores correlation between EI and selection scores at the university of Western Australia. Mean scores of the 177 respondents (58%) reflected the normal distribution of scores (98, $SD= 15.0$) in the general population. No significant correlations were found between EI total or EI branch scores and any of the selection scores.

Another study examining the influence of emotional intelligence on academic self-efficacy and achievement was reported by Dey (2009), among 150 undergraduate students (age= 18-20 years). The result demonstrated that emotional intelligence and academic self-efficacy significantly correlated with academic achievement. On the basis of findings, it was suggested that emotional intelligence should be integrated into undergraduate curriculum. The results confirmed the positive impact of academic self-efficacy and emotional intelligence in the relationship between academic self efficacy and achievement. Gowdhaman and Murugan (2009) analyzed the emotional intelligence among the B.Ed, teacher trainees ($N=300$). The mean EI score of

300 students is 129.58 and median value is 132 with SD=15.29. The results concluded that emotional intelligence of the B.Ed teacher trainees is normal (Average).

A study was conducted to assess the impact of intervention package on emotional intelligence skills of school teachers by Duhan, Chhikara and Sangwan (2009). The intervention program was imparted to the 30 teachers in various schools for a period of 15 days in each school. After a gap of one month post testing was done and the impact of the given package was measured. To see the effectiveness of the program, a group of 120 children (10 children each from 6 pre school classes and 6 primary classes) were also pre-tested and post-tested (after implementation of the program to teachers) on a check list developed to judge the emotional intelligence. A significant difference between pre and post testing assessment of emotional intelligence skills in all the four aspects of emotional intelligence was found which was also observed in children's behaviour. The teachers were instructed to pass on the learned emotional skills (through intervention) to the children of their classes. It concluded that to inculcate the emotional skills and their appropriate use among children it is must for the teachers to be emotionally intelligent then only they can motivate the children to learn the emotional intelligence skills.

Singh and Kumar (2009) have conducted a study on secondary school teachers of convent schools (English medium) and saraswati schools (Hindi medium) to analyze their emotional intelligence. The results had indicated that emotional intelligence of teachers of convent schools and Saraswati schools differ significantly. It was also observed that Saraswati school teachers are good in Self-motivation, Value orientation and Commitment whereas Self-awareness, Self-development, Managing relation, Integrity, and Altruistic behaviour aspects of emotional intelligence. It also has been

observed that there is no significant difference between teachers of convent schools and Sarawati schools on Empathy and Emotional stability aspects of emotional intelligence.

Tatawadi (2009) studied about emotional maturity among management students (N=200). Group one consist of 100 students of semester-I and group two consisted of 100 students studying in semester IV. The results showed that mean scores of students of semester one and semester four show no significant difference in their emotional maturity.

Cognitive Correlates

Most psychologists today believe that our cognitions, our perceptions, memories and interpretations are an essential component of emotion. Emotions have two main components: physical arousal and a cognitive label (e.g. Schachter's two factor theory of emotion). Our everyday experience suggests, there are indeed many links between emotion and cognition. The way we feel, influences the way we think and our thoughts, often shape our moods and emotions. People's feelings can systematically influence what kinds of thoughts are retrieved from memory.

Our thoughts seem to exert strong effects on our emotions, and this relationship works in the other direction as well. So, there are important links between emotion and cognition- between the way we feel and the way we think. The findings of many studies indicate that our current moods can strongly influence several aspects of cognition. Another way in which affect influences cognition is through its impact on the style of information processing we adopt.

The experience of emotion and its evaluation involves diverse brain regions. Lane (2000) has argued that complex, blended emotions are

mediated by distinct hierarchically organized brain structures. From this perspective, unconscious emotional responses are governed by lower brain areas while the appraisal of emotion and reactive behaviours require higher cortical mechanisms.

Austin (2004) have examined the relationship between trait emotional intelligence (EI) and tasks involving the recognition of facial expressions of emotion. Two facial expression recognition tasks using the inspection time (IT) paradigm assessed speed of emotional information processing. An unspeeded emotion recognition task was also included, and a symbol IT task was used to assess speed of processing of non-emotional information. It was found that scores on all three emotion-related tasks were strongly intercorrelated as were scores on all the three IT tasks. The two emotional IT scores remained significantly correlated when symbol IT performance was partialled out.

Bastia et al. (2005) claimed that people with higher emotional intelligence are more satisfied in their life and they perceived better problem solving and coping ability. Different studies revealed different amazing results on emotional intelligence. It was reported that overall E.I., perceiving emotion and regulating emotions all contributed positively to individual cognitive based performance, but understanding emotions did not add to the explanation of variance in individual cognitive based performance over and above the level attributable to general intelligence.

Jausovec and Jausovec (2005) have studied the differences in induced gamma and upper alpha oscillations in the human brain related to verbal/performance and emotional intelligence. 30 respondents participated in the study who could be clustered as high-average verbal/performance intelligent (HIQ/AIQ) or emotionally intelligent (HEIQ/ AEIQ). The EEG was recorded

while students were performing two tasks: the Raven's advanced progressive matrices (RAPM), and identifying emotions in pictures (IDEM). Significant differences in event related desynchronization/ synchronization (ERD/ ERS) related to verbal/ performance intelligence were only observed for the IDEM task. HEIQ individuals displayed more gamma band ERS and less upper alpha band ERD than did AEIQ individuals. It was concluded that HIQ and HEIQ individuals employed more adequate strategies for solving the problems at hand. The results further suggest that emotional intelligence represent distinct components of the cognitive architecture.

Bennett, Bendersky and Lewis (2005) have examined cognitive ability and negative emotionality, maternal characteristics (parenting, verbal intelligence, and depressive symptoms), environmental risk, and child sex among 184, 4-year old, predominantly African American children. Regression analyses indicated that cognitively skilled children who resided in relatively low risk environments with verbally intelligent mothers possessed greater emotional knowledge. Proximal (4-year) child cognitive ability was a stronger predictor than distal (2 -year) cognitive ability. Positive parenting at 4 years was correlated with child emotion knowledge, but this relation disappeared when parenting was examined in the context of other predictors. These findings highlight the potential role of child cognitive ability, along with environmental risk and maternal verbal intelligence, in children's emotion knowledge and demonstrate the importance of examining a variety of predictors for their unique contribution to emotion knowledge.

Bastian, Burns and Nettelbeck (2006) investigated relationship between emotional intelligence and problem solving on 246 predominantly first-year tertiary students and the results showed that higher emotional intelligence was correlated with better perceived problem solving .

Bay and Lim (2006) had examined the relationship between the seven variables of Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences and the four components of the emotional intelligence construct. Three hundred sixty upper primary school students (age range 10-11 years) completed the Teele Inventory of Multiple Intelligences, Teele (1995) and the Mayer- Salovey- Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test- Youth Research Version (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2002). Results found a negative correlation between interpersonal and interpersonal intelligence, logical/mathematical intelligence is negatively correlated with interpersonal intelligence, and no relationship was found between a student's interpersonal intelligence and their total emotional intelligence quotient.

Emotional intelligence may influence appraisals of stressful tasks and subsequent task performance. The study made by Lyons and Schneider (2006) examined the relationship of ability-based EI facets with performance under stress. They expected that 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. Results revealed that certain 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.

In recent years working memory deficits have been reported in users of MDMA (3,4- methyl-enedioxymethamphetamine, ecstasy). In order to assess the impact of MDMA use on three separate central executive processes (set shifting, inhibition and memory updating) and also on 'prefrontal' mediated social and emotional judgement processes; Reay, Hamilton, Kennedy and Scholey (2006) studied among 15 polydrug ecstasy users and 15 polydrug non-ecstasy user controls who have completed a general drug use

questionnaire, the Brixton Spatial Anticipation task (set shifting), Backward Digit Span procedure (memory updating), Inhibition of Return (inhibition), an emotional intelligence scale, the Tromso Social Intelligence Scale and the Dysexecutive Questionnaire (DEX) compared with MDMA- free polydrug controls, MDMA polydrug users showed impairments in set shifting and memory updating, and also in social and emotional judgement processes. The latter two deficits remained significant after controlling for other drug use. These data lend further support to the proposal that cognitive processes mediated by the prefrontal cortex may be impaired by recreational ecstasy use.

Another study attempted to reveal the role of emotional intelligence in syllogistic reasoning ability of problem solving was put forth by Alex and Ajawani (2008). A final sample of 120 students with high emotional intelligence and 120 students with low emotional intelligence were selected randomly after administering emotional intelligence test on a larger population selection studying in 11th class. The selection of high and low emotional intelligent subjects was based on Q1 and Q3 statistics. A syllogistic reasoning problem solving ability test was administered to assess subjects syllogistic reasoning problem solving ability. It was found that average score on syllogistic reasoning problem solving ability of students with high emotional intelligence score (M= 13.19) is greater than those with low emotional intelligence (M=12.37). The obtained CR (CR=2.70) is significant at 0.01 level of significance and provides empirical ground to retain research hypothesis.

The relationship of emotional intelligence with coping strategies, was examined in adults (n=599) by Pashang and Singh (2008). The results revealed that problem solving was used more by people with high level of E.I. It means that they tried to cope with their problems intellectually. The mean scores on problem solving, distraction positive and acceptance

strategies showed that the subjects with high levels of E.I used these strategies more than those with low levels of EI. On the other hand, the subjects with the lowest levels of EI coped with their anxiety through distraction negative, religion, denial or social support more than the other strategies. The results of the study confirmed that individuals in medium level of EI also used acceptance strategy more than other strategies these type of people accept the stressful situation at the first step and then try to use the other strategies.

Personality correlates

Personality refers to individual differences in the ways in which people confront challenges of the world. Emotions contribute to thought and also have linkage with personality. The construct of personality type and emotional intelligence have attracted researchers in the area of psychology and other social sciences.

Though, emotion plays an important role in linking personality, in this context emotional intelligence is proposed as a way of identifying and organizing the specific skills needed to understand and experience emotions most adaptively (Goleman, 1995; Mayer, 1995; Mayer and Salovey, 1993; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Following are some studies relevant to different personality aspects and emotional intelligence.

Kokkonen and Pulkkinen (2001) in their longitudinal study examined the role of extraversion and neuroticism as antecedents of emotion regulation and dysregulation among 89 women and 81 men (27 years) by using standardized version of Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), further at the age of 33, the subjects completed the Big Five personality inventory, a

authorized adaptation of NEO personality inventory. Whereas emotion regulation was measured by the 'Repair' subscale of the meta regulation scale and emotion social support was measured by the life situation questionnaire (at the age of 36 years). Structural equation modeling demonstrated that prior neuroticism led to higher emotional ambivalence (disregulation) and lowered use of 'Repair' and extraversion, on the other hand was linked to lower emotional ambivalence at age 36. Extraversion also led to higher attempts to rely on emotional social support to regulate emotions but less interest in using 'Repair'. Correlational findings revealed that extraversion and neuroticism showed differential continuity between ages 27 and 33.

Another study exploring link between emotional intelligence and personality traits (extraversion and neuroticism) have been reported by Lopes, Salovey and Straus (2003) in a sample of 103 college students. The association between emotional intelligence and personality traits remained statistically significant, as the results showed that higher emotional intelligence is positively linked with neuroticism as assessed by MSCEIT and Big-Five personality test.

Furnham and Petrides (2004) made a study hypothesized that trait EI would be a positive predictor of happiness and that this relationship would remain statistically significant even after controlling for the effects of the Big five personality factors. It was further hypothesized that cognitive ability would not be significantly associated with either trait EI or happiness. Participants completed measures of trait EI, happiness, personality and cognitive ability. Results revealed that cognitive ability was not related either to happiness or to trait EI. Trait EI explained over 50% of the total variance in happiness. The positive relationship between trait EI and happiness

persisted with the Big five, but the Big five personality dimensions did not account for a significant amount of happiness variance when trait EI was partialled out.

Another study examining the relationship of emotional intelligence with leadership effectiveness and success was reported by Srivastava and Bharamanaikar (2004) among 291 Indian army officer using a structured interview schedule. Emotional intelligence was measured using work profile questionnaire (EI version), and leadership effectiveness was assessed by MLQ-5x, where subordinates identified the leadership style. Study showed a strong relationship between EI and transformational leadership. Showing a significant correlation, the results indicated that army officers with higher scores on the EI perceived them to be more successful in their careers. It was concluded that high EI augments transformational leadership behaviours, thereby enhancing leadership effectiveness.

Vanderzee and Wabeke (2004) have examined the interactions between trait emotional intelligence and the Big-Five personality traits. Three higher order factors were found to underlie the Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On 1997): sense of accomplishment, empathy and planfulness. Trait-EI was found to be substantially related to Extraversion, Agreeableness, Emotional stability and Autonomy. Nevertheless, the EI-factors predicted additional variance over and above the Big- five competency to support.

Warwick and Nettelbeck (2004) have studied among 84 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, Solovey 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, but agreeableness and emotional knowledge ($P < 0.01$) and abstract reasoning ability ($P < 0.05$) were. 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.

Austin, Saklofske and Egan (2005) had studied relationship between emotional intelligence, personality and alexithymia among Canadian ($N=500$) and Scottish ($N=204$) groups. EI was found to be negatively associated with alexithymia and the results also show that EI is more strongly associated with personality factors.

In and another study done by Barbuto and Burbach (2006) the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership was explored. 80 officials were considered as leaders and the staffers as members. Results showed that the emotional intelligence of the leaders shared significant variance with self perceptions and rater perceptions of transformational leadership. The result also somewhat support the predictive value of emotional intelligence in antecedent leadership field research.

Chan (2006) assessed the self perceptions of gifted students ($N=212$) regarding their creativity, family hardiness and emotional intelligence. The

results of regression analysis indicated that family hardiness and emotional intelligence had separate and direct effects on self-perceived creativity, and their effects were additive, rather than multiplicative, as their interaction terms did not yield significant increment in variance accounted for in the criterion of prediction. Similar results were obtained when different components of emotional intelligence were considered with some suggestive evidence that family hardiness could interact with specific components of emotional intelligence in the prediction.

Day, Therrien and Carroll (2006) had explored the relationship among emotional intelligence (as assessed by a trait-based measure the EQ-i), Big five personality factors and type-A behavior pattern (TABP). Results revealed that EQ-i was highly correlated with most aspects of personality and TABP, concluding that personality aspects and type-A behavior pattern are good predictors of emotional intelligence.

Depape, Hakim-Larson, Voelker, page et al (2006) had examined self-talk as a predictor of emotional intelligence among a diverse sample of 126 undergraduate participants (42 male, 84 female) 'self-talk' has been discussed in the literature as a means of enhancing self-awareness and self regulation, both of which are considered important in the construct of emotional intelligence. The results indicated that year of study and self talk were significant predictors of emotional intelligence and were associated with emotional intelligence in a positive direction.

Jahoda, Pert and trower (2006) reported two studies in which they compared the emotion recognition and perspective-taking abilities of 43 frequently aggressive individuals and 46 non aggressive individuals. The perspective taking task required participants to distinguish between reactions

of angry versus calm characters. Although both groups had similar success with elements of the task, the aggressive group proved better at predicting character's attributions. Results suggest that deficits in emotion recognition and perspective taking cannot be assumed to be causal or maintaining factors of frequent aggression.

Kumar and Bhushan (2006) have examined the relationship among emotional intelligence and personality factors. The questionnaires of EIQ and Big-5 were administered on 120 male students of ITI Guwahati. Regression analysis confirmed that personality predicted self-awareness and self-management dimensions of emotional intelligence. Correlation between adjustment (personality dimension) and self-management (EI Dimension) was highly positive, showing that an adjusted person will also be able to manage himself/ herself. Personality was found as a predictor of self-awareness and self management. However sociability (personality dimension) had a negative correlation with social skills (E.I. dimension).

Another study, comparing emotional intelligence and the personality factors of the five factor model (FFM) as predictors of task induced stress responses. Participants (N=200) were randomly assigned to 1 of 4 task conditions, 3 of which were designed to be stressful. Results confirmed that low EI was related to worry states and avoidance coping, even with the FFM statistically controlled. However EI was not specifically related to task-induced changes in stress state. Results also confirmed that neuroticism is related to distress, worry and emotion-focused coping and conscientiousness predicted use of task-focused coping (Matthews, Emo, Funke and Zeidner, 2006).

To examine the utility of dispositional models of emotional intelligence (EI), Shulman and Hemenover (2006) studied whether dispositional EI is synonymous to personality. Participants (N=116) completed measures of three EI dispositions viz perception, understanding, regulation of emotions and Big-five traits. Results revealed that dispositional EI is not synonymous with personality and predicts meaningful life outcomes above and beyond the big-five personality traits.

Iveevic, Brackett and Mayer (2007) examined the relationship between EI and emotional creativity (EC) in which EI and EC were expected to be two distinct sets of abilities. Intercorrelations and confirmatory factor analyses supported the hypothesis that the relationship between EI and EC corresponds to the relationship between cognitive intelligence and creative ability. Self report measure of EC significantly correlated with laboratory and self-reported creativity measures in both the studies, while ability measures of EC only correlated with self reported artistic activity. Finally, EI was found uncorrelated with creative behavior. In order to examine the relationship between curiosity and emotional intelligence in a sample of graduate and undergraduate students in business administration courses (N=312), Leonard and Harvey (2007) have made an attempt. Curiosity was assessed using the Melbourne Curiosity Index (MCI, Naylor, 1981) and the curiosity and exploration Inventory (CEI, Kashdan, Rose and Fincham, 2004). EI was measured using the Trait Meta-Mood scale (TMMS; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Thrvey and Palfai, 1995). The results indicated that there is a significant relationship between trait curiosity and emotional intelligence.

Singh and Saini (2007) have studied emotional intelligence and aggression in association with coronary heart diseases. Correlations reveal

that persons who are self motivated, they are emotionally stable and less prone to aggressive behavior. Findings also reveal that the persons who are better in managing the relations are less aggressive and hostile. Furthermore, management of certain emotional aspects and aggression have the meaningful impact in the prevention and rehabilitation of CHD patients.

Next review deals with the study of relationship between emotional intelligence and self esteem of adolescents (N=80) by Mishra and Ranjan (2008). Emotional intelligence was measured with the help of Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory (MEII) and self-esteem was measured with the help of Canadian self-esteem Inventory (CSEI) – (Adult form). The correlation was found to be 0.61, which is sufficiently high positive. The results thus, revealed that the emotional intelligence and self-esteem are positively correlated.

To find out the relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and creativity among the undergraduate colleges students, Nasar and Nasar (2008) have made an investigation and the obtained results showed that emotional intelligence, which consists of two components, first one is the ability to appraise, express, regulate and utilize one's own emotions and the second one is the ability to appraise and regulate emotions in other, both are related to subjects creativity and its three prime components namely, fluency, flexibility and originality. It was concluded that creative persons are emotional as well as emotionally sensitive and higher potentialities like emotional intelligence and creativity are significantly correlated.

Suri(2008) investigated the impact of emotional intelligence on adjustment of adolescents (N=400) studying in class twelve of various schools affiliated to CBSE, New Delhi. They were subjected to emotional

intelligence inventory' (Mangal and Mangal) and Bell's Adjustment Inventory developed and standardized by Ojha. Results revealed a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and adjustment among the students.

Rathee (2009) have investigated the interrelationship between emotional intelligence and adjustment among female college students (N=100), (50 sports person and 50 non sports person) who were administered the sevenfold emotional intelligence scale and adjustment inventory for college students. The results depicted that a significant correlation at 0.01 level was found between emotional intelligence and overall adjustment, with regard to the sports group. The finding of this study have revealed that the sports and physical activities undoubtedly contribute positively to one's emotional intelligence and overall adjustment. It was concluded that both emotional intelligence and overall adjustment do influence each other and are also interrelated.

Occupational correlates

The work plays a central role in people's life. Therefore, the workplace is the ideal setting for the promotion of social and personal competencies which are vital for a healthy and productive life. The concept of emotional Intelligence has become very significant in behavioural science as well as in business management. It may help organizations to hire emotionally healthy and potentially successful personnel Goleman's prediction of success at workplace with high EI (Goleman, 1998) seemed as a ray of hope in the changing business world. Dealing objectively with emotions is extremely important for the productive management of organizations. Emotional intelligence may be the most important influencer of success on the job,

according to studies done over the last decade. The emotional intelligence factor has been shown to be four times as accurate in predicting efficiency at the work place as the traditional IQ factor. It is essential in organizations in order to maintain a cordial relation with co-workers, clients, public and other people which is essential for the growth of the organization. Studies done in the organizational contexts show the importance of emotional intelligence in handling the problems in organizations.

The benefits of applying EI in the workplace may include higher tolerance for stress, better people management skills and more effective performance as part of a team (Klohn, 1996).

Researches have also showed the linkages between job satisfaction and EI. Higher levels of EI predicted higher levels of job satisfaction and stronger connections with co-workers and supervisors (Abraham, 1999). Fisher (2000) linked emotions and moods with job satisfaction. Recently, Cote and Morgan (2002) found that amplification of positive emotions increased job satisfaction while suppression of unpleasant emotions decreased job satisfaction.

The EI construct has important implication for maintaining the commitment, productivity, and job satisfaction (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997) . In the organization domain, several studies examine the relevance and prevalence of emotional intelligence in the context of the corporate sector.

Singh (2003) compared Japanese and Indian managers and concluded that Japanese managers were high on thinking, while Indian managers were high on feeling. Further it has been argued that since Indians, by and large have high affiliation need, this needs to be tapped effectively through the appropriate use of the concept of EI that yields enhancement in productivity. This shows that the need of EI is not uniform across occupations.

The relationship of EI was studied with leadership effectiveness, success and job satisfaction among Indian army officers by Srivastava (2003). It was found that emotionally more intelligent army officers adopted a transformational style of leadership to motivate their subordinates to perform beyond expectations. They also perceived them to be more successful in their careers.

Higgs (2004) have studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and performance in UK call centers. To explore the relationship between the EI of call center agents and ratings of their performance, a sample of 289 agents from three organizations was studied. Results included a strong relationship between overall EI and individual performance as well as between several EI elements from the model and performance concluding that individuals having good emotional intelligence were better on their work performance.

Another study examining the relationship of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among 291 Indian army officers using a structured interview schedule was reported by Srivastava and Bharamanaikar (2004). The result showed that the overall regression equation between the dimensions of EI as predictors and job satisfaction as criterion variable was not significant. This result suggested that EI does not contribute towards satisfaction with the job. Whereas, other researches have showed the linkages between job satisfaction and EI. Higher levels of EI predicted higher levels of job satisfaction and stronger connections with co-workers and supervisors (Abraham,1999; Kahn, 1990). Kahn (1990) in his study of job satisfaction reported that more psychologically meaningful job tasks resulted when those tasks included positive interactions with coworkers.

Sy and Cote (2004) have given their view that organizations continue to employ the matrix organizational form as it enables companies to use human resources flexibly, produce innovative solutions to complex problems in unstable environments and increase information flow through the use of lateral communication channels. Despite its strengths, the matrix has inherent problems. They identified that there are four interpersonal challenges that impede matrix performance: misaligned goals increase competition among employees, roles and responsibilities are unclear, decision making is untimely and of possibly low quality and silo-focused employees do not cooperate. It was proposed that emotionally intelligent employees can function better in matrix. Solutions were offered for both managers and employees to improve performance in matrix organizations by applying the four components of emotional intelligence, specifically managing, understanding, using and perceiving emotion to each interpersonal change.

Vander Zee and Wabeke (2004) examined the usefulness of trait-emotional intelligence among a sample of 1,186 top managers who filled out questionnaires for emotional intelligence and were evaluated by a consultant on their competencies. Three higher order factors were found to underlie the Bar-On emotional quotient Inventory (Bar-On,1997): Sense of accomplishment, empathy and planfulness. On the whole, top managers scored higher on the EI dimensions compared with a general population sample. High EI scores were particularly found among managers from enterprising occupational environments that is environments dominated by activities that entail persuading the leading others to attain organizational goals or economic gain.

Another review was reported by Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts (2004) for conceptualizations and empirical evidence in support of emotional

intelligence and its claimed role in the occupational environment. Consideration is given to the purported status of EI in occupational and career assessment (with particular emphasis on personal selection and placement), Job performance, and satisfaction. Overall this review demonstrates that recent research has made important strides towards understanding the usefulness of EI in the workplace. The review concludes by providing a number of practical guidelines by providing a number of practical guidelines for the development and implementation of EI measures within occupational settings.

The study made by Duran, Extremera & Rey (2005) investigating the relationship among dimensions of self reported Emotional Intelligence, burnout and engagement among staff in services for people with intellectual disabilities had investigated that emotional clarity was significantly associated with personal accomplishment and dedication. Further, repair to moods (subscale of work engagement scale) was significantly correlated with all engagement dimensions and with personal accomplishment. The study shows significant relationships with emotional functioning and work related with emotional functioning and work related variables in a professional sample.

Wong, Wong and Law (2005) have studied the interaction effect of emotional intelligence and emotional labour on job satisfaction, using a sample of 307 respondents from six different jobs, findings that emotional intelligence and the nature of job requirement (i.e. emotional labour) have an interacting effect on job satisfaction.

Clanton (2006) have examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and self esteem as they relate to job satisfaction. Preliminary analysis of the data did not provide statistically significant results. However,

in another study Muhammad (2006) aimed to predict job satisfaction as a factor of emotional Intelligence among a diverse group of two hundred participants, results indicated that an individual's emotional intelligence quotient was a significant predictor of the level of job satisfaction.

Pradhan, Awasthy, Kumar and Patnayak (2006) have attempted to examine the role of emotional intelligence in conflict management and organizational commitment. The study was conducted on 66 (male) executives randomly selected from various departments of a reputed private organization, on which EQ inventory (Bar-On, 1997), conflict management scale (Sayeed, 2001) and organizational commitment scale (Sayeed, 2001) were administered. The results showed that emotional intelligence very poorly correlates and moderately contributes to organizational commitment and conflict management strategies. Further, it was revealed that different dimensions of emotional intelligence were found to be poorly associated with organizational commitment and conflict management. Except few, most of the correlations are not statistically significant. It shows that there exist a poor association between emotional intelligence, organizational commitment and conflict management. By implication it can be said that EI may not be having high correlation with organizational commitment and for better conflict management. EI is only contributing significantly to integrating strategy of conflict management and does not contributes much in predicting organizational commitment and for better conflict management.

However, an another study investigating the relation of employee and manager emotional intelligence to job satisfaction and performance made by Sy. Tram and O' Hara (2006) among 187 food service employees from nine different locations of the same restaurant franchise, have found that the employee's emotional intelligence was positively associated with job

satisfaction and performance. In addition, manager's emotional intelligence had a more positive correlation with job satisfaction for employees with low emotional intelligence than for those with high emotional intelligence. Wasylyshyn, Gronsky and Haas (2006) made a survey focused on the effectiveness of a coaching program commissioned by a global company for high potential employees who wanted to develop their emotional competence. Survey results indicated sustained learning and behaviour change among program participants over an extended period. Successful outcomes appeared to be related to the careful scrutiny of program participants, a collaborative model, an insight-oriented coaching approach and persistent efforts to brand the program as a developmental resource.

Pandey and Kothari (2007) have made a study to investigate the influence of emotional intelligence and A/B personality type on learning styles among executives and to describe how an aspect of learning theory, specifically learning styles, can be applied to the development of the behavioural patterns of executives through training programs. 50 executives were related from two organizations in manufacturing industry. The findings of the study revealed that emotional intelligence and personality type has a positive effect on the learning styles among executives. It further revealed that the executives who have higher emotional intelligence are inclined towards theoretical style of learning and give second preference to pragmatist learning, on the other hand individuals with average level of emotional intelligence prefer reflector and pragmatist style of learning, whereas the individuals having lower levels of E.I. showed a scattered preference in their learning style.

Next review deals with the study made by Thangapandian and Prithivikashini (2007) which focuses on the relationship between emotional

intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior among 70 professionals working in the various software companies. The result indicate that all five dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviours i.e. altruism, civic sense, courtesy, conscientiousness and sportsmanship have a significant relationship with emotional intelligence. This shows that the individuals in general have a helping tendency, support and participation in job activities, respect for other individuals, proper role performance and is also sportive while working in an organization.

The issue of occupational stress and conflict among nurses is a major concept. Developing the competencies of EI and understanding how to effectively handle conflict is necessary for nurses working in a highly stressful occupation. Keeping this in view Morrison (2008) aimed at determining the relationship between EI and preferred conflict handling styles of registered nurses (N=94) working in three south Mississippi health Care facilities. 92 valid sets of data instruments were collected for this study. Results showed that higher levels of EI, positively correlated with collaborating and negatively with accommodating.

Brackett et al., (2010) examined the relationship between emotion regulation ability (ERA) as assessed by MSCEIT and both job satisfaction and burnout among secondary school teachers (n=123), also examining the mediating effects of affect and principal support on these outcomes. ERA was associated positively with positive affect, principal support, job satisfaction and one component of burn out, personal accomplishment. Two path model demonstrated that both positive affect and principal support mediated independently the association between ERA and both personal accomplishment and job satisfaction.

Psychometric Correlates

Emotional intelligence measures vary widely in both their content and in their method of assessment. In particular, emotional intelligence measures tend to use either a self-report personality based approach, or an ability-based assessment procedure. There is now an array of validated instruments for the assessment of different aspects of emotional intelligence model (Baron, 2000; Mayer et.al., 2000; Boyatzis et al., 2000).

Thingujam and Ram (2000) made an attempt at Indian adaptation of emotional intelligence scale (Schulte et al, 1998) but no item modification was made. The internal consistency was estimated at 0.89. They made a classification of the individual status on EI ranging from below average to very superior, which is based on general intelligence classification. As a part of the convergent validity studies they also reported that EI was correlated strongly and positively with coping with stress, moderately and negatively with trait-anxiety, and slightly and positively with belief in social relation (Thingujam and Ram, 1999).

Latha, Sriram, Surendran and A. Suresh (2002) aimed to construct and validate a questionnaire to measure the emotional competence of individual which is applicable to Indian sample. The factor analysis of 52 item version of the scale resulted in 2 major components, emotional competency and emotional incompetency. This resulted in 37 items of which 25 items measured directly the competency and remaining 12 items measuring emotional sensitivity and reactivity. Discriminant validity resulted in a single competence function discriminating those who score high and low on the scale. The moderate reliability of the test score indicates the usefulness of test in measuring the emotional competence level of individuals across life. It was concluded that the four factors of this scale viz. emotional competence,

emotional sensitivity, emotional insulation and emotional withdrawal to a large extent estimate the maturity of an individual and his emotional skills.

The Psychometric properties of the empathy quotient (EQ) measured by Baron- Cohen (2003) were examined by Muncer and Ling (2006). In particular, confirmatory factor analysis comparing a unifactorial structure and a three correlated factor structure proposed by Lawrence et al., (2004) was a better fit. Exploratory analysis using modification indices suggests that it might be possible to measure the three factors of empathy; cognitive empathy, emotional reactivity and social skills with three five item scales. The problems of self report measures were discussed as were the problems posed by the pattern of sex differences on these three factors.

The emotional intelligence (EI) Scale devised by Schulte et al., (1998) is widely used in EI research. There have been criticisms of this scale, mainly related to its preponderance of forward-keyed items; differing results on its factor structure also exist. Austin, Saklofske, Huang and Mckenney (2004) investigated the effect on the scale's psychometric properties of reversing some items and adding some new items. The short form of Bar-on EQ- i was completed by the same group of participants, comprising 500 canadian undergraduates. The use of item reversals and additional items was found not to improve the EI scale's internal reliability. In contrast to previous studies, only three factors could be identified for the new 41 item scale: optimism/ mood regulation, utilization of emotions and Appraisal of emotions. Overall EI measured using the 41-item scale and the short EQ-i were highly correlated, whilst correlations between the subscales of the two tests were theoretically interpretable.

Bhattacharya, Dutta and Mandal (2004) have attempted a study to examine the factor structure of the construct of emotional intelligence in

India (N= 101), M=71, F=30, M age = 27.66 years). From a pool of items drawn from various scales developed in Western countries, 49 items were selected that were subjected to principal component factor analysis followed by varimax rotation. Analysis yielded five factors: 'appraisal of negative emotions', 'appraisal of positive emotions,' ' interpersonal conflicts and difficulties, 'interpersonal skills and flexibility' and 'emotional facilitation and goal orientedness' Finding suggested that the construct of emotional inter-personal skills and flexibility, and goal-onwarding intelligence involve appraisal and experience of emotion for self an inter-personal situations in valence-specific terms (positive-negative) in India.

Day and Carroll (2004) examined the construct and criterion- related validity of an ability-based measure of EI (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000) were examined. The four factor model for the MSCEIT fet the data well. The MSCEIT sub-scales were modestly co-related with personality, unrelated to individual-level citizenship behavior, and some what related to group-level citizenship behavior. Only the emotional perception scale of the MSCEIT was correlated with performance on a cognitive decision- making task.

Another study exploring approaches to the development of emotional intelligence was made by Dulewicz and Higgs (2004). Technical data on the instruments used to measure EI, the emotional intelligence questionnaire (EIQ) and the EQ-i (Bar-on 1997) are reported. Findings from three studies involving managers, team leaders and the skippers and crews from around the world yacht race and presented to explore whether emotional Intelligence scores change after training and other experiences. A revised model to explain how the elements of emotional intelligence are related to each other in presented and tested, and possible explanations of why some elements are more amenable to development actions are proposed.

Latha (2004) have made an attempt to assess the reliability validity and utility of the emotional competence scale (ECS). The reliability measures and concurrent validity of the 37 item scale established on multiple representative samples. Using product moment correlation a test-retest reliability coefficient of 0.76 was obtained. The questionnaire is validated against Hardiness scale, intelligence scale the findings reveals a stable, internally consistent measure of emotional competency and a sensitive tool.

Law, Wong and Song (2004) reviewed the definition of emotional intelligent (EI) and argued that EI is conceptually distinct from personality. In their study 1, they showed that EI was related to yet distinct from personality dimensions and that it had incremental predictive power on life satisfaction. They further examined the construct validity of self- reports and other's ratings of EI using two samples in study 2. In a student sample, parent's ratings explained additional variance in the student's life satisfaction and feelings of powerlessness after controlling for the Big-five personality dimensions. Whereas in the work sample, peer rating were found to be significant predictors of job performance ratings, provided by supervisors after controlling for the Big-five personality dimensions.

Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) had used meta-analytic techniques to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and performance outcomes. This study was aimed at investigation of predictive validity and nomological net. A total of 69 independent studies were located that reported correlations between EI and performance or other variables such as general mental ability (GMA) and the Big five factors of personality (extraversion, Neuroticism, Agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience). Results indicated that across criteria, EI had an operational validity of 0.23 various moderating influences such as the EI measure used, dimensions of EI, scoring method and criterion were evaluated. EI correlated

0.22 with general mental ability and 0.23 (agreeableness and openness to experience) to 0.34 (extraversion) with the Big five factors of personality.

Sibia, Misra and Srivastava (2005) have made a study whose central focus was on incorporating the dimensions of emotional intelligence, delineated in the Indian socio cultural context and the conceptualization and development of a measure of emotional intelligence in the Indian socio cultural context. The emotional intelligence test (EIT) developed as a result of this study was based on four dimensions of EI and incorporates the aspects of affective functioning in the Indian context. The components included social sensitivity, pro-social behavior, action tendencies and affective states guided constructing the items across all the four dimensions namely identifying, assimilating, understanding, and regulating the affective processes. It possess test retest reliability coefficient of 0.75 and content validity was also established.

For the purpose of development and validation of a self report measure of 10 facets emotional intelligence, as a multidimensional trait domain; Tett, fox and Wang (2005) had undertaken three studies (N=138, 163, 152). Results support the reliability (internal consistency, test-retest) and validity (content, criterion, construct, structural) of the proposed scales and their distinctiveness among themselves and with respect to more established trait domains (eg. Personality). Specifically, three satisfaction and four cross cultural adaptability facets were predicated uniquely by 9 of the 10 proposed subscales, controlling for social desirability, the Big five, positive and negative affect, and self monitoring. Result confirm that trait- EI can be measured using self-report and conceptualized as a distinct multidimensional domain.

Another study investigating the association between perceived emotional intelligence (PEI) measured by the Trait Meta-Mood scale (TMMS), and life satisfaction in Spanish undergraduate university students, was reported by Extremera and Fernandez-Berrocal (2006). Specially, the predictive and incremental validity of this self-report measure of emotional intelligence was examined. Whether PEI would account for variance in satisfaction with life beyond the level attributable to mood states and personality traits, was investigated. Correlation analysis showed significant associations between clarity and repair and higher life satisfaction. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis confirmed these findings and indicated that clarity accounted further variance in life satisfaction not accounted for by mood states and personality traits. These findings extend previous studies and provide additional support for the incremental validity of the TMMS suggesting that clarity contribute to life satisfaction independently from well-known mood states constructs and personality traits.

Gignac (2006) examined relation between self-reported emotional intelligence and life satisfaction by testing incremental predictive validity hypotheses via structural equation modeling (SEM) in a small sample. In this investigation, structural equation modeling was used for the purposes of modeling a general EI factor as a potential incrementally predictive predictor of life satisfaction. The results demonstrated that a general EI Factor was associated with SWLS as $\beta=0.61$ and that this effect was only partially mediated by PA and NA, such that the validity coefficient was reduced to $\beta=0.49$.

Based on characterization of the emotional intelligence, a scale in Hindi language has been developed by Kumar and Bhatia (2006) to measure various aspects of emotional intelligence on different samples. Different procedures followed for estimating reliability and validity of this scale. The

final form of the emotional intelligence scale (EIS) contained 44 items, distributed in four dimensions of emotional intelligence scale which covers both positive and negative items viz. recognizing emotions (self), recognizing emotions (others), understanding emotions and using emotions. In order to obtain the split-half reliability, the test was administered and responses of these were used and the odd-even items were correlated and corrected by using Spearman Brown prophecy formula to give an r of 0.92. The test-retest reliability was also determined on an interval of two weeks which was found 0.86 and after an interval of two months 0.83. Kuder Richardson (KR) Reliability of the scale was found 0.81. Furthermore, the scale possesses logical validity or validity by definition which is another name for content validity. It also justified the face validity.

Further, a comprehensive review of research regarding five types of validity for each of four major tests used to measure emotional intelligence (EI) was provided in an article of McEnrue and Groves (2006). It culls and synthesizes information scattered among a host of articles in academic journals, technical reports, chapters and books, as well as unpublished papers and manuscripts. It enables human resource development professionals and researchers to determine the absolute and incremental value they are likely to derive by using any one of the tests to assess and develop emotional intelligence among managers and employees.

Sibia, Misra and Srivastava (2006) had reported on the conceptualization and development of a measure of emotional intelligence in the Indian Socio-cultural context. The 34-item scale incorporates the four dimensions of emotional intelligence (identifying, assimilating, understanding and managing emotions) with the components of emotional intelligence discerned in the Indian context-social sensitivity, prosocial interaction, action tendencies and affective states.

Tett and Fox (2006) had made a study aimed to evaluate the factor structure of six core trait-EI facets from Salovey and Mayer (1990), assess the stability of the core factor structure across student (N=184) and workers (N=225) samples, and explore relations between core EI dimensions and four proximal outcomes from the same mode. A three factor structure including “Self orientation, other orientation, and emotional sharing”, replicated well across samples. Relations involving EI outcomes were less consistent. The study concluded that trait- EI warrants assessment as specific facets rather than a global construct, core trait- EI structure may be stable across population and EI applications are context specific.

Brannick, et al., (2009) had compared the trait and ability measures of emotional intelligence among medical students, for evidence of reliability, convergence and overlap with personality. First and second year medical students completed the MSCEIT (an ability measure), the Wong & Law emotional intelligence scale (WLEIS- a trait measure) and on industry standard personality test (the NEO, Nr-Ex-openness test) results indicated that the MSCEIT showed problems with reliability. The MSCEIT and WLEIS did not correlate highly with one another (overall scores correlated at 0.18). the WLEIS was more highly correlated with personality scales than the MSCEIT. It was concluded that the different tests supposed to measure EI do not measure the same things the ability measure the same things the ability measure was not correlated high personality, but the trait measure was correlated with personality.

Miscellaneous

Layman (1972) conducted extensive review of literature that focused on emotional- social development as a consequence of sports participation and motor development and concluded that physical fitness and sports

participation do have a positive influence on emotional and social well-being. Sports activities have a significant positive association with perceived emotional intelligence, psychological and interpersonal functioning. Sports participation do produce significant effect in controlling emotional disturbances, developing healthy attitudes personality adjustments and regulating other personal characteristics like mood states and self esteem (Salovey et al., 2002; Schutte et al., 2000).

Zizzi, Deaner and Hirschhorn (2003) had explored relationship between emotional intelligence and athletic performance in a sample of 61 division I baseball players (aged 18-23 years).The subjects completed an informed consent form and the emotional intelligence scale. This study provides modest support for the link between emotional skills (i.e. emotional awareness, control and utilization) and athletic performance. The results suggest that components of emotional intelligence appear to be moderately related to pitching performance, but not related to hitting performance.

Study highlighting the importance of intervention programmes in enhancing emotional intelligence and thereby promoting meaning and quality in life intra and interpersonally, was reported by Pareek, Mittal, Hingar and Kaur (2005) to evaluate the effect of “Basic Human Process Laboratory” course in enhancing emotional intelligence and enriching meaning in life. Eight subjects participating in this course, who volunteered themselves for psychological assessment comprised the sample. Results revealed the significant improvement in post mean scores of overall emotional intelligence and its components like self awareness, self management, internality/optimism and empathy, except motivation and social skills. Pre and post mean scores of purpose in life also differed significantly showing enhanced meaning in life of the subjects.

Moving ahead to the study of Resnicow, Salovey and Repp (2005) which reports that expression of emotion in music performance is a form of non verbal communication to which people may be differentially receptive. Among 24 undergraduates, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test was applied to assess individual differences in the ability to identify, understand, reason with and manage emotions using hypothetical scenarios that are conveyed pictorially or in writing. Additionally, a listening test was used applied in which they tried to identify the intended emotions in performances of classical piano music. Emotional intelligence and emotion recognition in the music task were significantly correlated ($r=0.54$), which suggests that identification of emotion in music performance draws on some of the same sensibilities that make up everyday emotional intelligence.

Rogers, Qualter, Phelps and Gardner (2006) examined the extent to which coping strategy predicts and EI moderates, belief in paranormal. Previously, some other researches suggests that belief in the paranormal serves as a mechanism for coping with stress (Irwin, 1992) and that it is positively associated with high emotional intelligence (Dudley, 2002). Those researches were extended by taking a general population sample of 253 predominantly Caucasian respondents completed Psychometrically sound measures of each construct and applying hierarchical multiple regression analysis on the data obtained by paranormal belief scores with predictors entered in four steps i.e. demographics, then three sub-types of coping strategy (active-cognitive, active behaviour or avoidant), four subtype of EI (optimism/ mood regulation, appraisal of emotions, social skills and utilization of emotions) and 12 coping EI Interaction variables. Findings suggest a tendency not to use active behavioural coping is moderated by low emotional appraisal in predicting global paranoramal beliefs. Further, a

tendency to use avoidant coping in moderated by a high utilization of emotions in predicting the endorsement of new age philosophies.

Taute (2006) attempted to define the concept of emotional intelligence and determine whether individual differences in such a competence are discernable. Creation of such a measure allows experimentation to determine whether such a competence significantly moderates responses to positive and negative emotional appeals in public service announcements. Implications of differences in emotional intelligence for persuasive message with emotional content are discussed.

In another study 343 students were exposed to self enhancement programme with particular reference to emotional intelligence showed a significant difference in their emotional intelligence after the programme for two weeks. The follow-up showed sustained emotional intelligence after three months (Amudhadevi and Velayudhan, 2007). Another study objected to asses the emotional intelligence in working and non working women was reported by Shrivastava, Singh and Pandey (2008). For this purpose data was collected on 25 working and 25 non working women, who were matched on age, education and class. Results revealed that the mean scores for different dimensions of emotional intelligence was found to be greater in non working women than working women. The scores for self awareness for working and non working was found to be more or less similar. The T- ratios yielded significant difference for only three subscales of EI i.e. assertiveness independence and impulse control. The results did not yield significant difference between the total mean EI scores of working and non working women, confirming the null hypotheses made for the study that there would be no significant difference between the working and non working women mean scores.

Arora, Badaya and Bhatnagar (2009) have made an study to make comparison between the emotional quotient (EQ) of children of working mothers and home makers between children of working mothers with fixed time schedule and working mothers with unpredictable time schedule and between children of working women in service and children of working women in business. The results reveals that there is no significant difference between EQ of children of working mothers and home makers although it is slightly higher among children of home makers. Further it was discovered that EQ of children of working mothers with fixed time schedule is significantly higher than that of children of working mothers with unpredictable time schedule. No significant differences was found between EQ of children of working mothers in service and children of working mothers in business although it was slightly higher for children of working mothers in service. EQ of children of home-makers was significantly higher than children of working with unpredictable time schedule. But there was no significant EQ difference either between children of home-makers and children of working mothers with fixed time schedule or between children of home makers and working mothers in service or between children of home-makers and children of mothers in business.

Rathee (2009) have investigated the level of emotional intelligence among sports person and non-sports person (N=100). The results revealed that sports persons had obtained significantly higher mean scores on the emotional intelligence as compared to the non-sports person, which indicate better emotional intelligence. The results further reaffirm the view that sports participation enhances the level of emotional competence and thus resulting in higher level of emotional intelligence.