EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY TRAITS AS PREDICTORS OF LIFE SATISFACTION: A STUDY OF ADOLESCENTS, ADULTS AND AGED PERSONS

DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO UNIVERSITY OF KASHMIR IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY (M. Phil)
IN
PSYCHOLOGY

BY
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Under the Supervision of
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No: _____   Date: _____

CERTIFICATE

Certified that the dissertation **"Emotional Intelligence and Personality Traits as Predictors of Life Satisfaction: A Study of Adolescents, Adults and Aged Persons",** which is being submitted by **Amat-u-Sami,** for the award of **M.Phil Degree** in the Department of Psychology, University of Kashmir is a record of her own work, carried out under my supervision and guidance.

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Declaration

I declare that this dissertation, **Emotional Intelligence and Personality Traits as Predictors of Life Satisfaction: A Study of Adolescents, Adults and Aged Persons** in its entirety is my own original work, that I am the owner of its copyright and that I have not submitted it previously in its entirety for obtaining any degree or diploma.

All the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. This is a dissertation of limited scope and, therefore, must be viewed accordingly.

Amat-u-Sami
Investigator

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In the Name of
Almighty Allah
The Most Gracious
The Most Merciful

DEDICATED TO MY PARENTS

You are the inspiration for my interest and work in this field…..

Abstract

The present study examined the extent to which Emotional Intelligence and Personality traits predict Life Satisfaction. Secondly, the study investigated the association between i) Emotional Intelligence & Life Satisfaction ii) Personality traits & Life Satisfaction among three different populations -Adolescents (100), Adults (102) and Aged (100). The mean age of the adolescent, adult and aged participant group was 17.28, 28 and 61.45 respectively. All the three participant groups were chosen from different areas of district, Srinagar by using purposive sampling method. Emotional Intelligence and Personality traits were the predictor variables while Life Satisfaction was the criterion variable in the present study. Instruments used were SWLS (Diener et al, 1985), NEO-FFI-3 (Costa & McCrae, 1992) and MEII (Mangal & Mangal, 2004). Descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis revealed that various factors of emotional intelligence were positively correlated with life satisfaction whereas most of the personality traits showed significant (both positive and negative) correlations with life satisfaction in all the three participant groups. The present study indicated that some of the Emotional Intelligence (EI) factors emerged as the significant predictors of life satisfaction whereas among the personality traits Conscientiousness (C) and Neuroticism (N) emerged as the significant predictors of life satisfaction in the adolescent and aged participant groups respectively.

Keywords - Emotional Intelligence, Life Satisfaction, Personality Traits & Participant Groups

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LIST OF ABBREVATIONS

BFT	Big Five Traits
E1	Intra-personal awareness factor
E2	Inter-personal awareness factor
E3	Intra-personal management factor
E4	Inter-personal management factor
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EQ	Emotional Quotient
FFM	Five Factor Model
LS	Life Satisfaction
MEII	Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory
NEOAC/OCEAN	Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness
NEO-FFI-3	NEO-Five Factor Inventory-3
NEO-PI-R	Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness Personality Inventory-Revised
QOL	Quality of Life
SES	Socio-economic Status
SS	Social Support
SWB	Subjective Well-Being
SWLS	Satisfaction With Life Scale
TMMS	Trait Meta-Mood Scale

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CHAPTER- 1

INTRODUCTION

1. OVERVIEW AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the reader to the study, "Emotional Intelligence and Personality Traits as Predictors of Life Satisfaction: A Study of Adolescents, Adults and Aged Persons." The chapter is organized into three parts: the theoretical description of life satisfaction, emotional intelligence and personality traits. Each part addresses an important variable related to the present investigation. Further, a similar outline has been followed within each section so that the relationships among the individual variables may be understood in a better way. Last section of the chapter includes the purpose of the study, the research questions and definitions of variables.

1.1. CONCEPTUALIZING LIFE SATISFACTION (LS)

Life satisfaction has largely been considered to be a central aspect of human welfare. Many have identified happiness with it, and some maintain that well-being consists largely or wholly in being satisfied with one's life (Haybron, 2005). Satisfaction with one's life implies contentment with or acceptance of one's life circumstances, or the fulfillment of one's wants and needs for one's life as a whole. In essence, life satisfaction is a subjective assessment of the quality of one's life - our feeling about the activities that compose our daily life, the responsibilities and the

meaning that we attach to our lives, the achievement of our goals, having a positive ego, regarding ourselves as valuable persons and keeping an optimistic attitude and feeling.

The concept of Life satisfaction has for long been a subject of philosophical speculation. The study of satisfaction with life (SWL) has developed within the area of hedonic psychology (Kahneman, Diener, & Schwarz, 1999). Life satisfaction is often considered a desirable goal, in and of itself, stemming from the Aristotelian ethical model, eudaimonism, (from *eudaimonia*, the Greek word for happiness) where correct actions lead to individual well-being, with happiness representing the supreme good (Myers, 1992). As a psychological construct, life satisfaction is considered a cognitive process arising from an individual's assessment of his or her own life according to criteria generated internally (Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985). Further, satisfaction with life has been conceptualized as a component of subjective well-being (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). They have identified four components of subjective well-being: pleasant affect, unpleasant affect, life satisfaction and domain satisfaction (see fig.1).

The concept of life satisfaction is conceived *as the degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his/her life as a whole favorably* (Veenhoven, 1991); the term is thus used synonymously with happiness (Veenhoven, 1991) and subjective well-being (Diener, 1994). Kaalish (1975) defined life satisfaction as *accepting your life meaningfully, feeling that at least you have achieved the important goal, harmonizing with your surroundings effectively and satisfying your*

drives without having emotional and social problems. Nowadays, life satisfaction and happiness have become the main interest of studies in different fields of psychology (i.e. clinical psychology, cross-cultural psychology, social psychology, and industrial psychology) and have been transformed into what is known today as the field of *positive psychology* (Strack et al., 1991).

Figure 1: Components of Subjective Well-Being
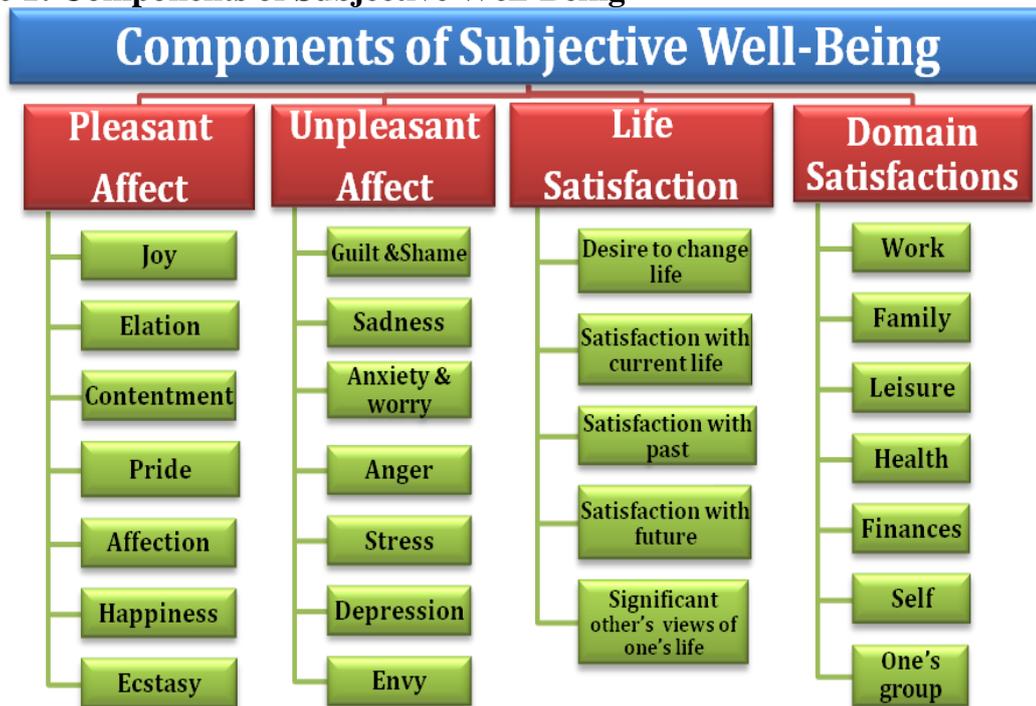
1.1.1.   Historical Development of Life Satisfaction (LS)

Gilman and Huebner (2003) suggested that research on the nature and correlates of satisfaction with life had become a focus of attention among researchers in a variety of areas of inquiry (e.g., occupational functioning, physical and mental health, education, retirement, and interpersonal relationships) during the past thirty years. Other researchers, such as Strack, Argyle and Schwarz (1991) suggested

achieving greater satisfaction in life is important not only because it is a goal for which all individuals strive but because increased life satisfaction appears to contribute to health attributes (e.g., less stress and reduced high risk behaviours such as substance abuse). Myers (1992) as well as Veenhoven (1988) reported findings that suggested people with greater satisfaction with life generally are more social, loving, forgiving, trusting, helpful, energetic, decisive and creative as well as less self-focused, hostile and vulnerable to disease. Therefore, increasing an individual's satisfaction with life may safeguard the impact of negative life events, broaden perception, increase creativity, encourage active living, foster social contact, and improve mental health. Early satisfaction with life research (e.g., Fordyce, 1983) suggested everyone strives for personal happiness or satisfaction with life. More recently satisfaction with life research such as Scollon, Diener, Oishi, and Biswas-Diener (2004) reported similar findings from an international study of both Eastern and Western college student samples suggesting the vast majority of college students around the world consider satisfaction with life to be extremely important (more important than money). Diener (1984) proposed that both satisfaction with life and the affective components of well-being are influenced by the appraisals individuals make of their life circumstances. Lawton (1983) as well as Liang (1985) suggested that while the cognitive and affective components of subjective well-being are distinct, they are also moderately correlated. Emmons and Diener (1985) as well as Bryant and Veroff (1982) suggested that satisfaction with life and the affective components of well-being are qualitatively different. Several researchers (e.g., Costa

& McCrae, 1980; Michalos, 1991) suggested that while satisfaction with life and affective well-being are moderately correlated, both may act differently across time and have different correlates. Gilman and Huebner (2003) as well as McCullough, Huebner, and Laughlin (2000) proposed that although the cognitive component (satisfaction with life) and affective components (emotion) are not exclusive of each other, they are relatively distinct in both adults and children. Gilman and Huebner (2003) argued that "Given the degree of independence between the cognitive and affective components of subjective well-being, discussions of subjective well-being should focus on each component separately". Andrews and Withey (1976) asserted that in the field of subjective well-being research, three relatively independent components have been identified: (a) positive affect, (b) negative affect, and (c) satisfaction with life. However, Diener (1984) argued that life satisfaction is one of two components of subjective wellbeing. Based upon Diener's conceptualization, satisfaction with life is the cognitive evaluation an individual makes regarding his or her global satisfaction with life across multiple domains. Moods and emotions, which together constitute the affective component, represent people's momentary evaluations of the events that occur in their lives. Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985) as well as Shin and Johnson (1978) defined satisfaction with life as an individual's personal judgment of well-being and quality of life based on his or her own chosen criteria.

Diener (1984) stated that "The hallmark of satisfaction with life is that it centres on personal judgments, not upon some criteria that is judged to be important

by the researchers". Diener (1994) noted that the more global construct of subjective well-being is a multidimensional construct, composed of cognitive appraisals (life satisfaction) and affective components. Diener, Suh, Oishi, Lucas, and Smith (1999) suggested that the most commonly accepted model of subjective well-being conceptualizes it as having an emotional component (e.g., sadness, anxiety, and joy) and a cognitive component (satisfaction with life). Although much of the quality of life literature fails to distinguish between subjective well-being and satisfaction with life, it should be noted that the constructs are not equivalent. Subjective well-being is a more broadly defined construct having both cognitive and affective components. Life satisfaction, on the other hand, is limited to the cognitive component of subjective well-being and thus tends to be more stable. Satisfaction with life is the criterion variable (dependent measure/variable) in the present study.

The first survey studies which used measures of life-satisfaction were performed in USA in the 1960's. The emphasis at that time was on mental health. The results from some of this research appeared in books by Gurin et al. (1960) and Bradburn (1969). At that time, life-satisfaction was also a topic in an innovative cross-national study on human 'concerns' by Cantril (1965). In the 1970's, life-satisfaction was a central theme in several American Social Indicator studies. Landmark books were published by Campbell et al. (1976) and Andrews and Withey (1976). Outside the United States of America studies were reported from the Nordic countries by Allardt (1975) and in Germany by Glatzer and Zapf (1984). In the 1980's the first large-scale longitudinal survey on life-satisfaction was performed in

Australia by Heady and Wearing (1992). Review studies have been published by Veenhoven (1984), Argyle (1987) and Myers (1992). Recently a bibliography has appeared, which includes 2475 contemporary studies on subjective appreciation of life (Veenhoven, 1993). This bibliography is part of the `World Database of Happiness,' which also involves the ongoing cataloguing of new data on life-satisfaction and its correlates.

1.1.2.   Approaches of Life Satisfaction (LS): Top-down and Bottom-up

Why some people are more satisfied with their lives whereas others are more dissatisfied? Are objective life circumstances such as health, socio-economic status, and material standards basic determinants of life satisfaction or are these conditions of little importance because peoples own attitudes matters more? (Berg, 2008). Theories that emphasize objective circumstances and shifting contextual sources as most influential for life satisfaction judgments are commonly labelled bottom-up theories whereas theories that focus on stable individual characteristics are commonly labelled top-down theories. These two perspectives have become organizing principles in the subjective well-being research (Diener, 1984).

iii.   Top-down:

Top-down theories state that global personality traits predispose level of life satisfaction (Eid & Diener, 2004; Heller, Watson, & Hies, 2004). Certain personality traits, in particular extraversion and neuroticism, determine to what degree people

experience happiness (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Evidence of stability of life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999) is assumed to support the top-down perspective, indicating a strong association with stable personality traits and a weak influence of current mood, situational factors or long-term influence of life events (Eid & Diener, 2004; Suh, Diener, & Fujita, 1996). Adaptation theory is one representative of the top-down perspective that provides a more complex elaboration of the finding that important life events such as changes in income, marital status, and health status only have short-term effects on life satisfaction. Brickman and Campbell (1971) described an adaptation process in terms of a hedonic treadmill; when exposed to an event that temporarily reduces or increases happiness; people have an innate, global tendency to adapt their aspirations to the new situation. The discrepancy between aspirations and actual life circumstances is reduced when the individual's personal set standard has adjusted to the changed conditions, and as a result, life satisfaction returns to a previously fixed level. The impact of a life event on life satisfaction has been found to decrease in strength and diminish after 3 months (Suh et al., 1996). This indicates that an adaptation has occurred and life satisfaction is no longer affected. However, Adaptation theory has not been left unchallenged. Recent findings of incomplete adaptation after certain life events such as marital transitions and disability (Easterlin, 2003), in addition to great individual differences in degree of adaptation (Fujita & Diener, 2005; Lucas, Clark, Georgellis, & Diener, 2003) question the notion of predestined life-long happiness. In sum, among top-down theories,

Adaptation theory is still controversial and an object for empirical testing, whereas the relevance of global personality traits is generally accepted.

iv. **Bottom-up:**

In contrast to researchers applying a top-down perspective, proponents of the bottom-up perspective build their approach on the assumption that happiness depends on the realization of certain basic and universal human needs. Consequently, contextual conditions are influential sources of life satisfaction. Some argue that life satisfaction depends on life circumstances and the individual judgment of these, whereas other bottom-up theories such as the social-cognition tradition (Strack, 1988) regard life satisfaction reports simply as expressions of what comes to mind in a given moment. Experimental studies within the social-cognition tradition have shown that level of life satisfaction depends on temporarily accessible information via mood influence (Schwarz & Strack, 1999, 1991; Schwarz, Strack, & Mai, 1991; Strack, Martin, & Schwarz, 1988). An event that comes to mind can influence reports of life satisfaction via mood in two different ways according to how the information is used; directly, as an assimilation effect, by forming the mental representation of "life today" or as a contrast effect by which current life situation can be compared. Low short-term test-retest reliability of life satisfaction (Andrews & Whithey, 1976) also confirms the influence of temporary and changing sources. Noteworthy, assumptions of fluctuating life satisfaction ratings partly rest on results from experimental studies using research designs where circumstances in personal interviews have been manipulated. Personal interviews, in contrast to completing a

questionnaire, have a more pronounced unwanted side-effect of increased risk for socially desirable answers (Moum, 1998) which may have accentuated the identified poor test-retest validity of life satisfaction judgements.

The bottom-up perspective also has proponents among researchers exploring effects of more general contextual sources. The underlying assumption is that life satisfaction is equal to the summation of pleasant and unpleasant experiences and actual conditions related to different life circumstances (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976). Researchers concerned with the influence of health, marital status, economy or social network on life satisfaction belong here. Taken together, the bottom-up perspective comprises both the view of life satisfaction as a direct expression of temporary information that comes to mind and research that investigates the importance of contextual sources such as life domains as the base of life satisfaction judgments.

Despite the apparent controversy between top-down and bottom-up theories, theoretical and empirical efforts have been made to incorporate the two. Brief et.al. (1993) developed a framework for integrating these perspectives of subjective well being. In a study by Okun and George (1984) self-rated health was related to subjective well-being, physician-rated health, and neuroticism. However, neuroticism seemed to modify the relationship between self-rated health and subjective well-being, indicating that the association between perception (self-rated health) of objective conditions (health) and subjective well-being is partly channelled by personality traits (neuroticism). Recognizing such findings, Brief and colleagues

(1993) argued that both top-down and bottom-up perspectives contribute to the understanding of subjective well-being by proposing that both global personality traits and objective life circumstances influence people's interpretations of their lives, which in turn determine well-being judgments. Some years later, Schimmack and colleagues applied a similar model on life satisfaction judgments (2002). In support of bottom-up theories life satisfaction judgments seemed to depend on accessible and relevant sources of information (Schimmack, Diener, & Oishi, 2002). Furthermore, consistent with top-down theories, life satisfaction reports were stable over time, a finding assumed to be caused by the tendency to use the same sources as the basis of life satisfaction judgments over time. In addition, top-down theories that emphasize personality traits as predictors of life satisfaction receive some support as personality traits seemed to influence the perception and selection of chronically accessible sources of life satisfaction (Brief, Butcher, George, & Link, 1993; Schimmack et al., 2002).

In summation, objective life circumstances are related to level of well-being, but individuals' perceptions act as filters of the impact and personality traits seem to have some influence on how circumstances are filtered (Brief et al., 1993). What circumstances are considered is also partly an expression of certain personality traits as people have been found to consistently choose the same accessible sources (Schimmack et al., 2002). According to these findings an integration of bottom-up and top-down perspectives might provide a theoretical framework that comprises the

complexity of life satisfaction judgments in a better way than the perspectives do separately (Berg, 2008).

1.1.3. Factors Underlying Life Satisfaction (LS)

All in all, both the concept of life satisfaction and the research conducted on the factors underlying it include many complexities. For example, in research into the factors underlying life satisfaction both bottom-up and top-down influences should be taken into account, since both types of influence have been found to be significant predictors of life satisfaction (e.g., Diener et al. 2000; Schimmack, 2007). "Bottom-up" theories proposed that perceptions of structural aspects of the environment lead to satisfaction within various life domains. Social indicators research (Glatzer & Mohr, 1987) has proceeded along the lines of bottom-up theories, under the rationale that changes in overall life satisfaction can be affected by addressing social concerns within specific domains of life. "Top-down" theories on the other hand (Staw & Ross, 1985; Stones & Kozma, 1985) propose that global satisfaction determines satisfaction with specific life facets. Social interventions may affect changes in satisfaction with specific aspects of life. It seems that global evaluations of life satisfaction may in many cases reflect dispositional tendencies such as individual norms, values and self-believes (giving a stronger top-down influence), whereas when asked to evaluate specific or more concrete domains, individuals are more constrained by how they feel and think about the actual domains (giving a stronger bottom-up influence). Thus, life satisfaction depends on how good the various objective life domains are perceived to be in a

person's life, but is additionally influenced by, for example, the degree to which the person judges global domains more positively than specific domains (Diener et al. 2000). Within the general studies investigating the factors most related to life satisfaction, it has been found that the level of one's life satisfaction is strongly dependent on factors such as economic well-being, social equality and political freedom in one's societal surroundings (Veenhoven, 1996). Nevertheless, there can be differences in life satisfaction among people who are living in a similar environment (e.g., within the same country). The following factors have been put forward as related to varying levels of life satisfaction.

People under 24 years and over 44 years of age have been reported as more satisfied with their lives than young adults (Helliwell, 2001). Both comparable and actual levels of income are significant factors predicting the level of life satisfaction; so, too, is economic status (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004; Campbell et al. 1976; Delhey, 2004; Stutzer, 2003). Employed persons are more satisfied with their lives than unemployed persons (Campbell et al. 1976; Daly & Rose, 2007; Helliwell, 2001) but housewives, people working voluntarily and senior citizens are no less satisfied than people who work (Campbell et al. 1976). Marital status and good relationships with one's children- and social support in general- are related to life satisfaction (Argyle & Martin 1991; Daly & Rose 2007; Mowbray et al. 2005). Life satisfaction is also strongly related to one's personality (Furham & Cheng, 2004; King & Smith, 2004; Lu & Hu, 2005; Veenhoven, 1996) and especially to one's sense of personal competence (Campbell et al. 1976). In addition, various kinds of

life events are important in explaining differences in life-satisfaction levels (Diener et al. 2006; Veenhoven, 1996). Men and women are similar in their overall levels of life satisfaction (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999) although women do report more positive and negative affect. Married people are more satisfied with their lives and those with life-long marriages appear to be the most satisfied (Evans & Kelly, 2004). According to Argyle (1987), it was found that men and women gain life satisfaction from different sources. While men reported that their source of greater happiness comes from material pursuits and career success, women reported experiencing greater happiness from interpersonal relationships. Medley (1980) reported that levels of happiness change amongst the genders as individuals grow older. Thus, at a younger age, women reported being happier than men, whereas at an older age, men reported being happier than women. Greater Life satisfaction occurs when there are small inconsistencies between what one expects and what one receives, whereas greater life dissatisfaction occurs when there are large inconsistencies.

1.1.4. Measurement of Life Satisfaction (LS)

In the 1960's, life-satisfaction became a common topic in survey research. This development was accompanied by a critical discussion regarding the validity of survey questions about life satisfaction. It was even doubted that life-satisfaction could be measured adequately by means of standard interviews or questionnaires. Measurement has long been understood as 'objective' and 'external' assessment, analogous to the measurement of blood-pressure by a doctor. It has now become

apparent that life-satisfaction cannot be measured in a similar manner. Steady physiological correlates have not been discovered, and the modern understanding of higher mental functioning does not suggest that they ever will be. Nor have any overt behaviours been found to be consistently linked to inner enjoyment of life. Like most attitudinal phenomena, life-satisfaction is only partially reflected in behaviour. Though some social behaviours tend to be more frequent among the satisfied (active, outgoing, friendly), such conduct can also be observed among the dissatisfied. Likewise, non-verbal behaviours such as frequent smiling or enthusiastic movements appear to be only modestly related to self-reports of life-satisfaction. Consequently, estimates of someone's life-satisfaction by his peers are often wrong. Suicidal behaviour is probably more indicative of life-satisfaction than any other behaviour. Almost all people who attempt or commit suicide are dissatisfied with life. However, not all dissatisfied people resort to suicide. Since life-satisfaction cannot be inferred from overt behaviour, we have to read off inner consciousness by questioning. Questions on life-satisfaction can be posed in various contexts; clinical interviews, life-review questionnaires and through surveys. The questions can be posed in many different ways; directly or indirectly, and by means of single or multiple items. Life-satisfaction is commonly assessed by single direct questions within the context of a survey interview. However, that practice meets much criticism. It is claimed that such simple self-reports measure life satisfaction neither validly nor reliably. Social critics in particular refuse to believe that survey studies give a good estimate of average happiness (Veenhoven, 1984).

Over the past 20 years, there has been a dramatic increase in subjective well-being research (Diener, 1984; Diener & Larsen, 1993; Pavot & Diener, 1993; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Based on a review of the subjective well-being literature, Diener (1984) found a substantial amount of empirical evidence suggesting a tripartite model of subjective well-being. More specifically, the tripartite model of subjective well-being suggests that subjective well-being consists of an individual's self-report of the presence of positive affect, the absence of negative affect, and the cognitive evaluation of life satisfaction. Individuals' self-reports of satisfaction have both a global component and a domain-specific (e.g., work satisfaction, family satisfaction) component (Diener et al., 1999). The affective and cognitive components of subjective well-being are moderately correlated, and many subjective well-being measures consist of both the affective and cognitive components (Chamberlain, 1988). However, some researchers have also found separate satisfaction and affect components (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996). Andrews and Withey (1976) found that life satisfaction formed a separate factor from the two major types of affect. Lucas et al. (1996) used multitrait- multimethod analyses to show that positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction were separate constructs. More specifically, research has suggested that the affective components and the cognitive components sometimes function differently over time and have different relationships with other variables (Beiser, 1974; DeHaes et al. 1987). Pavot and Diener (1993) point out that since the affective and cognitive components of subjective well-being have been found to be somewhat separate and distinct,

studying these components separately can provide valuable information. Up until 20 years ago, researchers had focused a great deal of attention on the affective components of subjective well-being (Pavot & Diener, 1993). On the other hand, the cognitive component of life satisfaction had received less attention in the research literature (Diener et al., 1985). Since life satisfaction often forms a separate and distinct factor from positive and negative affect, and correlates with various predictor variables in unique ways, it is important to separately study this variable (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Furthermore, according to DeNeve and Cooper (1998), life satisfaction is based on the cognitive evaluation of the quality of one's experiences that span an individual's entire life.

The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; Diener et al., 1985) was developed to measure an individual's global life satisfaction. Many variables have been found to be significantly related to the global construct of life satisfaction. For example, the personality trait of extraversion has been found to be positively correlated with life satisfaction as measured by the SWLS, whereas the personality trait of neuroticism has been found to be negatively correlated with life satisfaction (Diener et. al, 1985; Pavot & Diener, 1993). Similarly, research has found that positive affectivity is positively correlated with life satisfaction, and negative affectivity is negatively correlated with life satisfaction (George, 1991). For example, George (1991) found that the correlation between positive affectivity and life satisfaction was .47 and the correlation between negative affectivity and life satisfaction was -.26. Furthermore, life satisfaction as measured by the SWLS has been shown to be negatively

correlated with measures of distress. Blais, Vallerand, Pelletier, and Briere (1989, as cited in Pavot & Diener,1993) found a strong negative correlation (r= -.72) between life satisfaction as measured by SWLS and depression as measured by the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, Steer & Garbin, 1996).   In addition, Arrindell, Meeuwesen, and Huyse (1991, as cited in Pavot and Diener, 1993) reported that life satisfaction was negatively correlated with anxiety (r=-.54), depression (r=-.55), and general psychological distress (r=-.55).

1.2. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)

Although emotional intelligence has been adopted as a relatively new concept but over the past years, emotional intelligence has generated an enormous amount of interest both within and outside the field of psychology (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). Emotional intelligence describes the ability, capacity, skill, or self-perceived ability to identify, assess, and manage the emotions of one's self, of others, and of groups. People who possess a high degree of emotional intelligence know themselves very well and are also able to sense the emotions of others. The concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI) has generated a broad interest both in the lay (Goleman, 1995) and scientific fields (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It has become a very popular concept for psychological, educational and management researchers from the past years. Salovey and Mayer (1990) who are credited for coining the term "emotional intelligence" initially defined emotional intelligence as *a form of intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's*

thinking and actions. Later, these authors revised their definition of emotional intelligence as *the ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions, and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth (1997).* Goleman (1998) defines EI as *"the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships".*

The roots of emotional intelligence began about 2,000 years ago when Plato wrote, "All learning has an emotional base." Since then, scientists, educators, and philosophers have worked to prove or disprove the importance of feelings. Emotional intelligence can be traced to Darwin's work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation. According to him, emotions cannot be stopped, they happen instinctually and immediately in response to situations and people (as cited in Bar-On, 2000). In the field of psychology the roots of emotional intelligence (EI) theory go back at least to the beginnings of the intelligence testing movement. In the 1900's, even though traditional definitions of intelligence emphasized cognitive aspects such as memory and problem-solving, several influential researchers in the intelligence field of study had begun to recognize the importance of the non-cognitive aspects. For instance, as early as 1920, E.L. Thorndike was one of the first to identify the aspect of EI he called it *social intelligence.* In 1920, he included it in the broad spectrum of capacities that individuals possess, their "varying amounts of different intelligences". According to Thorndike, social intelligence is "the ability to understand and manage men and

women, boys and girls—to act wisely in human relations". It is an ability that "shows itself abundantly in the nursery, on the playground, in barracks and factories and salesrooms, but it eludes the formal standardized conditions of the testing laboratory". Although Thorndike did once propose a means of evaluating social intelligence in the laboratory- a simple process of matching pictures of emotive faces with descriptions of emotions- he also maintained that because social intelligence manifests in social interaction, "genuine situations with real persons" would be necessary to accurately measure it (as cited in Bar-On, 2000).

In 1937, Robert Thorndike and Saul Stern reviewed the attempts to measure the social intelligence E. L. Thorndike had discussed, identifying three different areas "adjacent to social intelligence, perhaps related to it, and often confused with it". The first area encompassed primarily an individual's attitude towards his society and its various components: politics, economics, and values such as honesty. The second involved social knowledge: being well versed in sports, contemporary issues, and general information about society. The third form of social intelligence was an individual's degree of social adjustment: introversion and extroversion were measured by individuals' responses to questionnaires. One widely known questionnaire of the time that Thorndike and Stern reviewed was the *George Washington Social Intelligence Test*, developed in 1926. It measured, for example, an individual's judgment in social situations and in relationship problems; recognition of the "mental state" of a speaker (measured through ability to match the person's words with the names of emotions), and ability to identify emotional

expression (measured through ability to match pictures of faces with the corresponding emotions). But Thorndike and Stern concluded that the attempts to measure the "ability to deal with people" had more or less failed: "It may be that social intelligence is a complex of several different abilities, or a complex of an enormous number of specific social habits and attitudes." And they added, "We hope that further investigation, via situation tests, movies, etc., getting closer to the actual social reaction and further from words, may throw more light on the nature of ability to manage and understand people".

Similarly, in 1940, David Wechsler described the influence of non-intellective factors on intelligent behaviour. He proposed that the non-intellective factors (i.e., emotional abilities) are essential to determine one's ability to succeed in life. In 1983, Howard Gardner's *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences* introduced the idea of multiple intelligences which included both Interpersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and Intrapersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations). These two types of intelligence form the foundation for most of the models created on Emotional Intelligence. In Gardner's view, traditional types of intelligence, such as IQ, fail to fully explain cognitive ability. Thus, even though the names given to the concept varied, there was a common belief that traditional definitions of intelligence are lacking the ability to fully explain performance outcomes. The first academic use of the term "emotional intelligence" is usually attributed to Wayne Payne's doctoral thesis, *A Study of*

Emotion: Developing Emotional Intelligence in 1985. Greenspan (1989) put forward an EI model, followed by Salovey and Mayer (1990), and Goleman (1995). The distinction between trait emotional intelligence and ability emotional intelligence was introduced in 2000.

The research on emotional intelligence continued to gain momentum, but it wasn't until the publication of Daniel Goleman's book *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ* in 1995 that the term became widely popularized.

1.2.1. Models of Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Since 1990's, a number of different conceptualizations of emotional intelligence have appeared which have created an interesting mixture of confusion, controversy and opportunity regarding the best approach to defining and measuring this construct. However, it was the early theorists such as Thorndike and Gardner who paved the way for the present experts in the field of emotional intelligence. In an effort to help clarify this situation, the *Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology* (Spielberger, 2004) recently suggested that there are currently three major conceptual models: (a) the Salovey-Mayer model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) which defines this construct as the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions to facilitate thinking, measured by an ability-based measure (Mayer et al., 2002); (b) the Goleman model (1998) which views this construct as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive managerial performance, measured by multi-rater assessment (Boyatzis et al., 2001); and (c) the Bar-On model (2002, 2000) which describes a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators

that impact intelligent behaviour, measured by self-report (1997, 2002) within a potentially expandable multi-modal approach including interview and multi-rater assessment (Bar- On & Handley, 2003a, 2003b).

The above models that have been proposed conceptualize emotional intelligence from one of the two perspectives: ability or mixed. Ability models are those which regard emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability and thus as a pure intelligence. Whereas, the mixed models of emotional intelligence combine mental ability with personality characteristics such as optimism and well-being (Mayer, 1999). Presently, we have only one ability model of emotional intelligence that has been proposed by John Mayer and Peter Salovey. Two mixed models of emotional intelligence, each within a somewhat different conception have been proposed by Reuven Bar-On and Daniel Goleman. Reuven Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence emphasises the co-dependence of the ability aspects of emotional intelligence with personality traits and their application to personal well-being. In contrast, Daniel Goleman proposed a mixed model in terms of performance, integrating an individual's abilities and personality and applying their corresponding effects on performance in the workplace (Goleman, 2001). Petrides and Furnham (2000) classified emotional intelligence into; trait and information processing models. These authors argue that trait models of emotional intelligence focus on behavioural consistency across situations, assess typical behaviour, rather than maximal behaviour, and include vague concepts such as optimism or impulsivity. On the other hand, information processing models of emotional

intelligence are more explicit in the relationships between emotional intelligence and cognitive ability.

Both these classifications also propose the measurement technique for the different models of emotional intelligence. Mayer et al. (2000) assert that while mixed models use self-reports to assess an individual's emotional intelligence, an ability model requires the use of task-based assessment procedures. They like self-report methods of assessing emotional intelligence to self reports of intelligence in general, which is to say, these reports are not likely to be accurate. Petrides and Furnham (2000) extend this argument one step further by stating the measurement method defines the model. If a measure of emotional intelligence is self-report, then it must be assessing trait emotional intelligence. One of the widely researched measures of this model is the *Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire* (TEIQue), which was specifically designed to measure the trait emotional intelligence construct.

In this study, the researcher discusses Bar-On's and Goleman's mixed model's of emotional intelligence as the components/constructs of these models have relevance with the emotional intelligence inventory (MEII) employed in this study. Components like intrapersonal and interpersonal (Bar-On's model), self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (Goleman's model) are all related to a large extent with the different components of the MEII (Mangal, 2004) inventory. The below section delineates both these mixed model's of emotional intelligence along with their proposed measures.

i. Daniel Goleman's Model of Emotional Intelligence

In the early 1990's, Daniel Goleman became aware of Salovey and Mayer's work, and this eventually led to his book, *Emotional Intelligence* (1995), the landmark book which familiarized both the public and private sectors with the idea of emotional intelligence. Goleman's model of Emotional Intelligence- a model of competencies focused on the workplace (Boyatzis et al., 2001; Goleman, 1998, 2001). There is no doubt that the term EI was brought to light by Daniel Goleman's book and by his statements regarding the influence of these abilities upon many areas of our lives (Goleman, 1995). In his first book, Goleman stated that EI comprises of five essential elements: 1) knowing one's emotions; 2) managing emotions; 3) motivating oneself; 4) recognizing emotions in others, and 5) handling relationships.

In 1998, Goleman presented his second book, proposing a theory of performance in organizations based on a model of EI. This model was created and adapted to predict the effectiveness and personal outcomes in the workplace and in organizational fields (Goleman, 1998). The model is based on several competencies, which were identified by researches conducted in hundreds of organizations; these competencies are considered characteristic of the most brilliant and successful employees (Goleman, 2001). Currently, the model presents four essential dimensions, which are subdivided into 20 competencies (Boyatzis et al., 2001; Goleman, 2001). The first is *self-awareness* which refers to the ability to read one's emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decisions. It

comprises of emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence competencies. *Self-management* is the second construct which involves controlling one's emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances and comprises of self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, achievement drive, and initiative competencies. The third construct is *social awareness* which includes the ability to sense, understand, and react to other's emotions while comprehending social networks. This construct comprises of empathy, service orientation, and organizational awareness competencies and finally, *relationship management* is the fourth construct which entails the ability to inspire, influence and comprises of developing others, influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds and teamwork and collaboration (Goleman, 1998).

According to Goleman, each one of these four dimensions is the basis to develop other learned abilities or competencies necessary in the organizational field. For example, the Self -awareness domain provides the basis for the development of learned competencies such as to perform an "accurate self-assessment" of the advantages and disadvantages in decision making processes, which is necessary when an executive must play his/her leading role in his/her work team. For Goleman (2001), an emotional competence is "a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work".

Measurement of the Emotional Competencies (Goleman) model

There are a number of measurement tools proposed for Goleman's model of emotional intelligence and it's corresponding competencies. These included the *Emotional Competency Inventory* (ECI; Boyatzis, 1994), the *Emotional Intelligence Appraisal* (EIA; Bradberry, Greaves, Emmerling, et al., 2003), and the *Work Profile Questionnaire* - Emotional Intelligence Version (WPQei; *Performance Assessment Network*, 2000).

The *Emotional Competency Inventory* (ECI), developed in 1999 by Daniel Goleman measures 20 competencies organized into four clusters: Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management. The *Emotional Competency Inventory* is a multi-rater (360 degree) instrument that provides self, manager, direct report, and peer ratings on a series of behavioural indicators of emotional intelligence. Each respondent is asked to describe themselves or the other person on a scale from 1 (the behaviour is only slightly characteristic of the individual) to 7 (the behaviour is very characteristic of the individual) for each item, and in turn these items are composed into ratings for each of the competencies. The respondent is left with two ratings for each competency: a self rating and a total other rating (made up of an average of all other ratings; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 1999).

Another measure is the *Emotional Intelligence Appraisal* (EIA, 2001), which was developed by Travis Bradberry and Jean Greaves along with members of the Talent Smart Research Team in an effort to create a quick and effective measure of emotional intelligence for use in a variety of settings and which can be taken as a

self-report assessment. The *Emotional Intelligence Appraisal* uses 28 items to measure the four main components of the model (self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, and relationship management) and takes an average of 7 minutes to complete. Items target the existence of skills reflective of the above components and are rated using a six point frequency scale where 1 reflects "never" exhibiting a behaviour and 6 reflects "always" exhibiting a behaviour. The *Emotional Intelligence Appraisal* results in five final scores; an overall EQ score as well as a score for each of the four emotional intelligence components. It is also available in three different formats: a Me Edition (self-report), a MR Edition (in 360 degree format) and the Team Edition (the EQ of an intact group; Bradberry, Greaves, Emmerling, et al., 2003).

The emotional intelligence version of the *Work Profile Questionnaire* (WPQei) was designed as a self-report measure of seven competencies in the Goleman model of emotional intelligence. Intended as a measure of competencies essential for effective work performance, the 84 item *Work Profile Questionnaire* (EI version) gives participants a score (out of 10) for total emotional intelligence and a score (out of 10) for each of the seven competencies of interest: innovation, self-awareness, intuition, emotions, motivation, empathy, and social skills (*Performance Assessment Network*, 2000).

Figure 2: Emotional Competencies by Goleman

ii. Reuven Bar-On's Model of Emotional Social Intelligence Intelligence (ESI)

Reuven Bar-On has developed one of the first measures of emotional intelligence that used the term "Emotion Quotient" (E.Q). He defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence relates to the potential for performance and success, rather than performance or success itself, and is considered process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented (Bar-On, 2000). It focuses on wide range of emotional and social abilities, including the ability to be aware of, understand, and express oneself, the ability to be aware of, understand, and relate to others, the ability to deal with strong

emotions, and the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of a social or personal nature (Bar-On, 1997).

Bar-On, in his model outlines five components of emotional intelligence each of which have their sub-components, these are – **intrapersonal** (self regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence & self-actualization), **interpersonal** (empathy, social responsibility & interpersonal relationship), **adaptability** (reality testing, flexibility & problem solving), **stress management** (stress tolerance, impulse control), and **general mood** (optimism, happiness). Bar-On proposes that emotional intelligence develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy (Bar-On, 2000).

Bar-On projected that those individuals with higher than average E.Q.'s are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also notes that a deficiency in emotional intelligence can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems such as problems in coping with one's environment. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person's general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one's potential to succeed in life (Bar-On, 2000).

Measurement of Bar-On's Model

The Bar-On *Emotion Quotient Inventory* (EQ-I), which is a self-report measure of emotional intelligence for individuals sixteen years of age is one of the tools used in the measurement of Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence. Developed as a measure of emotionally and socially competent behaviour that

provides an estimate of one's emotional and social intelligence, the *Emotion Quotient Inventory* is not meant to measure personality traits or cognitive capacity, but rather to measure one's ability to be successful in dealing with environmental demands and pressures (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Bar-On, 2002). One hundred and thirty three items are used to obtain a Total EQ (Total Emotion Quotient) and to produce five composite scales corresponding to the 5 main components of the Bar-On model: Intrapersonal EQ, Interpersonal EQ, Adaptability EQ, Stress Management EQ, and General Mood EQ. Items are measured on a 5 point scale ranging from 1 (very seldom/not true for me) to 5 (very often/often true of me). Bar-On has developed several versions of the *Emotion Quotient Inventory* to be used with various populations and in varying situations. The Bar-On *Emotion Quotient Inventory* is a complete test in that it can classify each respondent within the range of EQ scores and can be used in a multitude of settings and situations, including corporate, educational, clinical, medical, research, and preventative settings (Bar-On, 2002).

Figure 3: Bar-On's Five Components of Emotional Intelligence along with their sub-components

INTRAPERSONAL	INTERPERSONAL	ADAPTABILITY	STRESS MANAGEMENT	GENERAL MOOD
Self-regard	empathy	reality testing	stress tolerance	optimism
emotional self-awareness	social responsibilty &	flexibility &	impulse control	happiness
assertiveness	interpersonal relationships	problem solving		
independence				
self-actualization				
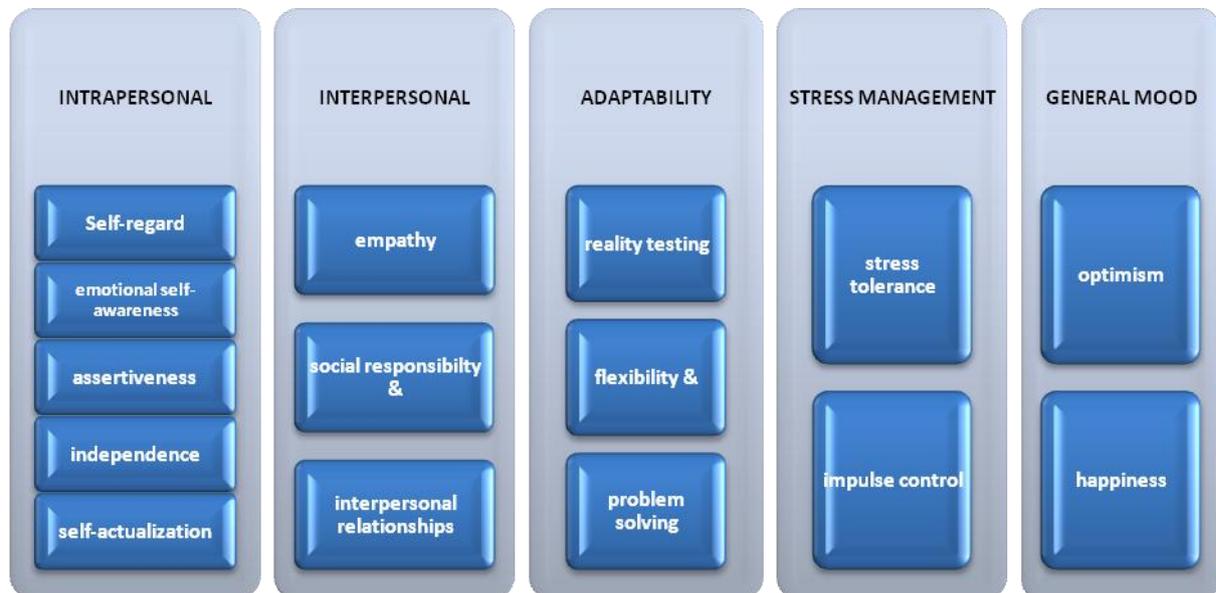
1.2.2. Relationship between Emotional Intelligence & Life Satisfaction (LS)

Several researchers (e.g., Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) noted that the popularity of emotional intelligence in both the popular and professional literature has resulted in a plethora of assumed relationships between emotional intelligence and other important human qualities (e.g., life satisfaction, the quality of interpersonal relationships, and success in occupations that involve considerable reasoning with emotional information such as those involving creativity, leadership, sales and conducting psychotherapy). A review of the Emotional Intelligence literature (e.g., Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000) suggested that EI

has often been theoretically linked with satisfaction with life. Therefore, the literature suggested an empirical study of the theoretically proposed relationship between EI and satisfaction with life. Various researchers (e.g., Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Palmer, Donaldson, & Stough, 2002) have investigated the relationship between individual differences in satisfaction with life and EI and reported correlations ranging from $r = .11$ to .45. Many other researchers (e.g., Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Newsome, Day, & Catano, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000) reported results that suggest emotional intelligence may predict important human values such as satisfaction with life because it essentially measures other personality traits already known to predict these criteria.

However, to predict to what extent Emotional Intelligence explains an important part of an individual life satisfaction variance, numerous studies have undertaken this question using self- report measures and have found slight significant correlations. The work carried out by Martínez-Pons (1997) using TMMS found that high scores on this instrument are related to low depression, high life satisfaction and a good task performance. The work of Palmer, Donaldson and Stough's (2002) examined the predictive validity of components of perceived emotional intelligence to predict life satisfaction over and above both positive and negative affect using TMMS. Similarly, research with the performance-based measure of EI (MEIS) has found low to moderate positive correlations between EI and Life Satisfaction. Also positive associations found between emotional

intelligence and life satisfaction were consistent with previous studies (Palmer et al., 2002; Saklofske et al., 2003; Bastian et al, 2005; Austin et al., 2005 etc.). Importantly, Ciarrochi et al. (2000) found that EI correlated with life satisfaction even after controlling for IQ and personality variables suggesting that EI accounts for unique variance.

In view of the above empirical studies, many researchers have conceived that high emotional intelligence would lead to greater feelings of emotional well-being. Those who are able to understand and regulate their emotions should be able to maintain a better attitude towards life and experience improved emotional health. Both Wong and Law (2002) and Wong et al. (2005) argued that life satisfaction was one important outcome of people with high EI. The reason is that a person with high EI is able to understand his/her own and others' emotions and to draw upon this understanding to improve behaviours and attitudes for positive results. As a result, he would be more able to deal with the emotions generated from within and would be generally happier in and more satisfied with life. Wong and Law (2002) and Law et al. (2004) found repeated empirical support from multiple samples for this predicted relation.

1.3. PERSONALITY

In the past decades, plethora of work has been conducted to explore the term "Personality". Personality, which is considered the most unique aspect of human individuality, constitutes a core area of study for psychologists. When looking at the etymology of this term, it transpires that the word 'personality' itself derives from

the Latin word 'persona,' which means 'mask' (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2007). Thus, the study of personality can be regarded as the study of 'masks' that people wear. This very broad and complex notion of human personality has been interpreted in a variety of ways by different researchers. According to Nicholas (2003) a way of understanding personality is to compare it to a person's thumbprint – each is unique. Each personality has its own configuration of aspects that give the person distinctiveness in all facets of expression. Although some people may seem similar with respect to their personality features, they are individually configured. Cattell defined personality as "that which predicts behaviour, given the situation" (Cattell, 1946). Morris and Maisto (2002) state that personality is the unique pattern of thoughts, feelings and behaviour that seems to persist over time and across various situations. The unique differences referred to above are aspects that distinguish an individual from everyone else. The aspect of personality persisting over time and situations suggest that personality is relatively stable and enduring. Sadock and Sadock (2003) describe personality as a global descriptive label for a person's observable behaviour and people's subjectively reportable inner experience. The wholeness of an individual described in this way represents both the public and private aspects of the individual's life.

Gordon Allport, the author of the concept of personality, defined it in his book *Personality-A psychological interpretation* (1937) as a dynamic organization, within the person, of psychophysical systems that create the person's idiosyncratic patterns of behavior, thoughts and feelings (as cited in Allport 1961: 11). More or less stable,

internal factors...make one person's behavior consistent from one time to another, and different from the behavior other people would manifest in comparable situations (Child, 1968). Both these definitions emphasize that personality is an internal process that guides behaviour. Gordon Allport (1961) makes the point that personality is psychophysical, which means both physical and psychological. Recent research has shown that biological and genetic phenomena do have an impact on personality. Child (1968) makes the point that personality is stable – or at least relatively stable. He includes consistency (within an individual) and difference (between individuals) in his definition, and Allport (1961) refers to characteristic patterns of behaviour within an individual. These are also important considerations. So personality is what makes our actions, thoughts and feelings consistent (or relatively consistent), and it is also what makes us different from one another.

1.3.1. Trait Theory

Before going into more details about the basic constituents of personality, a distinction between two terms 'trait' and 'type' should be made, since there is a substantial difference between those concepts. A trait can be defined as "a dimension of personality used to categorize people according to the degree to which they manifest a particular characteristic" (Maltby et al. 2010). A personality type, on the other hand, refers to a category a particular person may belong to if he or she shares the characteristics of the group. Thus, a type theory is inclined to categorize people into sharply divided groups, whereas trait theory classifies the extent to which a person is more towards one trait or the other (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). The former

involves a bimodal distribution, which indicates that a person is either a member of the type or not, whereas the latter would show a normal distribution, which implies that a person can possess a particular type to varying degrees. The broad term of traits refers to specific "characteristics used to assess and explain behaviour" (Hampson, 1988). In general, traits can be characterized by two distinctive features such as stability and consistency. These two features make them different from more transitory states like emotions or moods. It is true to say that people's behaviour may vary from occasion to occasion, however, as is pointed out by Matthews and Deary (1998), "there is a core of consistency which defines the individual's 'true nature'." Apart from the fact that personality traits are relatively stable over time, it is widely believed that traits have a direct influence on behaviour. The general principle is that there is a causal relationship between personality traits and behavior, the former initiating and guiding the latter. Thus, what personality researchers try to do is make inferences about person's 'internal properties' on the basis of their overt behaviours (Matthews & Deary, 1998).

Trait approaches begin with the common observations in which individuals often differ greatly and consistently in their response to the same psychological situations or stimulus. According to Walter Mischel, "trait is generalise and focalise neuropsychic system, (peculiar to the individual) with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent and to initiate the guide consistent (equivalent) forms of adaptive and expressive behavior". Hundreds of traits studied, were conducted during first half of the 20th century; to discover these ambiguous qualities, Gordon

W. Allport, Hans J. Eysenck, Raymond B. Cattell and George A. Kelly, are much more important among the theorists who worked on trait theory. Allport shared his belief, in the fundamental uniqueness of each individual's internal needs and dispositions. He also believes that traits never occur in any two people in exactly the same way, but they always operate in a unique way in each person. In the same way George A. Kelly, who is also a trait theorist, argued about the trait as fundamental postulate, according to him, "A person's processes are psychologically channelled by the way in which he anticipates events". Another trait theorist Raymond B. Cattell sees the trait as a mental structure of human being. He believes that the understanding of personality is basic to the understanding of the more restricted and specialised disciplines in psychology, such as perception and learning.

On other hand, Hans J. Eysenck, supports trait theory. He emphasised the need to develop adequate measures of traits, in his research. He found two basic dimensions to personality as Introversion, Extroversion and Neurotics. This means it is the trait of the personality, to be quite, reserve, careful, thoughtful, to be social, outgoing, talkative etc. Lawrence A. Pervin quotes Eysenck as, "there is a middle ground, between treating as if they were exactly alike, and treating them, as, if they were, all entirely different from each other. This intermediate position is that adaptation of some type of typological approach, the delineation of certain important dimensions of personality, along with individuals can be ranged." (Extraversion – introversion would be an example of such dimension).

The review of the research on trait theory indicates that every trait theorist has his own meaning and definition of trait theory. But they only join on one thing and that is, two peoples cannot have the same type of traits at the same time.

1.3.2. Big Five Model or Five Factor Model of Personality

According to Foxcroft and Roodt (2005) many personality researchers have come to the conclusion that the sphere of personality traits may be accurately summarised in terms of five broad traits. These traits have been labelled as extroversion, neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience and are jointly referred to as Big Five model of personality (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2005). Costa and Widiger (1994) describe the Five Factor Model as a hierarchical form of the structure of personality traits. Goldberg (1995) states that these five traits seek to provide a scientifically persuasive framework in which to organise the vast individual differences that characterise humankind, as each broad domain incorporates hundreds of traits. The Big Five has its origins in analyses of trait-describing words in the natural language (Costa & Widiger, 1994).

1.3.3. Development of the Big Five Model or FFM of Personality

Derived from the early empirical work of Raymond Cattell (1946), the FFM illustrates that personality consists of five relatively independent dimensions which provide a meaningful and comprehensive taxonomy for studying individual differences, and reflect the essence of human nature in individual differences

(McCrae & Costa, 1986; Mount & Barrick, 1998). Back in 1932, William McDougall, writing in the first issue of *Character and Personality* (which later became the *Journal of Personality*), conjectured that personality might be broadly analysed into five distinguishable but separable factors, namely, intellect, character, temperament, disposition, and temper (Digman, 1990). More recently, personality researchers came to a general conclusion that the domain of personality attributes could be adequately described by five superordinate constructs – the Five Factor Model, usually labelled Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to experience, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness.

The grouping of five dimensions can be attributed to the lexical approach in the early personality research. The lexical approach was originated in studies of natural language trait terms (John, Angleitner & Ostendorf, 1988). Beginning with the work of Allport and Olbert (1936), who noted some 4500 trait terms in English, the wealth of vocabulary testifies to the social importance of personality traits, several studies have attempted to specify exhaustively the range of personality traits by examining English language trait names, on the assumption that native speakers would have evolved words for all important individual differences (Costa & McCrae, 1995).

The lexical hypothesis holds that all important individual differences will have been noted by speakers of a natural language at some point in the evolution of the language and encoded in trait terms. By encoding these terms, the basic dimensions of personality can be discovered. To the extent that the lexical hypothesis

is correct, analyses of language will provide a comprehensive taxonomy of personality traits. However, the lexical tradition has played a very small role, as it was limited to an analysis of personality traits represented in ordinary language. According to McCrae and John (2000), lexical studies were ideally suited for the exploration of personality structure; the model they led to could be confirmed, enlarged, or qualified by studies of questionnaires. In reality, most personality assessments have been based on questionnaires with scales designed for specific practical applications or to measure constructs derived from personality theory (Costa & McCrae, 1995). However, as any other psychological construct, the measure of personality is developed with critics and skepticism. The issues mainly involve self-report personality measures lacking validity, social desirability, and being unsuitable for predicting job performance. Among those, the most frequent criticism in applied settings is that personality measures are easily faked. With regard to this, Hough and her colleagues (1990) debated that people can fake some of their personality scores when instructed; the base rate of faking during the application process is virtually nonexistent; and even when faking is evident, criterion-related validities change only slightly. Later on, the author examines strategies for dealing with intentional distortion and their effects on criterion-related validities, subgroup differences and selection decisions. Ones, Viswesvaran and Reiss (1996) extend the study by using social desirability as a controlling variable, and conclude that the operational validity of personality measures is left intact.

For the development of the big five factor of personality research, Costa and McCrae made substantiated contributions. The authors have not only developed an inventory to assess the five traits dimensions by the five robust factors of the rating domain, but have used the model and inventory in a series of studies that have demonstrated the ubiquity of the Big Five. According to McCrae and Costa (1985), FFM is not based on any single theory of personality, but has been shown to encompass scales that operationalise a number of theoretical perspectives. It has been recognized as necessary and sufficient to describe the structure of personality at a global level. By analysing Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) (Cattell, Eber, & Tatsuoka, 1970, cited from Digman, 1990), Costa and McCrae (1976) pointed to three meaningful clusters of scales, two of which mirrored the Eysenck Neuroticism and Extraversion dimensions (cited from Digman, 1990). Further development of the third dimension led to the creation of the NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI). The three original scales N E O were subsequently joined by Scale A (Agreeableness) and C (Conscientiousness). Birenbaum and Montag (1986) using an Israeli sample, factored the *Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire*, and also obtained a five-factor solution for the 16PF correlations that was subsequently replicated by Digman (1988).

Using the NEO-PI as markers of the Big Five, Costa and McCrae (1985) have also demonstrated the presence of the five-factor model in the *Eysenck Personality Inventory* (EPI; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964), the *Jackson Personality Research Form* (PRF; Jackson, 1974; Costa & McCrae, 1988), the *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*

(MBTI; Myers & McCauley, 1985; McCrae & Costa, 1989), and the *California Q-Set* – developed by Block (1961) and his colleagues who sought to provide a universal, clinically based language for describing all important aspects of personality (McCrae & Costa, 1986). In addition, the different views of a number of personality psychologists were converging on five basic factors of personality. According to Barrick and Mount (1991), the FFM, founded on a solid scientific foundation, could provide a basic phenomenon for personality theorists to explain, a clear measurement framework for organizing research, and a guide to the comprehensive assessment of individuals that should be of value to educational, industrial/organizational and clinical psychologists.

Hence, the FFM has been extensively used in personnel selection and personality research in the field of personnel psychology in recent years. Representing the higher order personality structure, each component of FFM contains certain traits listed below respectively.

Extraversion: The first dimension is Eysenck's (1971) Extraversion / Introversion. Extraversion implies an energetic approach to introversion. Traits frequently associated with it include being sociable, gregarious, assertive and active. Hogan (1986) interpreted this dimension as consisting of two components, Ambition (initiative, surgency, ambition, and impetuous) and Sociability (sociable, exhibitionist and expressive).

Neuroticism: The second dimension is Emotional Stability or Neuroticism (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1985). Common traits associated with Emotional Stability

include secure, stable, relaxed, self sufficient, not anxious, tolerant of stress; while Neuroticism includes being anxious, depressed, angry, embarrassed, emotional, worried, and insecure. These two dimensions represent the "big two" described by Eysenck (1971) over 30 years ago.

Agreeableness: The third dimension is Agreeableness or Likeability (e.g., Goldberg 1981; Costa & McCrae, 1985). Others have labelled it Friendliness (Guilford & Zimmerman, 1949, cited from Digman, 1990), and Social Conformity (Fiske 1949, cited from Digman, 1990). Agreeableness seeks to measure whether one has a prosocial, co-operative orientation towards others or if they act with antagonism. Traits associated with this dimension involve the more humane aspects of humanity – characteristics such as altruism, nurturance, caring, and emotional support at the one end of the dimension, and hostility, indifference to others, self-centeredness, spitefulness, and jealousy at the other.

Conscientiousness: The fourth dimension is Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness includes the control of impulse which facilitates tasks and other goal-oriented behaviours (Hergenhahn & Olson, 1999). Because its relationship to a variety of educational achievement measures and its association with volition, it has also been called Will to Achieve or Will (Digman 1989), and Work (Peabody & Goldberg, 1989). There is some disagreement regarding the essence of this dimension. Some have suggested that Conscientiousness reflects dependability; that is, being careful, thorough, responsible, organized, and planful. Others have

suggested that in addition to these traits, it incorporates volitional variables, such as hardworking, achievement-oriented, and persevering.

Openness to Experience: The fifth dimension is Openness to Experience or Intellectence. This dimension was interpreted as Intellect (Goldberg, 1981; Hogan 1983; Digman & Inouye, 1986) and Intelligence (Borgatt, 1964) and Openness (Costa & McCrae, 1985). These are more or less related. McCrae and Costa (1985) analysed Openness as openness to feelings and to new ideas, flexibility of thought, and readiness to indulgence in fantasy.

1.3.4. Relationship between Personality (BFT) and Life Satisfaction (LS)

During the last half of the 20th century substantial developments on the study of subjective well- being have turned up (Diener, Suh, Lucas and Smith, 1999). First works from a sociological approach studied the influence of demographic variables (age, sex and marital status) on the prediction of life satisfaction. Results showed that demographic variables explain a scarce percentage of the well-being variance (Wilson, 1967). Later on, from a psychological approach the relationship between internal characteristics of an individual as the main predictors for life satisfaction has been analysed (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Results showed that relationships between personality stable characteristics and life satisfaction are very relevant, moreover extraversion and neuroticism allowed to predict life satisfaction level a person may have after fifteen years (Costa & McCrae, 1984). In a cross-cultural study conducted in 40 different nations and with nearly 6,000

participants, Diener and Suh (1998) found that life satisfaction generally remained stable throughout the life span, showing just a slight increasing trend between the ages of 20 and 80 years. Whereas Mroczek (2001) states that life satisfaction peaked at age 65 and then declined, but showed significant individual differences in rate of change. Extraversion predicted variability in change, with higher levels associated with a high and flat life satisfaction trajectory.

Subjective well-being is comprised of both emotional and cognitive elements. Life satisfaction is defined to be the cognitive aspect of subjective well-being (Sousa & Lyubomirsky, 2001). Both Extraversion and Neuroticism are strongly correlated to subjective well-being. They have been researched by DeNeve and Cooper (1998) who concluded that these two variables correlate strongly with life satisfaction: Extraversion at r = .17, and Neuroticism at r = -.22. Also, Hayes and Joseph (2003) found that the Neuroticism – emotional stability dimension is consistently associated with subjective well-being. Moreover, Costa and McCrae (1980) suggest that happiness is associated with greater Extraversion and lower Neuroticism. This is not to say, however, that Extraversion and Neuroticism are the only traits that have been shown to have significant effect on happiness, well-being, and life satisfaction.

The other Big Five personality trait that is associated with life satisfaction is **Agreeableness**. Agreeableness is a factor that deals with interpersonal relationships. It focuses on interpersonal behaviours such as cooperation. It has been found to be related to subjective well-being by helping to smooth the progress of more positive experiences in social situations, thus enhancing relationship quality (McCrae &

Costa, 1991). DeNeve and Cooper (1998) found Agreeableness was strongly associated to life satisfaction with r = .17. This study, along with many others, has shown that along with Extraversion and Neuroticism, other dimensions of the Big Five are also related to life satisfaction. Furthering McCrae and Costa's findings, Blatny and colleagues (2004) concluded that Life satisfaction relates significantly with Agreeableness.

Similarly, **Conscientiousness** is another Big Five personality trait that is associated with life satisfaction. Conscientiousness describes task behavior and impulse control. Given that conscientious people set high goals for themselves and achieve more, they are more likely to feel satisfied with their lives. Conscientiousness relates to subjective well-being in that "it helps to smooth the progress of more positive experiences in achievement situations" (McCrae & Costa, 1991). DeNeve and Cooper (1998) found Conscientiousness to be positively and strongly associated with life satisfaction at r = .21. Furthering these findings Blatny and colleagues (2004) concluded that Life satisfaction relates significantly with Conscientiousness.

Extraversion and **Neuroticism** were expected to be the strongest associations; Extraversion includes characteristics such as sociability, impulsiveness, activity, liveliness, and excitability. Essentially, the extraversion trait reflects to what degree an individual is sociably outgoing. Neuroticism refers to characteristics such as moody, touchy, anxious, and restless. Those higher in extraversion show higher levels of life satisfaction whereas those higher in neuroticism show lower levels of

life satisfaction (Costa & McCrae, 1980; Hilleras et al., 2001). In a recent meta-analysis, Steel et.al. found support for two plausible explanations for the strong links between subjective well-being measures and personality (Steel, Schmidt, & Shultz, 2008). DeNeve and Cooper (1998) established that correlations with subjective well-being ranged from $r = 0.11$ for Openness to Experience, $r = -0.22$ for Neuroticism, with Extraversion at $r = 0.17$.

1.4. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The life of human's is full of challenges, stressors and risks, both major and minor. Facing such challenges is part of human development and it depends upon the individuals to encounter these challenges themselves. Likewise, the stage of adolescence, adulthood, and old age pose numerous psycho-social challenges before an individual to confront with. Though the society can prepare us to overcome the adversities in life and in addition teach us to succeed, however, many other factors such as personality traits, emotional intelligence, social support and life satisfaction have been found to contribute towards our healthy, happy and good lives as indicated in various research findings. Ryff and Keyes (1995) cited life satisfaction as the key indicator of well-being. According to these researchers, the individual compares his/her achievement with what he/she believes to be an acceptable standard, which is personally rated and not imposed upon the individual (cited in Diener & Suh, 1997). Every individual has his own view of happiness and satisfaction with life thus indicating that people can experience different levels of life satisfaction. Moreover, some may be dissatisfied with their life. People's evaluation of life satisfaction is

better understood by the top-down and bottom-up approaches of life satisfaction which emphasize that life satisfaction can be situational and personological and that many factors influence the life satisfaction of most people. According to Strack et al. (1991), the individual will estimate his/her subjective well-being of life in different areas of his/her life (i.e. family life, working conditions, income, education, health and social security) by assigning different values to the particular qualities depending on the degree to which he/she views these qualities as desirable.

The purpose of this study was two-fold: the first purpose was to examine Life satisfaction (LS) and its relationship with Emotional Intelligence (E.I) and Personality traits (BFT) among three participant groups- Adolescents, Adults and Aged. The second purpose was to understand the influence of Emotional Intelligence (E.I) and Personality traits (BFT) on Life satisfaction (LS). It has been pointed out by researchers that E.I component is not usually assessed in the adolescents & adults which has now been accepted as crucial to withstand psychological pressures such as to perform well and succeed in life. Also the present study would give us insights for identifying factors that lead to healthy aging as life satisfaction is generally assumed and expected to decline in older age, most notably when health conditions deteriorate. Since very few studies have been reported in this area especially in our country, therefore, it is expected that the present research work will also contribute to the available literature in this area.

Hence, the problem statement of this study was framed as *Emotional Intelligence and Personality Traits as Predictors of Life Satisfaction: A Study of Adolescents, Adults and Aged Persons*.

1.5. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

1.5.1. Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the present study were:

1. To find out the relationship of personality traits with life satisfaction among adolescents, adults and aged.

2. To find out the relationship of emotional intelligence with life satisfaction among adolescents, adults and aged.

3. To study the influence of personality traits on life satisfaction among adolescents, adults and aged.

4. To study the influence of emotional intelligence on life satisfaction among adolescents, adults and aged.

In the present study, the researcher is dealing with three different populations-Adolescents, Adults and Aged all of which have their unique characteristics and thereby may vary and the variables under analysis may be presenting differently in these populations. Hence, in the present study the following null hypotheses have been formulated.

1.5.2. Hypotheses of the Study

On the basis of the above objectives the following null hypotheses have been formulated:

H_{01}: Life satisfaction is not significantly related with E1 (intra-personal awareness factor) in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H_{02}: Life satisfaction is not significantly related with E2 (inter-personal awareness factor) in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H_{03}: Life satisfaction is not significantly related with E3 (intra-personal management factor) in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H_{04}: Life satisfaction is not significantly related with E4 (inter-personal management factor) in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H_{05}: Life satisfaction is not significantly related with Openness to experience (personality trait) in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H_{06}: Life satisfaction is not significantly related with Conscientiousness (personality trait) in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H_{07}: Life satisfaction is not significantly related with Extraversion (personality trait) in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H_{08}: Life satisfaction is not significantly related with Agreeableness (personality trait) in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H₀₉: Life satisfaction is not significantly related with Neuroticism (personality trait) in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H₀₁₀: There will be no significant influence of E1 (intra-personal awareness factor) on life satisfaction in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H₀₁₁: There will be no significant influence of E2 (inter-personal awareness factor) on life satisfaction in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H₀₁₂: There will be no significant influence of E3 (intra-personal management factor) on life satisfaction in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H₀₁₃: There will be no significant influence of E4 (inter-personal management factor) on life satisfaction in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H₀₁₄: There will be no significant influence of Openness to experience (personality trait) on life satisfaction in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H₀₁₅: There will be no significant influence of Conscientiousness (personality trait) on life satisfaction in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H₀₁₆: There will be no significant influence of Extraversion (personality trait) on life satisfaction in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H₀₁₇: There will be no significant influence of Agreeableness (personality trait) on life satisfaction in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

H$_{018}$: There will be no significant influence of Neuroticism (personality trait) on life satisfaction in adolescents, adults and aged persons.

1.6. DEFINITIONS OF MEASURES/VARIABLES AND OTHER TERMS

1.6.1. Operational Definitions of Variables

i) **Satisfaction With Life Scale (*SWLS*) -** For the purpose of this study satisfaction with life is defined as a general appraisal of an individual's quality of life according to his/her personal standards. Individuals who obtain a score of 31-35 on *SWLS* are highly satisfied, while as 26-30 are satisfied, 21-25 - slightly satisfied, 29-neutral, 15-19- slightly dissatisfied, 10-14-dissatisfied and 5-9 - extremely dissatisfied. The composite score of the SWLS is 35.

ii) **Mangal's Emotional Intelligence Inventory (*MEII*) -** The *MEII* in this study measures emotional intelligence in respect of four areas or aspects of emotional intelligence namely intra-personal awareness, inter-personal awareness, intra-personal management and inter-personal management & the total E.I range of scores are classified into three categories-High [very good & good ─ score for males in this category is 77 above, for females 75 above], Average [score for males in this category is 63-76 and for females its 61-74] and the last category i.e Low [poor & very poor─ score for males in this category is 62 below and for females it is 60 below]. Similarly, the four aspects of EI have their own scoring categories.

iii) NEO Five-Factor Inventory (*NEO-FFI-3*)- The *NEO-FFI-3* inventory in this study will measure five broad domains/ traits of personality- Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. This inventory will measure differences among people in general and consists of 60 items which give idea of what makes a person unique in his ways of thinking, feeling and interacting with others.

1.6.2. Concept Clarification Terms

a. **Life Satisfaction (LS)** refers to an individual's assessment of his or her own life according to the criteria generated internally.

b. **Emotional Intelligence (EI)** is the ability to understand and regulate ones emotions as well as of others.

c. **NEOAC/OCEAN** refers to the big five traits of personality i.e. Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness.

d. **Participant Groups** in this study refers to the three different populations- Adolescents, Adults and Aged.

e. **Emotional Intelligence Factors** in this study refers to the four aspects − **E1** (intra-personal awareness), **E2** (inter-personal awareness), **E3** (intra-personal management) and **E4**- inter-personal management)**.**
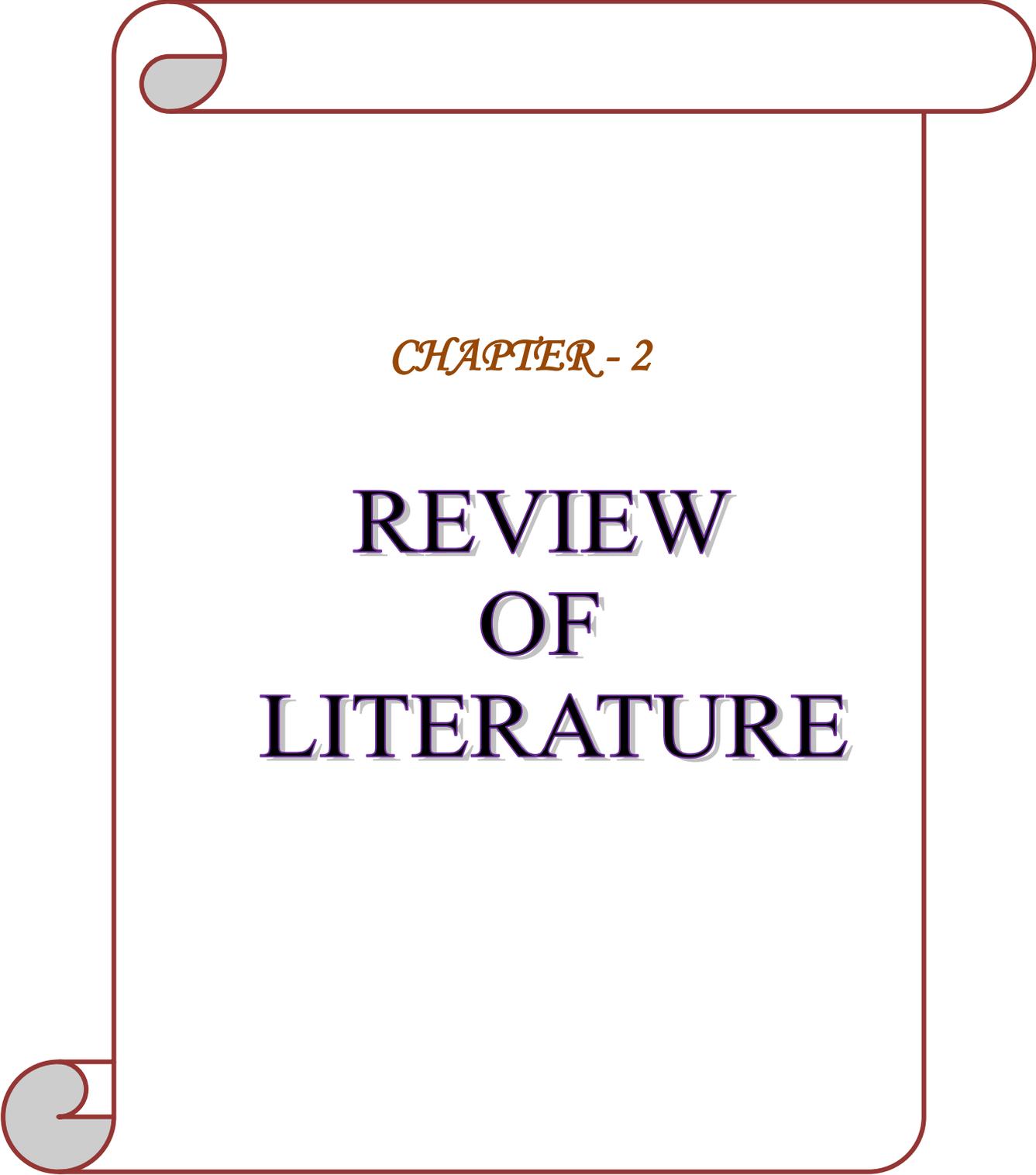
CHAPTER - 2

REVIEW
OF
LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

T he existing literature review attempts to provide an overview of the researches carried out on the different variables with respect to the three populations significant in the present study. In the first part, the present chapter gives a brief description about the three distinct populations- Adolescent, Adult and Aged persons followed by the related studies in the specific area.

Each period of human development brings with it new challenges and opportunities for personal growth. The **adolescent** stage is a stage of multidimensional development which involves a process that extends over a significant period of a person's life. Adolescence usually begins at age 11 to 13 years and ends between 17 to 21 years (Louw & Louw, 2007). It occurs between childhood and adulthood when the individual is confronted by a series of developmental hurdles and challenges. Adolescents' development involves many life tasks - development of identity, achieving independence from the family decisions and adjusting into a peer group. Adolescents have to manage biological, psychological, educational and social role changes all at the same time. In late adolescence the roles of adulthood must be addressed in almost every area of life (Bandura, 2001; Geldard & Geldard, 2004; Louw & Louw, 2007). Adolescents, as Durkin (1995) rightly

states, is a distinct group of individuals and stereotypes misjudge their variety and overstate their liabilities.

One aspect of adolescents is their emotions, and within schools and society as a whole, this aspect has often been overlooked. Students are measured in terms of their performance and grades. They are assessed on how well they can play, act, draw, sing and so forth. However, an intrinsic aspect of adolescents that is usually not assessed is what has been called as "Emotional Intelligence". Emotional Intelligence (E.I) is now considered by many as being essential for successful living **(Goleman, 1995)**. Teaching adolescents about their emotions and how they deal with others as well as their own actions can be very helpful in their daily struggles. Furthermore, in order to encourage a smooth transition from adolescence to adulthood, a good understanding of emotions and personality for adolescents is very important in determining their subjective well-being or life satisfaction.

Many researchers have conducted empirical investigations of life satisfaction (e.g., Diener, 1984; Huebner, 1991; Ramanaiah, Detwiler & Byravan, 1997; Hong & Giannakopoulos, 1994; Kopp & Ruzicka, 1993) and reported findings that suggest significant correlations between life satisfaction and such personality traits as neuroticism, locus of control, self-esteem, depression, extraversion, optimism and anxiety. **Gilman and Huebner (2003)** suggested that most adolescents (ages 11 and above) experience positive, overall life satisfaction. In contrast to a wealth of research on the life satisfaction of adults, few studies of life satisfaction in children and adolescents have been conducted (Huebner, 1994; Park and Huebner, 2005). In

general, most adolescents report positive global life satisfaction (Huebner et al., 2005).

The end of adolescence till the early sixties are the early and middle adulthood years, although no clear chronological demarcations can be made to identify these periods. An **adult** is generally defined as someone who is responsible, mature, self-supporting and well integrated into society. Adult years is the time of establishing personal and economic independence, starting a career, getting married and starting a family. Middle adulthood is the time for the individual to adjust to vocational changes, expanding families, changing roles e.g grand parenting etc. Later adult years represent another segment of life-span which are accompanied by physiological and cognitive changes. Similar to findings with adults, studies of youth have revealed that subjective well-being is weakly related to demographic variables such as gender, age and socio-economic status (Huebner et al., 2000) whereas personal and/or social resources contribute to subjective well-being and life satisfaction substantially (Huebner , 1991).

It has been seen that the number of **aged** has steadily increased all over the world in this century. Some of the challenges which the aged have to cope with include retirement, widowhood, illness, or death in the family. The image of old age is changing in certain ways. Now, there are people who have crossed seventy years of age or so and are quite active, energetic and creative. They are competent and are, therefore, valued by the society in many walks of life. In particular, we have today aged people in politics, literature, business, art and science. The myth of old age as

an incapacitating and, therefore, frightening phase of life is changing. The experiences of the aged depend not only on the socio-economic conditions, attitudes of the people, availability of health care, expectations of the society and the available support system but also how they adjust and accept the changes in their physical and cognitive capacities. More importantly how they value and evaluate their overall life circumstances.

2.1.1. Personality and Life Satisfaction

Costa and McCrae (1980) studied the influence of extraversion and neuroticism on subjective well-being: Happy and unhappy people. The 1st of 3 experiments, based on responses from a total sample of 1,100 males aged 35−85, examined the relation between 4 measures of happiness and 7 personality dispositions hypothesized to be related to positive or negative affect. Exp II tested the original hypothesis using measures of the broader dimensions of Neuroticism (N) and Extraversion (E). In Exp III, happiness was predicted from N and E data obtained 10 yrs previously. Based on the results of these studies, it is argued that (a) one set of traits influences positive affect or satisfaction, whereas a different set of traits influences negative affect or dissatisfaction; (b) the former set of traits can be viewed as components of extraversion, and the latter as components of neuroticism; and (c) personality differences antedate and predict differences in happiness over a period of 10 yrs.

Patrick (1989) reported the findings of two studies which investigated the personality correlates of life satisfaction among Australian adolescents. Results from

both studies revealed a significant negative correlation between neuroticism and satisfaction with life. In the second study, extraversion was related to satisfaction with life for the total group only.

Lu Luo (1995) conducted a study in which subjective well-being was examined in a random sample of 581 Chinese adults living in a metropolitan Taiwanese city. The results of multivariate analyses indicated that (a) extraversion and social support were related to better mental health, whereas neuroticism and stress were related to poorer mental health; (b) older age, better education, and social support were related to higher life satisfaction, whereas neuroticism and stress were related to lower life satisfaction; and (c) older age, extraversion, and social support were related to higher happiness, whereas neuroticism was related to lower happiness.

DeNeve and Cooper (1998) examined 137 distinct personality constructs as correlates of subjective well-being (SWB). Personality was found to be equally predictive of life satisfaction, happiness, and positive effect, but significantly less - predictive of negative affect. The traits most closely associated with SWB were trust, emotional stability, desire hardiness, positive affectivity and tension. When personality traits were grouped according to the Big Five factors, Neuroticism was the strongest predictor of life satisfaction, happiness, and negative affect. Positive affect was predicted equally well by Extraversion and Agreeableness.

According to **Diener and Lucas (1999)** personality is one of the strongest and most consistent predictors of subjective well-being during the adult years.

Preliminary research with youth has linked their life satisfaction to two of the "big five" personality traits: neuroticism and extraversion (Huebner, 1991b; McKnight et al., 2002).

Jerram and Coleman (1999) assessed whether the 'big five' personality traits are related to health behaviour among British older people. The NEO Five Factor Inventory was administered to people aged between 75 and 84 years. Fifty people (21 men and 29 women) were interviewed, drawn from four GP (general practitioners) lists in Southampton. Results showed that Neuroticism was associated with a number of reported medical problems, negatively perceived health status and frequency of visits to the GP. Extraversion was associated with positive health behaviours. Openness to experience and agreeableness were associated with positive health perceptions. There were some striking differences between associations found within the male and female groups. Agreeable women reported fewer medical problems and less frequent visits to the GP than antagonistic women, whereas conscientious men reported more positive health perceptions and more visits to the GP than non-conscientious men.

In a panel study, the relationship between Emotional Stability (ES), Extraversion (E) and Subjective Well-Being (SWB) was tested against questionnaire data from 264 Norwegian folk high school students. After a careful reading of recent studies concerned with relationships between personality and subjective well-being, it was hypothesized that the effect from ES on SWB indicators (Life Satisfaction, presence of Positive Affect and absence of Negative Affect) is stronger than the

corresponding effect from E. Moreover, it was anticipated that if ES was controlled for, the effect from E on SWB would decrease substantially. In several multiple regression analyses, it was found that, on average, the amount of SWB variance accounted for by ES was 34%, while similar figures for E were 1%. **(Vitterso, 2000)**

Fogle et al. (2002) found Life Satisfaction to be positively correlated with extraversion and social self-efficacy, negatively correlated with neuroticism, and to mediate the relationship between LS and extraversion, but not between LS and neuroticism. Overall results suggested that adolescents' perceptions of their ability to be competent in social settings lead to increased sociability, which in turn related to greater Life Satisfaction. Similarly, **Rigby and Huebner (2005)** demonstrated that adaptive attributions for good outcomes served to partially mediate the relationship between emotional stability and Life Satisfaction; i.e. adolescents who were higher in emotional stability were more likely to make adaptive attributions for good outcomes, which in turn related to increased Life Satisfaction. Life satisfaction has also been consistently positively associated with self-esteem.

Rogalski and Paisey (2002) in their study investigated neuroticism versus demographic variables as correlates of self-reported life satisfaction in a sample of older adults. Sample comprised of 120 retired Californians whose mean age was 73 yrs. Life satisfaction scores were greater among those respondents with low self-rated anxiety, high religious commitment, higher socio-economic status, and in good health. It is argued that self-ratings of life satisfaction among older adults are primarily expressions of stable personality attributes.

The study by **Martin et al. (2002)** an exploration of personality patterns from the Georgia Centenarian Study, analysed whether there might be a special combination of personality traits that define centenarians. Indeed, this study discovered that low levels of neuroticism, high levels of competence and high extraversion was notable in this group of exceptional survivors compared with younger controls. In the other study of personality, **Masui et al. (2010)** found that centenarians in Tokyo had high scores in the specific personality traits of conscientiousness, openness and, like their Georgian counterparts, extraversion. This result was obtained using a novel model that estimated personality change with age from longitudinal data in the younger elderly. Researchers from the Tokyo Centenarian Study speculate that these personality traits contribute to longevity through health-related behaviours, stress reduction and adaptation to the challenging problems of the "oldest old."

In a cross-cultural study conducted in 40 different nations and with nearly 6,000 participants, **Diener and Suh (1998)** found that, reported life satisfaction generally remained stable throughout the life span, showing just a slight increasing trend between the ages of 20 and 80 years.

Mroczek and Spiro (2005) in their study on Openness to experiences and Active Older Adult's Life Satisfaction found that high levels of neuroticism were related to low life satisfaction, whereas extraverts had higher and sustained levels of life satisfaction as they age.

Lounsbury et al. (2005) carried out a study on a sample of 532 undergraduates at a Southeastern U.S. University in which Big Five and narrow

personality traits were examined in relation to a measure of satisfaction with specific domains of college experience and a measure of General Life Satisfaction. Four of the Big Five traits- Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability and Extraversion--as well as the narrow traits of Aggression, Career Decidedness, Optimism, Self-Directed Learning, Sense of Identity, and Work Drive were positively, significantly related to both satisfaction measures. Results of hierarchical regression analyses showed that the Big Five traits accounted for 45% of Life Satisfaction variance with Sense of Identity contributing an additional 7%, and College Satisfaction, 6%.

Rigby and Huebner (2005) in their study examined relationships among personality traits, causal attributions, and global life satisfaction in a sample of 212 high school students. The chief aim of this research was to explore whether causal attributions mediate the relationship between personality characteristics and global life satisfaction as hypothesized by DeNeve and Cooper (1998). The results revealed that the personality characteristic of emotional stability, but not extraversion, was related significantly to adolescent life satisfaction.

Wong et al. (2007) explored the relationships between personality, meta-mood experience, life satisfaction, and anxiety among one hundred and eighty nine tertiary students from Australia and 243 tertiary students from Singapore. First, hierarchical regression analyses for both samples suggested that Agreeableness and Neuroticism are the two most important personality predictors of meta-mood experience, emotional attention, and emotional repair. Second, hierarchical

regression analyses for both samples suggested that emotional repair was a significant predictor for life satisfaction and anxiety, even after controlling for demographic variables and personality variables.

Mroczek and Spiro (2005) studied change in life satisfaction over a 22-year period in 1,927 men. A curvilinear relationship emerged. Growth-curve models indicated that life satisfaction peaked at age 65 and then declined, but showed significant individual differences in rate of change. Extraversion predicted variability in change, with higher levels associated with a high and flat life satisfaction trajectory. Time-varying physical health and marital status were associated with higher life satisfaction. Proximity to death was associated with a decline in life satisfaction. The findings are at odds with prior (cross-sectional) research showing that subjective well-being improves with aging.

Joshanloo and Afshari (2009) explored the relation between the Big Five personality traits, self-esteem, and life satisfaction in Iran. Participants were 235 university students at the University of Tehran. Findings revealed that the Big Five personality traits explained about 25% of the variance in life satisfaction scores. Among the Big Five traits, extraversion and neuroticism were found to be the strongest predictors of life satisfaction. In addition, it was found that self-esteem significantly predicted life satisfaction over and above the Big Five personality traits. Findings also showed that self-esteem completely mediated the influence of conscientiousness and agreeableness on life satisfaction, while the influence of extraversion and neuroticism on life satisfaction was partially mediated by self-

esteem. Furthermore, findings revealed that female students scored significantly higher than male students on life satisfaction.

Stephan (2009) carried a study which aimed at testing the relation between openness to experience and life satisfaction among active older adults, both at the broad and facet-level. Two hundred and thirty-five retired adults aged from 58 to 85 years were administered on the openness to experience scale of the NEO-PIR and the Satisfaction with Life Scale. Multiple regression analyses revealed that openness to experience added small but incremental variance to the prediction of life satisfaction, beyond subjective health and financial satisfaction. Openness to ideas and to feelings were both positively related to older individuals' life satisfaction. This study also suggests that during the retirement years, openness is a resource for life satisfaction. Open individuals are more likely to benefit from the opportunities of personal growth proposed during this period, and thus to satisfy their needs.

Mcknight, Huebner and Suldo (2009) investigated the relationships among personality traits, stressful life events (SLEs) and global life satisfaction among 1,201 adolescents. A modest correlation was found between life satisfaction and Extraversion, whereas moderate correlations were found between life satisfaction and Neuroticism and life satisfaction and SLEs.

Fayombo (2010) in a cross-sectional study investigated the relationships between the big five personality traits: (conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience, extraversion) and psychological resilience among 397 Caribbean secondary school adolescents. Pearson Product Moment

Correlation and Stepwise Multiple Regressions were conducted to analyse the data. Results revealed statistically significant positive relationships between the personality traits (conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, extraversion) and psychological resilience, while neuroticism was negatively correlated with psychological resilience. The personality traits also jointly contributed 32% (R square = 0.324) of the variance being accounted for in psychological resilience and this was found to be statistically significant with conscientiousness being the best predictor while agreeableness, neuroticism and openness to experience were other significant predictors, however, extraversion did not contribute significantly.

Van De Ven and Engels (2011) investigated the direct relations between personality traits and quality of life (QOL) in a sample of 405 adolescents (12 to 16-year-olds). Results of this study revealed that adolescents high on extraversion and low on neuroticism had better overall QOL, while adolescents high on agreeableness had better positive-effects of quality of life (QOL).

Baudin et al. (2011) tested the relationships between personality, measured with the Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness Personality Inventory-Revised (NEO-PI-R), satisfaction with life and satisfaction with sport, based on the five dimensions and on the thirty facets. Participants were three hundred and thirteen French (231 men and 82 women) with ages ranging from 17 to 47 (*M*= 22.9, *SD*= 5.9). Consistent with previous studies, satisfaction with life and satisfaction with sport were highly correlated. Stepwise regressions analysis showed that neuroticism and extraversion

were the best predictors of sport and life satisfaction, bearing in mind that the other dimensions did not provide any prediction whatsoever. These results also indicated that a more precise facet-based assessment of personality significantly increased the prediction of satisfaction with life.

Patel (2011) conducted a study on the relationship between personality and life satisfaction. In which he analyzed the Big Five traits, six narrow personality traits, and levels of life satisfaction in a sample of 5,932 individuals. The narrow traits added variance above and beyond the Big Five personality traits. All the Big Five traits and Optimism, Assertiveness, Intrinsic Motivation, and Tough-Mindedness were significantly and positively correlated with life satisfaction.

2.1.2. Emotional Intelligence and Life Satisfaction

A large number of studies have explored the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and life satisfaction by self-report and performance instruments finding significant evidence for EI as an important predictor for real-life outcomes (Charbonneu & Nicol, 2002; Ciarrochi, Deane, & Anderson, 2002).

Martinez-Pons (1997) examined the relation of emotional intelligence with selected areas of personal functioning. One hundred and eight adults ranging in age between eighteen and sixty years were surveyed to assess their emotional intelligence (EI), goal orientation, life satisfaction, and depression symptomatology. Path analysis showed EI to be positively related with an adaptive form of goal orientation and with life satisfaction and to negatively influence depression symptomatology through mediation of these other processes.

Palmer et al. (2002) in their study examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction. To determine the nature of this relationship, personality constructs known to predict life satisfaction were also assessed (positive and negative affect). Emotional intelligence was assessed in 107 participants using a modified version of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale. Life satisfaction was assessed using the Satisfaction with Life Scale. Only the Clarity sub-scale of the TMMS (which indexes perceived ability to understand and discriminate between moods and emotions), and the Difficulty Identifying Feelings sub-scale of the TAS-20 were found to significantly correlate with life satisfaction. Subsequent analyses revealed that only the Clarity sub-scale accounted for further variance in life satisfaction not accounted for by positive and negative affect. These findings provide further evidence that components of the EI construct account for variance in this important human value not accounted for by personality.

Wong et al. (2005) argued that life satisfaction was one important outcome of people with high EI. The reason is that a person with high EI is able to understand his/her own and others' emotions and to draw upon this understanding to improve behaviours and attitudes for positive results.

Bastian et al. (2005) conducted a study on 246 predominantly first-year tertiary students in which they investigated relationships between EI and a number of 'life skills' (academic achievement, life satisfaction, anxiety, problem-solving and coping). Correlations between EI and academic achievement were small and not

statistically significant, although higher EI was correlated with higher life satisfaction, better perceived problem-solving and coping ability and lower anxiety.

Extremera and Ferna´ndez-Berrocal (2005) investigated the association between Perceived Emotional Intelligence (PEI), measured by the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), and life satisfaction in Spanish undergraduate university students. Specially, the predictive and incremental validity of this self-report measure of emotional intelligence was examined. The authors investigated whether PEI would account for variance in satisfaction with life beyond the level attributable to mood states and personality traits. 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.

Landa et al. (2006) examined the relationship between Perceived Emotional Intelligence (PEI) and Life Satisfaction in university teachers. To assess the nature of these relationships and to predict the factors implied on life satisfaction, positive and negative affect were used. 52 university teachers (30 men and 22 women) completed the Spanish version of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale for emotional intelligence (TMMS, Fernández-Berrocal, Extremera & Ramos, 2004). Results

yielded a strong correlation between life satisfaction and TMMS subscales (emotional Clarity and emotional Repair). Further analyses showed that life satisfaction's most significant predictors were positive and negative affect and emotional Clarity. These results support the incremental validity of self-report measures, as the TMMS, and the capacity of constructs related to emotional intelligence to explain the differences on life satisfaction independently from personality traits and mood states constructs.

Kulshrestha and Sen (2006) carried out a study which was designed to investigate the subjective well being in relation to emotional intelligence and locus of control among executives. The study was conducted on 150 executives of different job strata of Hero Honda Motor Ltd. The Chadda's (2001) Emotional Quotient test, Rotter's (1966) Social Reaction inventory, Bradburn's (1969) Positive and Negative affect scale, Andrews and Withey's (1976) life satisfaction scale were used to collect the data . The results of the study reveal that emotional intelligence and locus of control have significant correlation with subjective well being. Subjects with high emotional intelligence and internal locus of control scored significantly high on positive affect and scored significantly low on negative affect. Similarly subjects scored high on emotional intelligence and have internal locus of control scored significantly high on all the three dimensions of life satisfaction scale.

Reinsch (2007) undertook a study, the purpose of their study was to determine what relationship exists between emotional intelligence, lifelong learning and life satisfaction for older adult learners 55 years of age and older. The hypothesis

was that life satisfaction increases with higher levels of emotional intelligence and more involvement in lifelong learning. Two hundred and three adults 55 years of age or older participated. Regression analysis was used to determine the relationships of lifelong learning perspective and emotional intelligence to life satisfaction. Upon inspection of the regression coefficients for these variables, emotional intelligence was found to be the most significantly associated with life satisfaction. Lifelong learning perspective had a significant bivariate relationship with life satisfaction, and was also significantly related to life satisfaction, but not as significantly as emotional intelligence.

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

Carmeli et al. (2009) in their study examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and four aspects of psychological wellbeing (self-acceptance, life satisfaction, somatic complaints and self-esteem). Data were collected from employees through two different structured surveys administered at two points in time. The results of four hierarchical regression models provide, in general, support for the positive association between emotional intelligence and psychological wellbeing components – self-esteem, life satisfaction, and self-acceptance.

Proctor et al. (2009) investigated the characteristics of adolescents reporting very high levels of life satisfaction. Participants (N = 410) were divided into three life satisfaction groups: very high (top 10%), average (middle 25%), and very low (lowest 10%). Results revealed that very happy youths had significantly higher mean scores on all included school, interpersonal, and intrapersonal variables, and significantly lower mean scores on depression, negative affect, and social stress than youths with average and very low levels of life satisfaction. Life meaning, gratitude, self-esteem, and positive affect were found to have a significantly more positive influence on global life satisfaction for the very unhappy than the very happy. Findings suggest that very unhappy youths would benefit most from focused interventions aimed at boosting those variables having the most influence on their level of life satisfaction.

Nasir and Masrur (2010) in their correlational study intended to examine the relationship of emotional intelligence (EI) with gender, age and academic achievement of students of International Islamic University Islamabad (IIUI). In this

study the predictor variable was emotional intelligence and criterion variable was academic achievement as measured by students' Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA). Emotional intelligence was measured with the help of BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQi). Correlation analysis, regression analysis and t-test were performed to test the hypotheses. Results indicated a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. Emotional intelligence was found a significant predictor of academic achievement. No significant correlation was found between age and emotional intelligence. There was no difference in the mean EQi scores of male and female students except on stress management scale where male students scored higher than female students.

Deniz et al. (2010) in their study examined the relationships between emotional intelligence abilities and life satisfaction of the teachers working at private special education institutions. The sample of the study consisted of 127 teachers, 87 women and 40 men, working at private special education institutions in Konya, Turkey. Bar-On EQ Inventory, Satisfaction with Life Scale and Demographic Information Form were conducted to the participants. Stress management and general mood sub-dimensions were found to have significant positive correlations with life satisfaction, whereas intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills and adaptability sub-dimensions had no significant correlations with life satisfaction.

Swierzewska (n.d) studied life satisfaction among active and inactive people aged over 60 years old. The research was carried out to find if activity is related to higher life satisfaction and if there is an association between life satisfaction and

emotional intelligence, optimism and basic hope among the elders. Hundred one (101) subjects aged over 60 years old took part in the study – 64 were active and 37 were inactive. The findings advocated that there is an association between activity and life satisfaction among men – higher activity associate with higher life satisfaction. Active men were also more satisfied than active women. Results also indicated that life satisfaction is positively correlated with emotional intelligence, optimism and basic hope, but these variables are not related to activity.

Karim and Weisz (2011) examined the relationships amongst emotional intelligence, work-family conflict, satisfaction with life, and psychological distress among a sample of employees working in three public sector organizations in Pakistan. Results indicated that emotional intelligence was positively related to deep acting and satisfaction with life and negatively to psychological distress.

2.1.3. Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Personality Traits (BFT)

Lopes, Salovey and Straus (2002) carried a study on emotional intelligence, personality, and the perceived quality of social relationships. This study explored links between emotional intelligence, measured as a set of abilities, and personality traits, as well as the contribution of both to the perceived quality of one's interpersonal relationships. In a sample of 103 college students, they found that both emotional intelligence and personality traits were associated with concurrent self-reports of satisfaction with social relationships. Results also showed that Global satisfaction with one's relationships was associated with extraversion, neuroticism (negatively), and the ability to manage one's emotions, as assessed by the MSCEIT.

A study examining self- report ability and other ratings of EI loosely based on the ability model of EI found strong relationships between the EI dimensions and the Big Five personality dimensions, particularly Extraversion and Neuroticism (**Van Der Zee, Thijs, & Schakel, 2002**). However, in this study the EI dimensions were found to predict both academic and social success above that which was predicted by academic intelligence and personality. Preliminary investigation of a new self-report ability scale of EI (**Palmer & Stough, 2001**) shows low to moderate correlations with the major dimensions of the NEO-FFI (Costa & McCrae, 1992), ranging from 0.09 to 0.47.

Furnham and Petrides (2003) carried out a study in which participants completed measures of trait emotional intelligence (trait EI), happiness, personality, and cognitive ability. Neuroticism was negatively related to happiness, whereas Extraversion and Openness to Experience were positively related to it. Cognitive ability was not related either to happiness or to trait EI. A three-step hierarchical regression showed that trait EI explained over 50% of the total variance in happiness. The positive relationship between trait EI and happiness persisted in the presence of the Big Five.

Vakola, Tsaousis and Nikolaou (2004) examined the role of emotional intelligence and personality variables on attitudes toward organisational change. This study explores how emotional intelligence and the "big five" dimensions of personality can facilitate organisational change at an individual level by exploring the relationship between these attributes and attitudes toward organisational change.

The sample consisted of 137 professionals who completed self-report inventories assessing emotional intelligence, personality traits and attitudes towards organisational change. The results confirmed that there is a relationship between personality traits and employees' attitudes toward change. Similarly, the contribution of emotional intelligence to the attitudes to change was found to be significant, indicating the added value of using an emotional intelligence measure above and beyond the effect of personality.

Brackett and Mayer (2004) in their study found that emotional intelligence is highly significantly correlated with Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness, but moderately related to Openness to experience.

Warwick and Nettelbeck (2004) conducted a study in which eighty-four tertiary students completed questionnaires measuring emotional intelligence (EI) and personality traits. 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.

Austin et al. (2005) carried out a study on emotional intelligence in which they found that emotional intelligence is more strongly associated with social network size when compared with the Big-Five personality traits. In turn Big-Five traits appeared to be more strongly related to life satisfaction and health status.

Day, Therrian and Caroll (2005) found high emotional intelligence individuals tended to be considerably more extraverted and conscientiousness than low scores on emotional intelligence.

Lounsbury et al. (2005) carried a study in which Big Five personality traits were analyzed in relation to career decidedness among adolescents in middle and high school. Participants were 248 7th-grade, 321 10thgrade, and 282 12th-grade students. As hypothesized, Conscientiousness was positively and significantly correlated with career decidedness in all three grades. Openness and Agreeableness were found to be positively related to career decidedness for these middle and high school students. Emotional Stability was positively, significantly related to career decidedness for the 12th-grade sample. There were no significant differences in correlational results for males versus females.

Chamorro-Premuzic et al. (2007) in their study examined the relationship between the Big Five personality traits (Gosling et al., 2003), trait emotional intelligence (EI) (Petrides & Furnham, 2001) and happiness (Argyle et al., 1989) in a sample of 112 (61 female) student and non-student participants. Strong dispositional determinants of happiness were identified. In line with previous findings, four of the Big Five, namely stability, extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness, were positively correlated with both happiness and trait EI, which explained 18% of unique variance (over and above age and the Big Five) in happiness. Furthermore, a significant amount of shared variance between happiness and the Big Five was explained by trait EI, which partly mediated the paths from stability and conscientiousness to happiness, and fully mediated the link between agreeableness and happiness.

Singh and Sharma (2009) in their study intended to observe the effect of emotional intelligence on neuroticism. It was assumed that emotionally high intelligent subjects would be low on neuroticism while emotionally low intelligent subjects would be high on neuroticism. For the purpose initially an emotional intelligence scale was administered on 400 college going students to select 60 subjects with high emotional intelligence and 60 subjects with low emotional intelligence randomly, on the basis of Q1 and Q3 statistics on the obtained EI scores. These selected subjects were then administered Hindi version of MPI. Average standard score of high EI group on neuroticism was found to be lower than that of low EI group and the obtained CR was statistically significant. The better mental health of high EI group may be attributed to emotional self awareness, self regard, self actualization, stress tolerance, impulse control, problem solving, reality testing, happiness and optimism dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Petrides et al. (2010) investigated the relationships between trait emotional intelligence (trait EI; TEIQue-SF) and the Big Five personality dimensions (NEO-FFI) in two Dutch samples. Neuroticism was the strongest correlate of trait EI in both samples, followed by Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and Openness. Regression analyses confirmed that the overlap between trait EI and the higher-order personality dimensions exceeds 50%, even when the constructs are operationalized via shortened assessments. These results are not only fully in line with trait EI theory, but also support the cross-cultural validity of the TEIQue-SF,

and its suitability for the rapid assessment of global trait EI and its four constituent factors.

Summing it up, the related literature highlights the previous empirical findings which indicate that personality traits and emotional intelligence predict life satisfaction and that these are positively related to life satisfaction in different populations. The related literature also confirms that people with high emotional intelligence (EI/EQ) show greater levels of life satisfaction. Among the big five traits of personality, Neuroticism and Extraversion have been stated as the strongest predictors of life satisfaction.
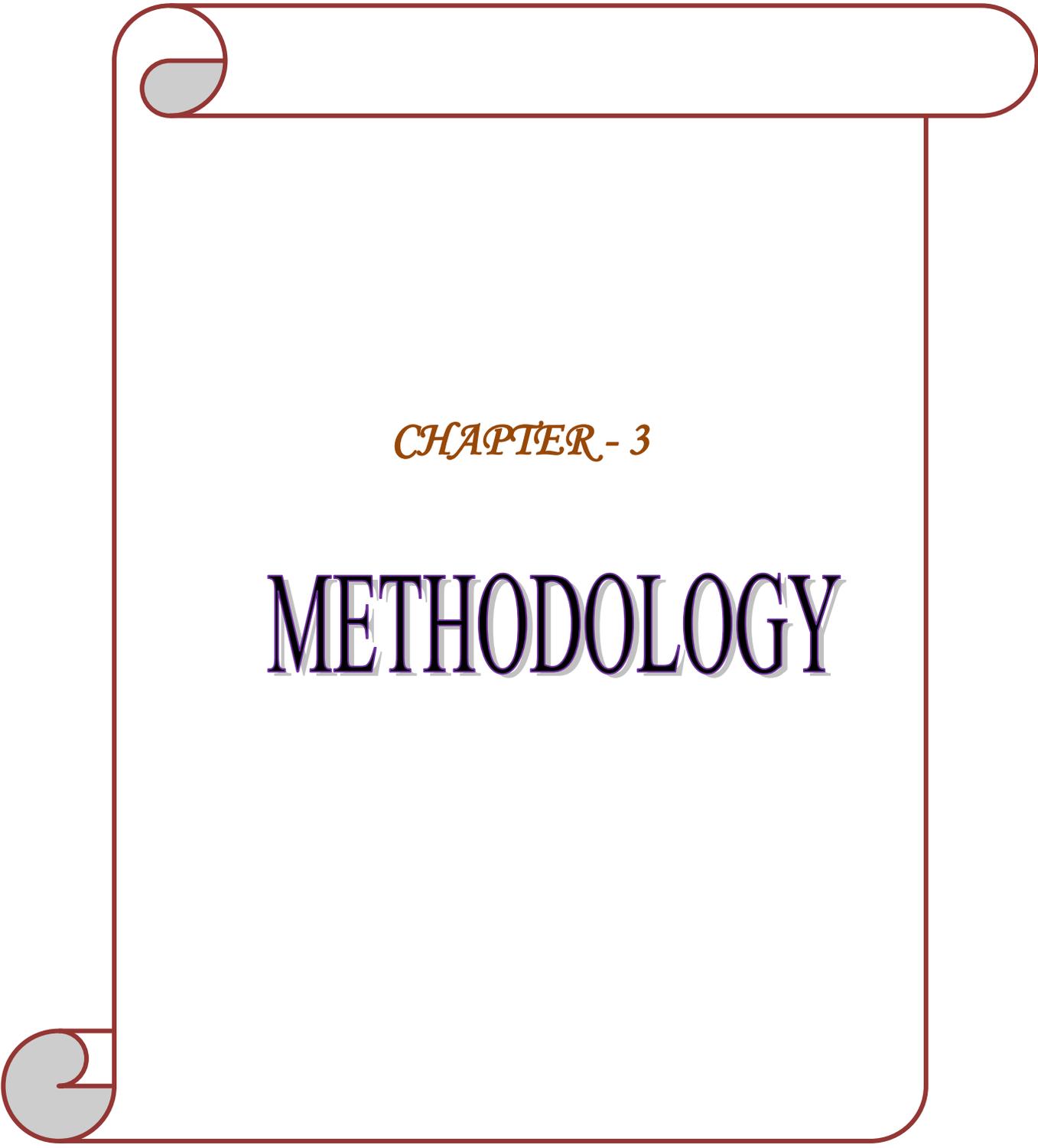
CHAPTER - 3

METHODOLOGY

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Sample:

The total sample consisted of 302 respondents comprising of three participant groups- adolescents (100), adults (102) and aged (100) persons selected from different areas of district, **Srinagar**.

The sample comprised of 163 (54%) males and 139 (46%) females. The mean age of the adolescent participant group was 17.28 with a range from 17-18 years whereas the mean age of the adult participant group was 28 with a range from 22-47 years and the mean age of the aged participant group was 61.45 with a range from 56-83 years.

A detailed description of the sample is given in the following table:

Participant Groups	Gender	Frequency	Total
Adolescents	Male	39	100
	Female	61	
Adults	Male	44	102
	Female	58	
Aged	Male	80	100
	Female	20	
			N=302

3.2. Measures:

The instruments used to obtain the data for the present study are as follows:

i. NEO Five-Factor Inventory-3 (*NEO-FFI-3*) – Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1992)

ii. Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory (*MEII*): Mangal, S. K. & Mangal, S. (2004)

iii. The Satisfaction with Life Scale (*SWLS*): Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985)

iv. Information Blank (IB)

The above tools were further translated into local Urdu language along with back translation with the help of experts, to ensure that the participants understand the statements of the questionnaires correctly.

3.2.1. DESCRIPTION OF THE TOOLS

i. NEO Five-Factor Inventory-3 (*NEO-FFI-3*) – Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1992)

The NEO Five-Factor Inventory-3 (*NEO-FFI-3*) is a highly-regarded assessment of personality. It is a shortened version of the *NEO PI-R,* designed to give quick, reliable and valid measures of the five domains of personality. The 60 items of *NEO-FFI-3* are rated on a five point scale (ranging from strongly agree-strongly disagree). The five domains (factors) measured by the *NEO-FFI-3* provide a general description of personality, while the facet scales allow more detailed analysis (the facet scales have not been taken into consideration in the present study). These five factors and their facet scales include: **Neuroticism** (Anxiety, Hostility, Depression, Self-Consciousness, Impulsiveness, Vulnerability);

Extraversion (Warmth, Gregariousness, Assertiveness, Activity, Excitement-Seeking, Positive Emotions); **Openness to Experience** (Fantasy, Aesthetics, Feelings, Actions, Ideas, Values); **Agreeableness** (Trust, Modesty, Compliance, Altruism, Straightforwardness, Tender-Mindedness); **Conscientiousness** (Competence, Self-Discipline, Achievement-Striving, Dutifulness, Order, Deliberation). There is no time limit for the *NEO-FFI-3*, most respondents require 5-10 minutes to complete the measure, but older respondents may take longer. Scoring is done as per the *NEO-FFI-3* Item Booklet.

The NEO-FFI-3 scales show correlations of .75 to .89. For the *NEO FFI-3* the internal consistencies reported were: N= .79, E= .79, O= .80, A= .75, C= .83.

ii. Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory (*MEII*): Mangal, S. K. & Mangal, S. (2004)

It is a 100 item scale which is used to assess four areas of emotional intelligence namely *intra-personal awareness* (own emotions)*, inter-personal awareness* (others emotions)*, intra-personal management* and *inter-personal management* respectively. The mode of response to each of the item of this inventory is in the form of forced choice i.e. either "yes" or "No", indicating complete agreement or disagreement with the proposed statement respectively. In the present *Emotional Intelligence Inventory* thus there are items where response 'Yes' is indicative of the presence of emotional intelligence and 'No' indicative of lack of emotional intelligence. Similarly, there are items where 'No' response provides clue for presence of emotional intelligence and 'Yes' for its absence. For scoring, one mark is

to be provided for the response indicating presence of emotional intelligence and zero for absence of emotional intelligence. It takes 30-40 mts. to complete the *Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory* (*MEII*).

The Inventory (*MEII*) has high reliability coefficients on three methods .89 (Split Half), .90 (K-R   Formula, 20) and .92 (Test-Retest) respectively.

iii. The Satisfaction with Life Scale (*SWLS*): Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985)

The Satisfaction with Life Scale is a five-item scale that assesses an individual's personal judgement of his/her general quality of life. *Satisfaction with Life Scale* measures global life satisfaction and the items in it are completed on a seven-point Likert scale with a response range consisting of 1-strongly disagree to 7-strongly agree. Individuals who obtain a score of 31-35 on *SWLS* are highly satisfied, while as 26-30 are satisfied, 21-25 - slightly satisfied, 29-neutral, 15-19- slightly dissatisfied, 10-14-dissatisfied and 5-9 -extremely dissatisfied. *SWLS* is not a time bound measure; a respondent can take 2-3 mts. to complete it. This measure has been found to have favourable psychometric properties. Numerous research studies found acceptable content and criterion related validity. According to Pavot and Diener (1993) the internal consistency of the scale is good with coefficients of 0.87 and more.

Apart from the above tools an **Information Blank (IB)** was designed to gather information of various socio-personal factors viz, age, gender, occupation, income, family status, geographical location etc. of the chosen sample.

3.3. Statistical Analysis

Completed assessments were numerically coded and entered into SPSS. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze all of the testing results. Keeping in view the objectives, Pearson's Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression were used.

3.4. Procedure

In the present study, non-probability purposive sampling was used for all three participant groups - adolescents, adults and aged. Non-probability purposive sampling refers to selecting a sample based on the researcher's own knowledge of the population (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 166). According to Maree (2007: 178), purposive sampling looks at particular situations where sampling is done with a specific purpose in mind.

As the universe of the study was district **Srinagar**, the participants from different areas were approached personally after proper rapport building. Participation was voluntary and all respondents gave informed consent and were informed that results would remain confidential and anonymous. They were given the questionnaires related to the present study and were instructed to fill each item with their most appropriate response and were also briefed about the time limitations. The first scale (*MEII*) was time bound which was to be completed in 30-40 mts. while the other two scales (*NEO-FFI-3 & SWLS*) were not time bound. Data collection was completed in two phases [which included different institutions (both govt. and private), coaching centres and residential colonies]. During data collection

all ethical issues were taken into consideration i.e Informed Consent, Anonymity and Confidentiality.

CHAPTER - 4

RESULTS
&
DISCUSSION

4.   RESULTS AND DISSCUSION

In this chapter the findings of the study are presented. Subsequent to the presentation of the results, the findings are discussed.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Table **4.1a** to table **4.1c** display the percentages as obtained by the participants in the three populations – Adolescents, Adults and Aged with respect to the criterion (life satisfaction) and predictor variables (emotional intelligence & personality traits).

Table 4.1a

Frequency distribution of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in Adolescent, Adult and Aged (Participant Groups)

	Adolescents		Adults		Aged	
Levels of Emotional Intelligence (EI)	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Low	40	40%	48	47.1%	56	56%
Average	51	51%	44	43.13%	32	32%
High	9	9%	10	9.8%	12	12%
Total (N) = 302	**n = 100**		**n=102**		**n = 100**	

From the above table (*4.1a*) it is clear that 40% of the adolescents lie in the low level of Emotional Intelligence, 51% of them lie at average level and 9% lie in the high level of Emotional Intelligence. In the Adult participant group, 47.1% of the adults lie in the low level of Emotional Intelligence whereas 9.8% lie in the high level & 43.13% lie at average level.

Table *4.1a* also indicates that in the Aged participant group, 56% of the aged lie in the low level of Emotional Intelligence, 12% of them lie in the high level whereas 32% of them fall at average level of Emotional Intelligence.

Fig. 4.1a
Percentages of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in Adolescent, Adult and Aged
(Participant Groups)
[Adolescents (n=100), Adults (n=102) and Aged (n=100)]
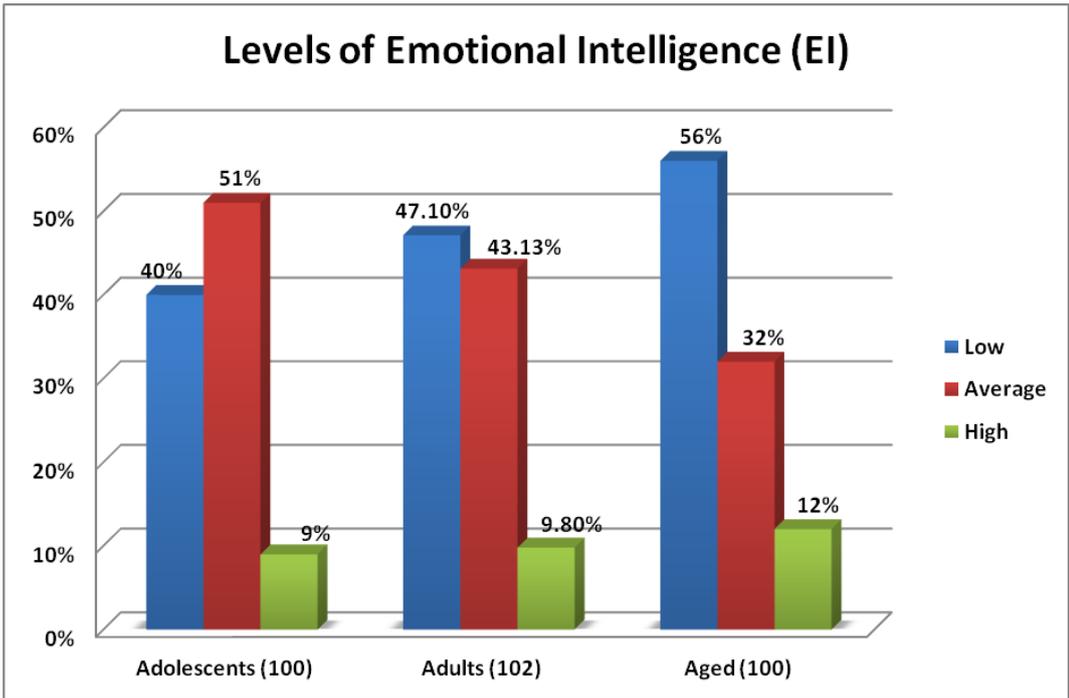
Table 4.1b

Frequency distribution of Personality Traits (NEOAC) in Adolescent, Adult and Aged (Participant Groups)

Personality Traits (NEOAC)	Level	Adolescents		Adults		Aged	
		Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Neuroticism (N)	Low	11	11%	5	4.90%	7	7%
	Average	37	37%	43	42.15%	52	52%
	High	52	52%	54	52.94%	41	41%
Extraversion (E)	Low	83	83%	65	64%	61	61%
	Average	17	17%	31	30.39%	37	37%
	High	0	0	6	5.88%	2	2%
Openness to experience (O)	Low	89	89%	32	31.37%	75	75%
	Average	10	10%	29	28.43%	22	22%
	High	1	1%	41	40.2%	3	3%
Agreeableness (A)	Low	94	94%	99	97.1%	91	91%
	Average	5	5%	3	2.94%	9	9%
	High	1	1%	0	0	0	0
Conscientiousness (C)	Low	99	99%	96	94.12%	92	92%
	Average	1	1%	5	4.90%	7	7%
	High	0	0	1	0.98%	1	1%
Total (N) = 302		**n=100**		**n=102**		**n=100**	

Table (*4.1b*) shows that 11% of the adolescents lie in the low level of Neuroticism (N), 37% of them lie at average level and 52% lie in the high level. In the Extraversion (E) trait, 83% of the adolescents lie in the low level whereas 17% lie at the average level. Similarly, 89% of the adolescents lie in the low level of Openness to experience (O) whereas 10% lie at average level. In the Agreeableness (A) trait, 94% of the adolescents fall in the low level while only 1% fall in the high level & 5% fall at average level. The above table also indicates that 99% of adolescents lie in the low level & 1% lie at the average level in the Conscientiousness (C) personality trait.

The above table (*4.1b*) highlights that 4.90% of the adults lie in the low level of Neuroticism (N) whereas 42.15% of them lie at average and 52.94% lie in the high level. In the Extraversion (E) trait, 64% of the adults lie in the low level whereas 30.39% lie at the average level. Similarly, 31.37% of the adults lie in the low level of Openness to experience (O) whereas 28.43% lie at average level and 40.2% lie in the high level of this trait. In the Agreeableness (A) trait, 97.1% of the adults fall in the low level whereas 2.94% fall at average level. The above table also indicates that 94.12% of adult males lie in the low level & 4.90% lie at the average level of the Conscientiousness (C) personality trait.

Table (*4.1b*) highlights that 7% of the aged males lie in the low level of Neuroticism (N) whereas 52% of them lie at average and 41% lie in the high level. In the Extraversion (E) trait, 61% of the aged males lie in the low level whereas 37% lie at the average level. Similarly, 75% of the aged males lie in the low level of Openness to experience (O) whereas 22% lie at average level. In the Agreeableness (A) trait, 91% of the aged males fall in the low level whereas 9% of them fall in the high level. The table also indicates that 92% of aged males lie in the low level, 1% in the high & 7 % of them lie at the average level of the Conscientiousness (C) personality trait.

Figure 4.1b

Percentages of Personality Traits (NEOAC) in Adolescent, Adult and Aged (Participant Groups)
[Adolescents (n=100), Adults (n=102) and Aged (n=100)]

Personality Traits (NEOAC)

Neuroticism (N): Low 7%, Average 52%, High 41%
Extraversion (E): Low 61%, Average 37%, High 2%
Openness to experience (O): Low 75%, Average 22%, High 3%
Agreeableness (A): Low 91%, Average 9%, High 0
Conscientiousness (C): Low 92%, Average 7%, High 1%

■ Aged (100)
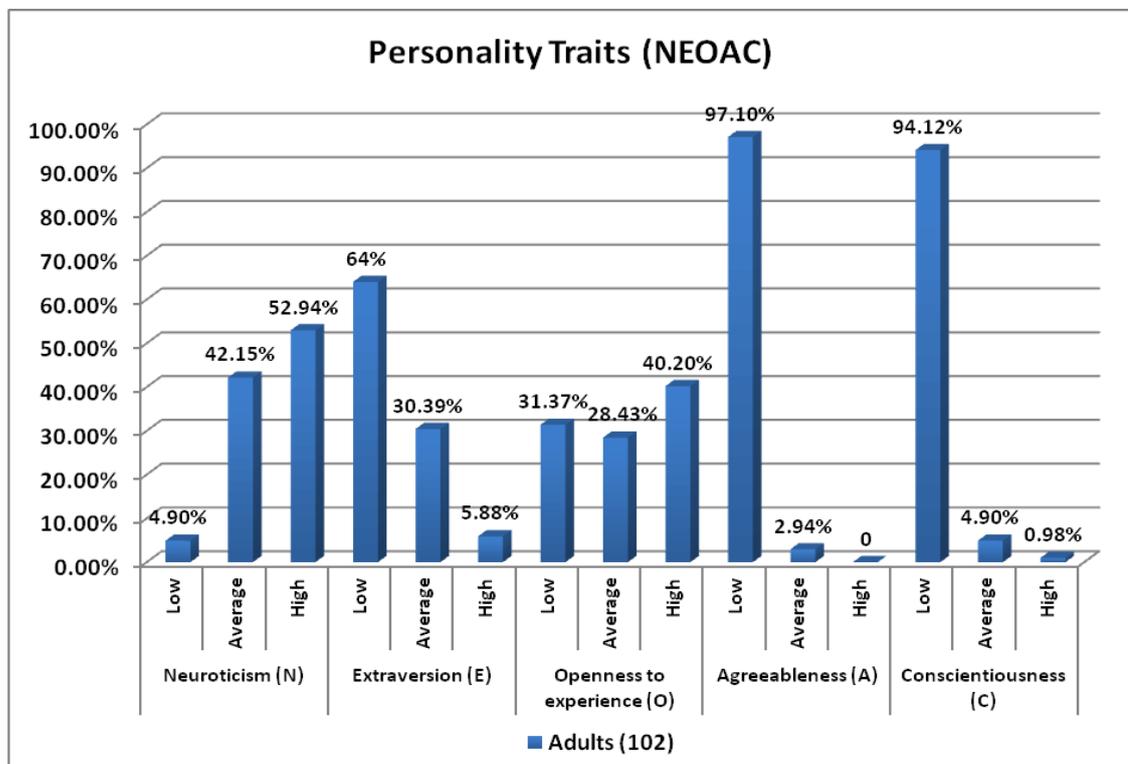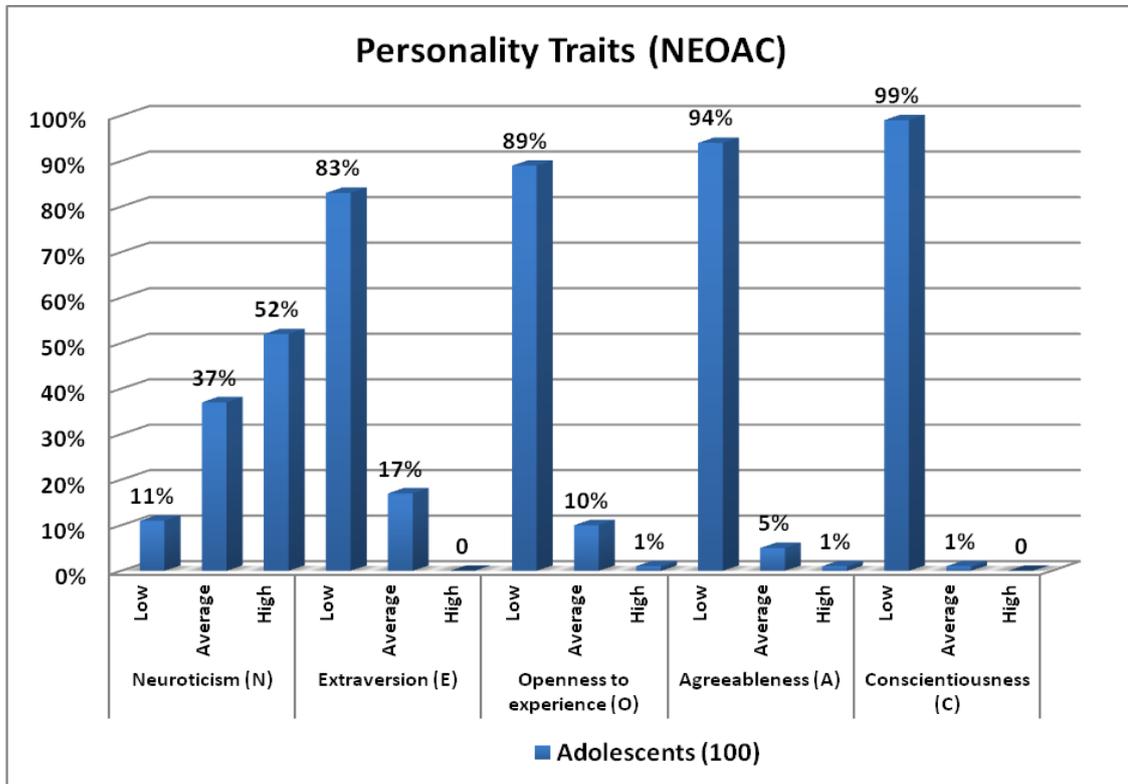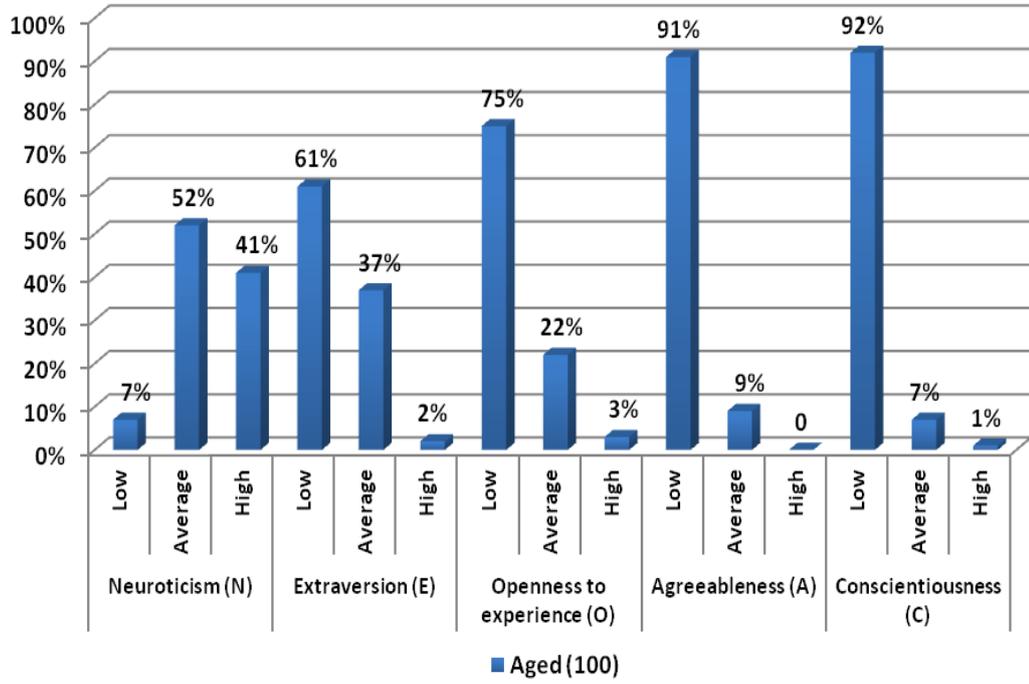
Table 4.1c

*Frequency distribution of Life Satisfaction (LS) in Adolescent, Adult and Aged (**Participant Groups**)*

Levels of Life Satisfaction	Adolescents		Adults		Aged	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Dissatisfied (includes Slightly dissatisfied & Ext. dissatisfied level)	31	31%	33	32.35%	30	30%
Slightly Satisfied	24	24%	36	35.29%	30	30%
Satisfied (Satisfied & Ext. Satisfied level)	41	41%	28	27.45%	31	31%
Neutral	4	4%	5	4.90%	9	9%
Total (N) = 302	**n=100**		**n=102**		**n=100**	

From the above table (*4.1c*) it is clear that 31% of the adolescents fall in the dissatisfied level (includes slightly dissatisfied & Ext. dissatisfied level) of Life Satisfaction whereas 24% of them lie in the slightly satisfied level and 41% of them lie in the satisfied level. Also 4% of the adolescents fall in the neutral category. The above table (*4.1c*) also indicates that 32.35% of the adults fall in the dissatisfied level (includes slightly dissatisfied & Ext. dissatisfied level) of Life Satisfaction, 35.29% of them lie in the slightly satisfied level whereas 27.45% of them lie in the satisfied level of Life Satisfaction.

Table (*4.1c*) further indicates that 30% of the aged fall in the dissatisfied level (includes slightly dissatisfied & Ext. dissatisfied level) of Life Satisfaction, 30% of them lie in the slightly satisfied level whereas 31% of them lie in the satisfied level of Life Satisfaction.

Figure 4.1c

Percentages of Life Satisfaction (LS) in Adolescent, Adult and Aged
(Participant Groups)
[Adolescents (n=100), Adults (n=102) and Aged (n=100)]
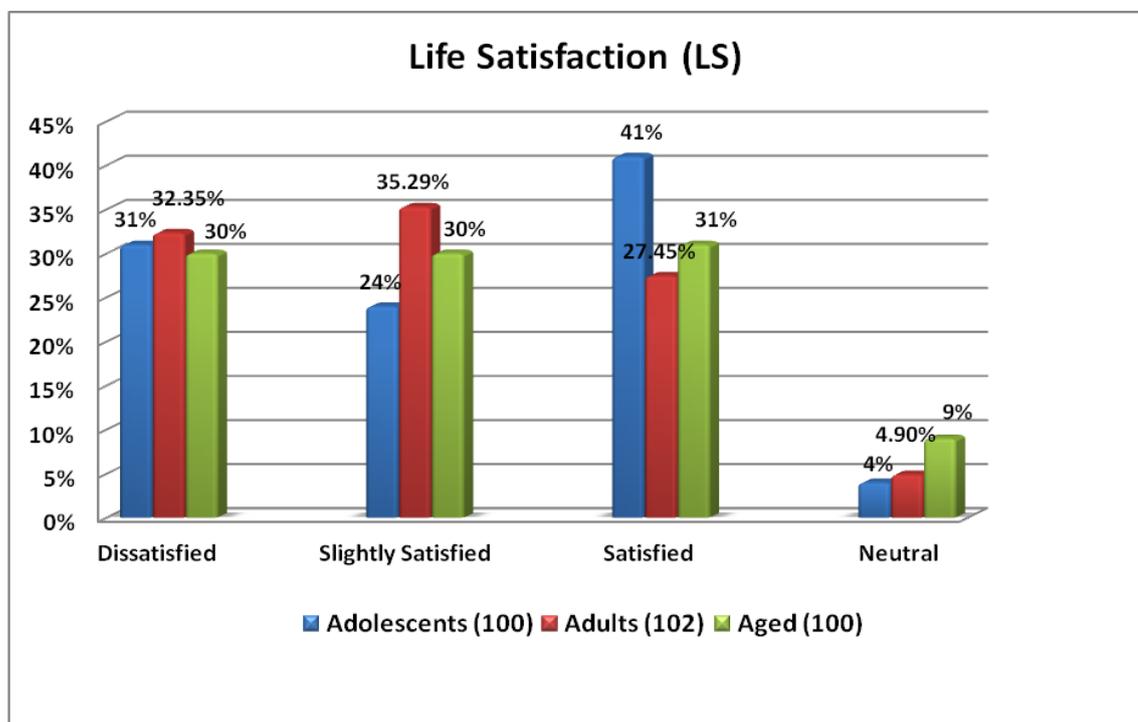
Table 4.2

Correlation between Life Satisfaction (LS) & Emotional Intelligence Factors (EI) in Adolescents, Adults and Aged Persons

Factors of Emotional Intelligence (EI)	Life Satisfaction (LS)		
	Adolescents	Adults	Aged
Intra personal Awareness (E1)	$r_= .421**$	$r_= .558**$	$r_= .433**$
Inter personal Awareness (E2)	$r_= .257**$	$r_= .597**$	$r_= .335**$
Intra Personal Management (E3)	$r_= .091^{NS}$	$r_= -.026^{NS}$	$r_= .378**$
Inter Personal Management (E4)	$r_= .120^{NS}$	$r_= .425**$	$r_= .207*$
N =302	**100**	**102**	**100**

P0≤ 0.01 ***P<0.05 **NS-Not Significant**

Table *4.2* indicates that Life Satisfaction has a significant positive correlation with Intra-personal awareness factor (E1) & Inter-personal awareness factor (E2) of Emotional Intelligence among adolescents, adults and aged persons. It also reveals that Life Satisfaction has a significant positive correlation with Inter Personal Management factor (E4) of Emotional Intelligence among the adults.

Table *4.2* further shows that Life Satisfaction has a significant positive correlation with Intra-personal management (E3) and Inter-personal management factors (E4) of Emotional Intelligence among the aged persons. However, table *4.2* also confirms that Life Satisfaction has insignificant relationship with Intra-personal management (E3) and Inter-personal management factors (E4) of Emotional Intelligence among the adolescents. Similarly the above table (*4.2)* also shows that Life Satisfaction has an insignificant negative relationship with the Intra Personal Management factor (E3) of Emotional Intelligence among the adults. Therefore, our Hypotheses: H_{01}, H_{02} are rejected whereas H_{03} and H_{04} are accepted.

Table 4.3

Correlation between Life Satisfaction (LS) and Personality Traits
(NEOAC) in Adolescents, Adults and Aged Persons

Personality Traits (NEOAC)	Life Satisfaction (LS)		
	Adolescents	Adults	Aged
Neuroticism (N)	$r = .333^{**}$	$r = .224^{*}$	$r = -.346^{**}$
Extraversion (E)	$r = -.252^{**}$	$r = -.306^{**}$	$r = -.082^{NS}$
Openness to experience (O)	$r = -.243^{**}$	$r = -.314^{**}$	$r = -.250^{**}$
Agreeableness (A)	$r = -.258^{**}$	$r = -.202^{*}$	$r = -.321^{**}$
Conscientiousness (C)	$r = -.461^{**}$	$r = -.518^{**}$	$r = -.343^{**}$
N =302	**100**	**102**	**100**

P$\leq$0.01   ***P<0.05   **NS-Not Significant**

Table (*4.3*) indicates that Life Satisfaction has a significant positive correlation with Neuroticism (N) among the adolescents and the adults whereas in the Aged, Life Satisfaction has a significant negative correlation with Neuroticism (N). It also reveals that Life Satisfaction has a significant negative correlation with Extraversion (E) among the adolescents and the adults whereas in the Aged, Life Satisfaction has an insignificant negative relationship with Extraversion (E).

Table *4.3* further shows that Life Satisfaction has a significant negative correlation with Openness to experience (O), Agreeableness (A) and Conscientiousness (C) among the adolescents, adults and the aged persons. Therefore, our hypotheses: H_{05}, H_{06}, H_{08} and H_{09} are rejected whereas H_{07} is accepted.

Table **4.4AB** to table **4.6AB** present the regression analysis of Life Satisfaction and its predictors (Emotional Intelligence and Personality Traits) across the three populations (Adolescents, Adults and Aged).

Table 4.4-A

   Showing Multiple Regression Analysis *(ANOVA Summary)*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Regression	1315.102	9	146.122	4.671**
Residual	2815.488	90	31.283	
Total	4130.590	99		

**P≤0.01

   a. Predictors: (Constant) E1, E2, E3, E4, N, E, O, A, C
   b. Age = **Adolescents**
   c. Dependent Variable: L.S (Life Satisfaction)

   R Square= .318

Table 4.4-B

Showing Multiple Regression Analysis *(Summary of Predictor Variables)*

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t
(Constant)	29.603	7.448		3.975**
E1	.748	.247	.360	3.033 **
E2	-.088	.210	-.050	-.420 NS
E3	-.335	.197	-.167	-.1.701 NS
E4	.274	.248	-.116	-.1.103 NS
N	.060	.119	.066	.508 NS
E	-.161	.131	-.123	-1.232 NS
O	-.020	.129	-.017	-.152 NS
A	.044	.122	.047	.362 NS
C	-.374	.149	-.356	-2.516**

**P≤0.01   NS-Not Significant
Dependent Variable: L.S (Life Satisfaction)

   Table *4.4*-A & *4.4*-B examines the predictors of life satisfaction. The F-value (F= 4.671, P≤0.01) indicates that certain factors of emotional

intelligence and personality traits are acting as significant predictors of life satisfaction. From the t-value of these predictors it is evident that E1 (intra-personal awareness) and Conscientiousness (C) emerged as the significant predictors of life satisfaction in adolescents whereas the't' values of other factors of emotional intelligence and personality traits are insignificant.

Table 4.5-A

Showing Multiple Regression Analysis (*ANOVA Summary*)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Regression	2157.244	9	239.694	7.881**
Residual	2798.099	92	30.414	
Total	4955.343	101		

**P$\leq$0.01

a. Predictors: (Constant) E1, E2, E3, E4, N, E, O, A, C
b. Age = **Adults**
c. Dependent Variable: L.S (Life Satisfaction)

R Square=.435

Table 4.5-B

Showing Multiple Regression Analysis (*Summary of Predictor Variables*)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t
	B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**	
(Constant)	10.168	8.205		1.239 [NS]
E1	.373	.217	.211	1.718 [NS]
E2	.468	.233	.288	2.010*
E3	-.250	.173	-.121	-1.441 [NS]
E4	.256	.189	.142	1.352 [NS]
N	.092	.112	.080	.821 [NS]
E	-.115	.123	-.085	-.932 [NS]
O	-.094	.137	-.067	-.690 [NS]
A	.152	.127	.119	1.200 [NS]
C	-.084	.136	-.079	-.620 [NS]

*P$\leq$0.05   NS-Not Significant

Dependent Variable: L.S (Life Satisfaction)

Table *4.5-A & 4.5-B* present the regression analysis of life satisfaction wherein the F-value (F=7.881, P$\leq$0.01) indicates that certain factors of emotional intelligence and personality traits are acting as significant predictors of life satisfaction. From the t-value of these predictors it is evident that only E2 (inter-personal awareness) emerged as a significant predictor of life

satisfaction in adults whereas the 't' values of other factors of emotional intelligence and personality traits are insignificant.

Table 4.6–A

Showing Multiple Regression Analysis (*ANOVA Summary)*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Regression	950.518	9	105.613	4.317**
Residual	2201.842	90	24.465	
Total	3152.360	99		

**P≤0.01

a. Predictors: (Constant) E1, E2, E3, E4, N, E, O, A, C
b. Age = **Aged**
c. Dependent Variable: L.S (Life Satisfaction)

R Square = .302

Table 4.6-B

Showing Multiple Regression Analysis *(Summary of Predictor Variables)*

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t
	B	Std. Error	Beta	
(Constant)	7.215	7.536		.957 NS
E1	.547	.206	.350	2.658**
E2	-.106	.231	-.065	-.459 NS
E3	.359	.196	.236	1.831 NS
E4	-.192	.174	-.125	-1.102 NS
N	.244	.096	-.257	-2.539**
E	.102	.107	.092	.960 NS
O	-.104	.106	-.101	-.981 NS
A	.008	.114	.009	.071 NS
C	-.011	.105	-.014	-.109 NS

**P≤0.01   NS-Not Significant
Dependent Variable: L.S (Life Satisfaction)

The above table (*4.6*-A & *4.6*-B) examines the predictors of life satisfaction. The F-value (F=4.317, P≤0.01) indicates that certain factors of emotional intelligence and personality traits are acting as significant predictors of life satisfaction. From the t-value of these predictors it is evident that E1 (intra-personal awareness) and Neuroticism (N) emerged as the significant predictors of life satisfaction in aged persons whereas the 't' values of other factors of emotional intelligence and personality traits are insignificant.

On the basis of the results obtained from the above regression analysis tables (*4.4AB* to *4.6AB*) our hypotheses: H_{010}, H_{011}, H_{012}, H_{013}, H_{014}, H_{015}, H_{016}, H_{017} and H_{018} are all accepted.

4.7. RESULTS

The results section provides an explanation of what was found in the study, followed by a discussion with respect to the findings and lastly the possible practical implications and recommendations of the study in the conclusion chapter. Tables and bar-charts have been used to graphically display the information of this study, so that the data can be easily summarised and understood.

Frequency tables were initially used to give an overall impression of the data that was collected for the study. Aron and Aron (1997) maintain that frequencies provide descriptive statistics and thus should be used for a first look at collected data. The frequency tables along with descriptive statistics describes what the data shows. Table **4.1a** to table **4.1c** display the frequencies of both the predictor and criterion variables in each participant group- Adolescents, Adults and Aged.

The second statistical procedure that was used was Pearson's product moment method. Pearson's correlations were computed between i) Emotional Intelligence & Life Satisfaction and ii) Personality traits & Life Satisfaction. It was found that Emotional Intelligence (EI) is positively related to Life Satisfaction (LS) in all the three participant groups-Adolescents, Adults and Aged. The main factors of EI which were found positively correlated with Life Satisfaction (LS) were E1 & E2 (Adolescents); E1, E2 & E4 (Adults) and E1, E2, E3 & E4 (Aged). Correlations between Personality traits & Life Satisfaction indicated that the big-five personality traits (NEOAC) showed significant correlations (both positive and negative) with Life Satisfaction (LS) in all the three participant groups- Adolescents, Adults and Aged.

The final statistical procedure employed in the analysis of the data included multiple regression analysis. Results of regression analysis confirm that some of the Emotional Intelligence factors emerged as the significant predictors of Life Satisfaction (LS) in all the three participant groups- Adolescents (E1), Adults (E2) and Aged (E1) whereas among the big-five personality traits (NEOAC), Conscientiousness (C) and Neuroticism (N) emerged as the significant predictors of Life Satisfaction (LS) in the adolescent and aged participant groups.

4.8. DISCUSSION

In today's fast changing world, the role of emotional intelligence and personality cannot be underestimated in determining one's satisfaction with life as has been stated in many empirical studies. Life satisfaction refers to how a person evaluates his own life, his general happiness, achievement of goals,

freedom from worries, having a positive ego and harmonizing with one's settings effectively. According to McCrae and Costa (1991) neuroticism and extraversion have a direct influence on life satisfaction. Patrick (1989) reported the findings of two studies which investigated the personality correlates of life satisfaction among Australian adolescents. Results from both studies revealed a significant negative correlation between neuroticism and satisfaction with life. In the second study, extraversion was related to satisfaction with life for the total group. However, it is unclear whether the strongest personality predictors of life satisfaction are neuroticism, extraversion and conscientiousness among the big-five traits of personality. Many studies have been carried out on the association between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction. Karim and Weisz (2011) examined the relationships amongst emotional intelligence, satisfaction with life, and psychological distress among a sample of employees working in three public sector organizations in Pakistan. Results indicated that emotional intelligence was positively related to satisfaction with life and negatively to psychological distress. Carmeli et al. (2009) in their study also found positive association between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction. Emotional Intelligence includes the ability to understand and regulate one's own emotions as well as of others. Various researchers have conceived that high emotional intelligence would lead to greater feelings of emotional well-being. Some empirical evidences state that higher EI is linked with less depression and greater Life Satisfaction (LS). Those who are able to understand and regulate their emotions should be able to maintain a better attitude towards life and experience improved

emotional health. Both Wong and Law (2002) and Wong et al. (2005) argued that life satisfaction was one important outcome of people with high EI. In the present study, it was found that Emotional Intelligence (EI) is positively related to Life Satisfaction (LS) in all the three participant groups-Adolescents, Adults and Aged. Wong and Law (2002) and Law et al. (2004) found repeated empirical support from multiple samples for this predicted relation. Many other researchers (e.g., Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000; Newsome, Day, & Catano, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000) reported results that suggest emotional intelligence may predict important human values such as satisfaction with life because it essentially measures other personality traits already known to predict these criteria. The main factors of EI which were found positively correlated with Life Satisfaction (LS) in all the three participant groups were E1 & E2 (Adolescents); E1, E2 & E4 (Adults) and E1, E2, E3 & E4 (Aged). The results of the present study indicate that some of the EI factors emerged as the significant predictors of Life Satisfaction (LS) and those who score high on EI show high levels of Life Satisfaction (LS) thereby support prior research findings. Mroczek and Spiro (2005) in their study on Openness to experiences and Active Older Adult's Life Satisfaction found that high levels of neuroticism were related to low life satisfaction, whereas extraverts had higher and sustained levels of life satisfaction as they age. In the present study, most of the personality traits (NEOAC) showed both positive and negative significant correlations with Life Satisfaction (LS) in all the three participant groups-Adolescents, Adults and Aged. Even though majority of the results of this

research work were supported by previous studies, however, some of the results were not consistent with the above mentioned findings (McCrae & Costa, 1991; Cummins, 1995) as none of the personality traits (NEOAC) emerged as a significant predictor of Life Satisfaction (LS) in the Adult participant group. However, in the Adolescent and Aged participant groups only Conscientiousness (C) and Neuroticism (N) emerged as the significant predictors of Life Satisfaction (LS). The studies which state that the personality traits, neuroticism and extraversion predict life satisfaction are thus partly confirmed. Related literature shows that several demographic variables add a contribution to the predictive value of neuroticism and extraversion on global life satisfaction. Therefore, these results are an indication to take demographic variables into account when investigating life satisfaction. In the present study, it was also found that 41% of Adolescents, 27.45% of Adults and 31% of Aged are satisfied with their lives thus indicating that in adolescents bottom up processes/approach of life satisfaction are in focus and in adults and aged both bottom up and top-down processes may be involved.
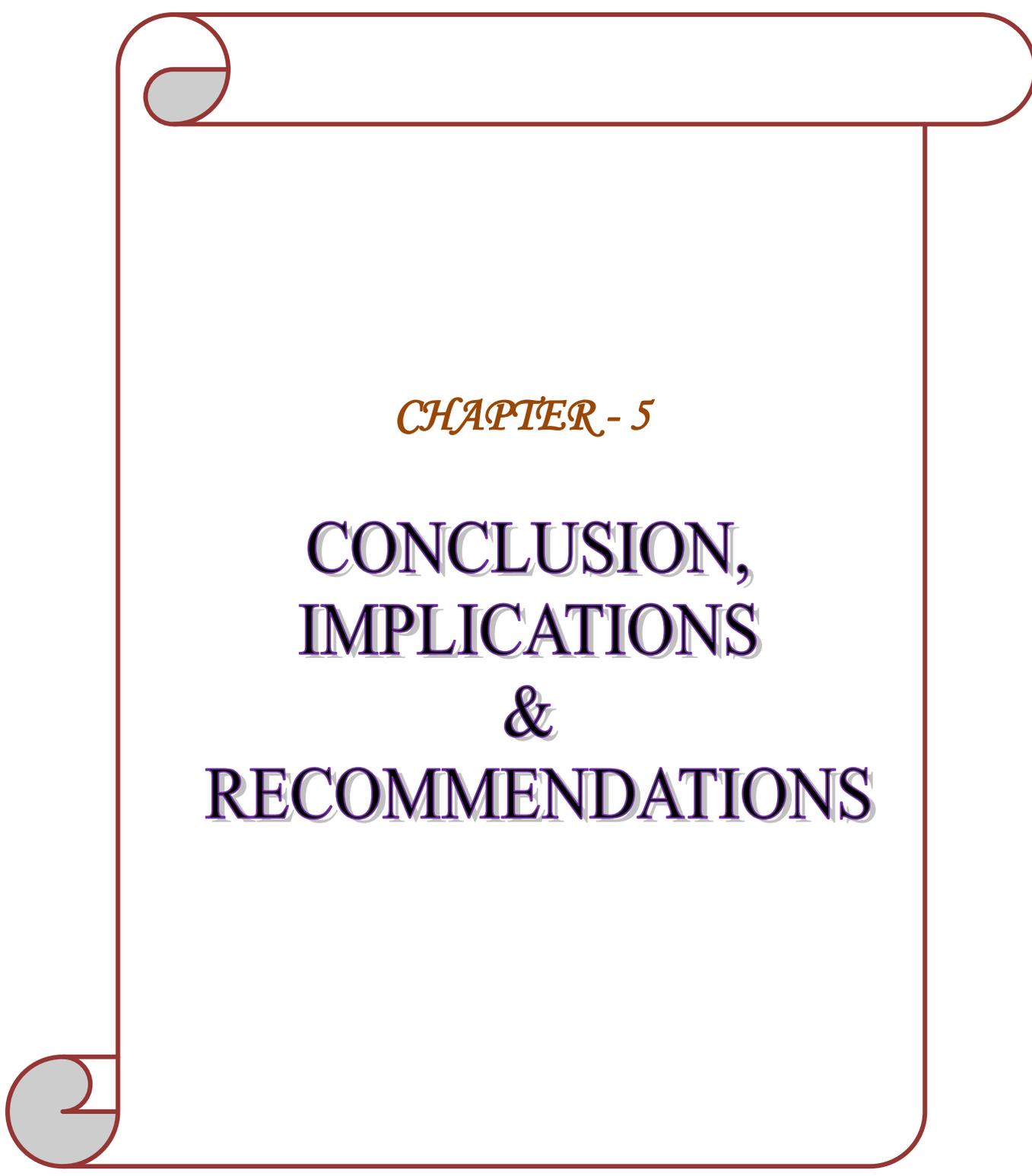
CHAPTER - 5

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.   CONCLUSION

The present study was designed to identify Emotional Intelligence and Personality traits as the predictors of Life Satisfaction. Also, to see the association between i) Emotional Intelligence & Life Satisfaction ii) Personality traits & Life Satisfaction among three participant groups- Adolescents (100), Adults (102) and Aged (100). The whole dissertation was divided into five chapters.

The first chapter of the dissertation gives a complete conceptual overview and the theoretical background of both the predictor (Emotional Intelligence & Personality traits) and the criterion variables (Life Satisfaction) under separate sub-headings. This chapter discusses the approaches, models and theories as proposed by different researchers and studies the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables in the light of empirical evidences. The chapter also highlights the purpose of the present study, the research questions and the definitions of terms. Chapter second offers an intensive review of the related literature on the individual variables and their relationships. The first section of this chapter provides a brief outline of three different populations- Adolescents, Adults and Aged. Chapter third of the dissertation highlights the sample chosen, method of data collection, instruments used and the statistical procedures employed. Chapter four of the present study focuses on the analysis of the data and its interpretation. This chapter includes a results and a discussion section in

which the findings of the present study are discussed with prior empirical support. The last chapter i.e. conclusion includes the implications of the present research, its limitations and the suggestions for future research.

5.1 VALUE/IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

This research has important implications for psychological, management and educational fields:

i.   Assessment of individuals with low Emotional Intelligence (EI/EQ) could provide suggestions for educational and skills training for enhancement of their EI/EQ that will allow them effectively regulate their emotions.

ii. The study is important as it highlights presence of different aspects of E.I and Big-Five traits of personality in three populations- Adolescents, Adults and Aged.

iii. Feedback to individuals with average or high EI/EQ might give them a greater awareness of their own resources, capabilities which result in their satisfaction with their life.

iv. The literature review of the present study also highlights the demographic /underlying factors of Life Satisfaction (LS) that contribute towards Life Satisfaction (LS) e.g. economic well-being, social equality & political freedom in one's societal surroundings (Veenhoven, 1996); marital status, social support and good relationships with one's children (Argyle & Martin 1991; 1991; Daly & Rose 2007; Mowbray et al. 2005). Life satisfaction is also strongly related to one's personality (Furham & Cheng, 2004; King &

Smith, 2004; Lu & Hu, 2005; Veenhoven, 1996). It has been found that the level of one's life satisfaction is strongly dependent on these factors.

v.   This research work is one of its unique as it examined the connection between Emotional Intelligence & Life Satisfaction (LS); Personality Traits (NEOAC) & Life Satisfaction (LS) in this region taking three different populations (Adolescents, Adults and Aged) into consideration.

vi. This study included a heterogeneous population and respondents belonged to different line of work and background; gave insights about the presence of EI/EQ and levels of Life Satisfaction (LS) among them.

vii. Results indicated that moderate EQ was found in most of the respondents in all the three participant groups- Adolescents (51%), Adults (43.1%) and Aged (32%) respectively [see table *4.1a*].

viii. The results of this study also confirm that 41% of Adolescents, 27.45% of Adults and 31% of Aged (see table *4.1c*) are satisfied with their lives thus indicating that in adolescents bottom up processes/approach of life satisfaction are in focus and in adults and aged both bottom up and top-down processes may be involved.

ix. The related literature and the regression analysis of the present study also give us a glimpse of the factors that contribute towards healthy aging viz social support (SS), happiness, extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, religious contentment, optimism, self-efficacy etc.

x.   This study has its significance in the well-being literature as it is an understudied subject matter in this region.

In conclusion, majority of the findings of this study are consistent with the claims of researchers. However, this research should be considered carefully when applied to entire population.

5.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research findings of the present study should be viewed in light of several limitations:

i. Since the sample of the participant groups of the present study was small [Adolescents (100), Adults (102) and Aged (100)], therefore, some results may limit the generalizabilty of them to the larger population.

ii. Another limitation was with regard to the measures employed in the current study, the measures used for the data collection were in large number including a biographical questionnaire/ information blank, and two additional questionnaires. Verbal feedback from participants stated that the package took too long and was tiring to complete. A possible solution for this limitation might be to replace some of the questionnaires with personal interviews that could be recorded and transcribed and may offer a deeper insight into participants' thoughts and feelings.

iii. The sample of the present study had its complexity as it consisted of population from different genres - Adolescents, Adults and Aged, all of which have their own unique characteristics and psycho-social differences.

iv. This study only focussed on one district of Kashmir valley i.e District, Srinagar and mostly included urban participants. Therefore, the results cannot be generalized to rural population.

5.3   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Based on the above limitations, the following recommendations can be made:

i. A larger sample of the three participant groups (Adolescents, Adults and Aged) should be taken in order to get a broader picture of the relationship between the predictor and the criterion variables of this study.

ii. Longitudinal studies should be preferred when we have more than one participant group/ population. These enable researchers to measure specific aspects of the same individuals at various times and across diverse conditions as they grow older.

iii. A broader range of variables, apart from personality traits and emotional intelligence could be covered in future studies [e.g. self-esteem, hope, self-efficacy, academic achievement]. Future studies can also include demographic variables for example, socioeconomic status (SES), marital status, gender etc.

iv. Although prior research has suggested that extraversion is positively related to global life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1985; Pavot & Diener, 1993), however, in the current study, extraversion did not correlate positively with life satisfaction (LS) in all three participant groups- Adolescents ($r = -.252$), Adults ($r = -.306$) and Aged ($r = -.082$). Thus

future research should examine extraversion in relation to life satisfaction (LS) and other aspects of subjective well-being such as the affective factors (positive affect & negative affect) in a large sample.

v.   More research work is needed to determine the exact connection of emotional intelligence and personality traits with life satisfaction.
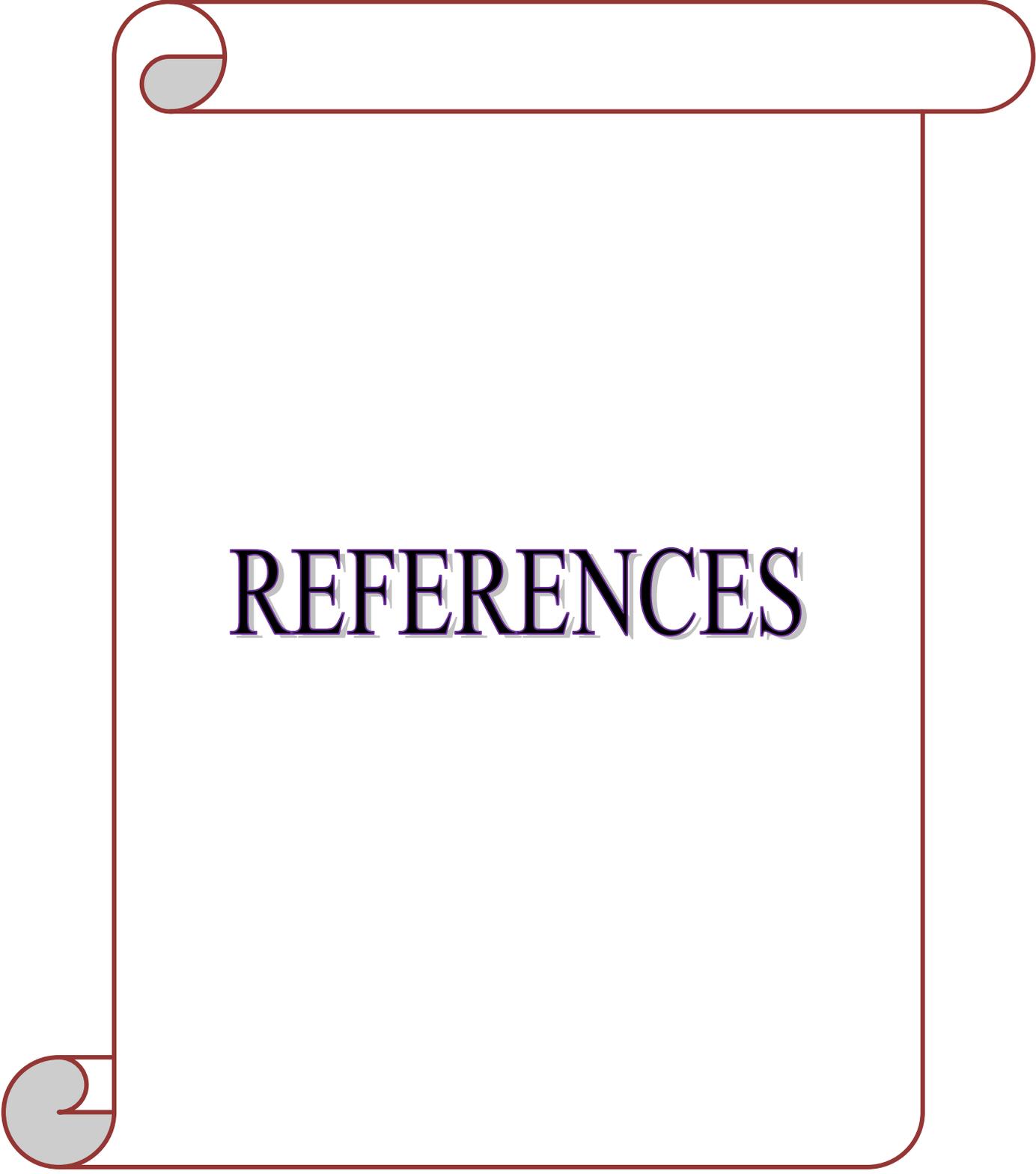
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX- A **INFORMATION BLANK (IB)**
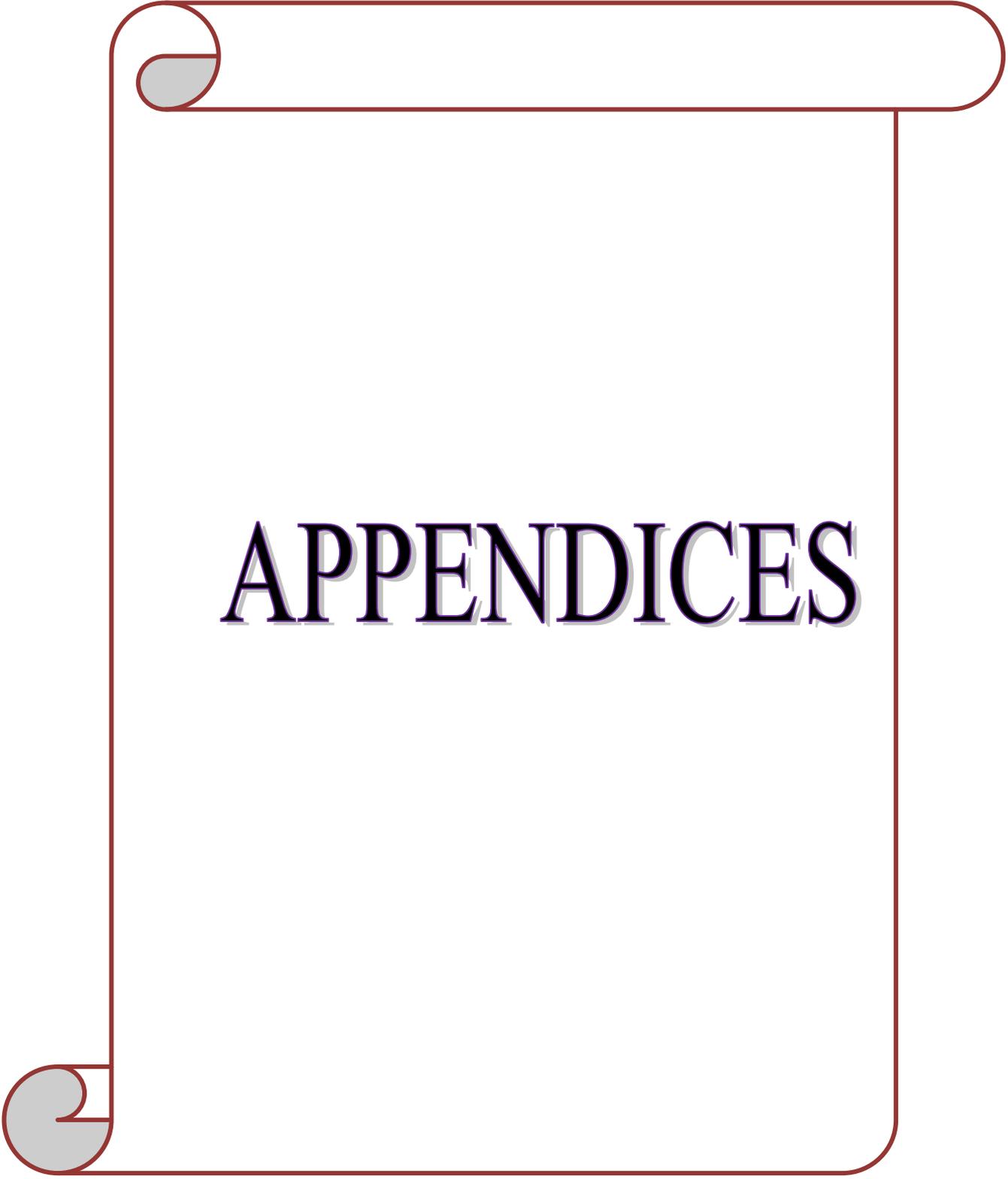
Dear Respondent,

There are some statements pertaining to your life. I request you to go through these statements and respond as per the directions given. Please feel free to respond as I assure you that your responses will be used specifically for research purpose only.

Please Furnish the Following Demographic Information

Name………………………………………….

Gender…………………………………………

Age……………………………………………...

Occupation……………………………………

Qualification…………………………………

Residence …………………………………….

Monthly income……………………………

Rural/ Urban …………………………………

Family status……….nuclear/joint……………

Thanks

Research Scholar
Department of Psychology
University of Kashmir, Sgr.

S.No	STATEMENTS	Yes	No
APPENDIX-B	MANGAL EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE INVENTORY (MEII)		

INSTRUCTIONS

There are some questions. There are no fixed answers to these questions, so which ever answer you think right will be the right answer for you. You have to mark same answer; either 'Yes' or 'No' in the box provided with a Tick (√). Don't leave any question(s).

S.No	STATEMENTS	Yes	No
1.	Do you think yourself a man of poor soul?		
2.	Do you often lose your temper?		
3.	Do you feel that there is no end of miseries in your life?		
4.	Do you often become sad by repenting over your mistakes?		
5.	Do your feelings get hurted easily?		
6.	Do you think that your will power is quite strong?		
7.	Do you often say or do the things for which you have to repent afterwards?		
8.	Does your mind go somewhere else while engaged in some task?		
9.	Do you remain perturbed with the fear of coming misfortunes?		
10.	Do you feel extremely zealous at the progress of your colleagues?		
11.	By observing that others are suffering do you internally feel happy?		
12.	Do you sometimes get too irritated to find yourself over burdened?		
13.	Do you think yourself unsafe?		
14.	Do you sometimes think yourself insulted or a degraded person?		
15.	Do you hate or have allergy with so many things?		
16.	Do your interests and desires get changed quite soon		
17.	Do you feel that there is no body in this world to show genuine sympathy for you?		
18.	Getting upset, do you remain aware what is troubling you		
19.	Don't you realize any difficulty to express what is felt by you at a particular time?		
20.	Do you think that you are very much familiar with your goodness and evils?		
21.	Do you feel any destination of fear to express or doing a thing in a noble way or inventing something new with your own attempts?		
22.	Do you think you can't do anything in your life?		
23.	Do you know well what makes you happy or sad?		
24.	Do you think that you can very well meet any challenges coming in your life?		
25.	Are you sure that you can easily win others heart?		

		Part 2	Yes	No
26.	Do you like to settle issues with the persons instantly who speaks ill of you?			
27.	Do you soon become normal after facing some adversaries in your life?			
28.	Do you feel that you exercising a lot of control over the things in your life?			
29.	Are you able to take timely proper decisions in spite of so many contradictory desires creeping in your mind?			
30.	Do you usually depends up on the guidance or help from others in solving your own problems?			
31.	Do you execute you all tasks promptly and with full dedications?			
32.	Do you often lose your patience and nerves by getting afraid of the failures?			
33.	Do you feel perturb for a long on being insulted by somebody else?			
34.	Do you remain uneasy on account on your intention to take revenge on others?			
35.	Are you never satisfied with your work and remain worried for its further improvement?			
36.	Do you think that other people or circumstances are more responsible for your mistakes and improper habits?			
37.	Do you think that you can't do anything properly?			
38.	Do you often feel ashamed of looks and behaviours?			
39.	Do you remain much anxious and agitated until you get your desired object?			
40.	Do you take too much time to learn new technique by leaving the old ones?			
41.	Do you finish what you set out to do?			
42.	Whether being observed or not do you stand for fulfilling your responsibilities properly?			
43.	Do you think that you must do something unique than others?			
44.	Do you agree that all of us should pick up the most challenging goals of our life?			
45.	Do you feel extremely bad by listening about your mistakes and weaknesses from others?			
46.	Do you sometimes lose your self-confidence in the moment of despair?			
47.	Whenever confronted with some tedious problem, do you always run after seeking others help?			

48.	Whenever you take a task in your hand, there goes something wrong resulting in the non-realization of your goal?		
49.	Whenever you get a task spoiled, you begin to curse yourself?		
50.	Do you not take any assignment, unless inspired or forced by someone?		
	Part 3	Yes	No
51.	Do you think that people nearer to you are fully trust worthy?		
52.	Do others feel that you don't get perturbed even in the hard circumstances?		
53.	Do you know or try of relationship maintained by the people among themselves in your neighborhood and friend circle?		
54.	Do you have an intuition that one of your friends is in trouble?		
55.	Do you take no time in realizing that the other person is befooling you?		
56.	Do you realize soon that the person aliening to you is a wolf in lambs clothing?		
57.	Do you agree that, whatever so it may be, we should not get ourselves involved others affairs?		
58.	Do you have full trust in your friend/friends that they will stand by you at the moment of difficulties?		
59.	Do you realize soon that one of your friends or relatives is annoyed with you for some reason?		
60.	Do you well that what type of utterances and activities make your friends or relatives feel good or bad?		
61.	Can you say for yourself that you are capable of peeping into the hearts of others by reading their faces?		
62.	Do you say with confidence that you are well aware of the goodness and evils of your intimate friends and relatives?		
63.	Do you know well what is expected from you by your friends and members of the family?		
64.	Do you know well about the likings and dislikings of your nearest friends?		
65.	Do you realize that you are considered trustworthy and responsible by the people?		

		Yes	No
66.	Do you try to place the needs and interests of others ever your own?		
67.	Do you try to think before saying or doing something about its impact over others?		
68.	Do you give more importance to the maintenance of relationship with others irrespective of the losses or gains incurred in doing so?		
69.	Do you get perturbed by the thought that others are observing you or your actions?		
70.	Do you really often realize that who are jealous of your progress?		
71.	Can you tell properly who are your true friends or well wishers?		
72.	While observing people laughing or talking, do you feel that they are laughing at or talking of you?		
73.	Do you think that you are liked by the people on account of your good behaviour?		
74.	On falling ill, if one of your colleague's enquiries about your health, are you able to recognize whether he is showing a genuine sympathy of just pretending?		
75.	Do your friends or relatives expect from you the needed help and guidance at the time of their difficult hours?		
	Part 4	Yes	No
76.	Do you easily make friendship or acquaintance with others?		
77.	Do you think that it is not proper to trust anybody in the world?		
78.	Do you not like even to talk to the people who differ with you in opinions?		
79.	Do you get easily sympathy and help from others?		
80.	Do you feel happy in helping others in difficult moments?		
81.	Do you take responsibility of getting people introduced with one another on some gathering or auspicious occasion?		
82.	Do you often try to provide leadership to some social or group work?		

83.	Do the members of the society or community have reservation in coming closer to you by considering you too much difficult from them?		
84.	Do you try to listen properly and pay due respects to the people or colleagues whenever they happen to meet you?		
85.	Do you think that people or your colleagues unnecessarily keep over watch or vigilance on your activities?		
86.	Do you often have quarries with your colleagues or other people?		
87.	If one of your colleagues commits a mistake, do you begin to criticize him before others?		
88.	Do you feel happy in congratulating others for their accomplishments?		
89.	Do you think instantly to help the person as soon as you hear about his problem?		
90.	Do you remain prepared for helping others irrespective of having ideological differences with them?		
91.	Can't you say," I love you" in spite of falling in love with him/her?		
92.	Do you think that it is better to keep distance or remaining emotionally indifferent with the strangers?		
93.	Do you enjoy laughing and taunting others?		
94.	Instead of expressing your desire or interest by yourself do you think that the people by themselves will take care of it?		
95.	Do you think that it is your duty to inform your colleagues and relatives with some sad happenings irrespective of its consequences?		
96.	Do you try to ease tension by talking in lighter veins even in the serious moments of task accomplishment?		
97.	Do you agree that if food is to say a spade & a spade to conversation irrespective of its being taken in a good or bad taste by the people?		
98.	Would you like to avoid visiting your friend when he is sad over the demise of a relative of him?		
99.	Do the people relish much to work along with you on some project or to listen to you attentively during a group discussion?		
100.	In conversation, do you wish that the people should continuously listen to you instead of making you listen to them?		

APPENDIX-C	NEO-FFI-3-INVENTORY

INSTRUCTIONS

Write only where indicated in the Item booklet. Carefully read all of the instructions before beginning. This questionnaire contains 60 statements. Read each statement carefully. For each statement, place a tick mark (√) with the response that best represents your opinion. Make sure your answer is in the correct box.

S. N0	STATEMENTS	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I am not a worrier.					
2.	I like to have a lot of people around me.					
3.	I enjoy concentrating on a fantasy or daydream and exploring all its possibilities, letting it grow and develop.					
4.	I try to be courteous to everyone I meet.					
5.	I keep my belongings neat and clean.					
6.	At times I have felt bitter and resentful.					
7.	I laugh easily.					
8.	I think it's interesting to learn and develop new hobbies.					
9.	At times I bully or flatter people into doing what I want them to.					
10.	I'm pretty good about pacing myself so as to get things done on time.					
11.	When I'm under a great deal of stress, sometimes I feel like I'm going to pieces.					
12.	I prefer jobs that let me work alone without being bothered by other people.					

S. N0	Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
13.	I am intrigued by the patterns I find in art and nature.					
14.	Some people think I'm selfish and egoistical.					
15.	I often come into situations without being fully prepared.					
16.	I rarely feel lonely or blue.					
17.	I really enjoy talking to people.					
18.	I believe letting students hear controversial speakers can only confuse and mislead them.					
19.	If someone starts a fight, I'm ready to fight back.					
20.	I try to perform all the tasks assigned to me conscientiously.					
21.	I often feel tense and jittery.					
22.	I like to be where the action is.					
23.	Poetry has little or no effect on me.					
24.	I'm better than most people, and I know it.					
25.	I have a clear set of goals and work towards them in an orderly fashion.					
26.	Sometimes I feel completely worthless.					
27.	I shy away from crowds of people.					
28.	I would have difficulty just letting my mind wander without control or guidance.					

S. N0	Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
29.	When I've been insulted, I just try to forgive and forget.					
30.	I waste a lot of time before settling down to work.					
31.	I rarely feel fearful or anxious.					
32.	I often feel as if I'm bursting with energy.					
33.	I seldom notice the moods or feelings that different environments produce.					
34.	I tend to assume the best about people.					
35.	I work hard to accomplish my goals.					
36.	I often get angry at the way people treat me.					
37.	I am a cheerful, high-spirited person.					
38.	I experience a wide range of emotions or feelings.					
39.	Some people think of me as cold and calculating.					
40.	When I make commitment, I can always be counted on to follow through.					
41.	Too often, when things go wrong, I get discouraged and feel like giving up.					
42.	I don't get much pleasure from chatting with people.					
43.	Sometimes when I am reading poetry or looking at a work of art, I feel a chill or wave of excitement.					
44.	I have no sympathy for beggars.					
45.	Sometimes I'm not as dependable or reliable as I should be.					

S. N0	Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
46.	I am seldom sad or depressed.					
47.	My life is fast-paced.					
48.	I have little interest in speculating on the nature of the universe or the human condition.					
49.	I generally try to be thoughtful and considerate.					
50.	I am a productive person who always gets the job done.					
51.	I often feel helpless and want someone else to solve my problems.					
52.	I am a very active person.					
53.	I have a lot of intellectual curiosity.					
54.	If I don't like people, I let them know it.					
55.	I never seem to be able to get organized.					
56.	At times I have been so ashamed I just wanted to hide.					
57.	I would rather go my own way than be a leader of others.					
58.	I often enjoy playing with theories or abstract ideas.					
59.	If necessary, I am willing to manipulate people to get what I want.					
60.	I strive for excellence in everything I do.					

| APPENDIX- D | SATISFACTION WITH LIFE SCALE (SWLS) |

INSTRUCTIONS

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 - 7 scale, indicate your agreement with each item by placing a tick mark (√) in the appropriate box preceding the particular statement. Please be open and honest in your responding.

S. no	Statements	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Slightly disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Slightly agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
1.	In most ways my life is close to my ideal.							
2.	The conditions of my life are excellent.							
3.	I am satisfied with my life.							
4.	So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.							
5.	If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.							

Scores

1) Strongly Disagree…….......... 2) Disagree…………… 3) Slightly Disagree…………..

4) Neither agree nor disagree……………….. 5) Slightly agree………………………..

6) Agree……………….. ….7) Strongly agree………………………