

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This component of the thesis was concerned with the synthesis of relevant research studies from many sources, including books, government papers, research articles, and theses. Examining these connected documents is regarded as a survey of the pertinent literature. Overall, the literature review serves several purposes because it "describes the past and current status of information on the issue of your research project," according to Creswell (2015) (p. 80). The research paradigm and the intellectual traditions that surround and support the subject are shown, if possible. Researcher reviews different studies based on different theme related to emotional intelligence, social intelligence, teaching style, professional commitment, gender and teaching experiences. As shown in the following sections, the researcher has researched pertinent material in accordance with these imperatives, starting with contextual background and moving up to a global level.

#### **2.2 Emotional Intelligence on Gender & Teaching Experience**

##### **2.2.1 Gender Gap in Emotional Intelligence**

Teachers with high levels of emotional intelligence are socially balanced, outgoing, optimistic, and devoid of a frightened or introspective disposition. They accept their responsibilities and maintain moral beliefs. They display empathy and love. They lead emotionally complex but constrained lifestyles. They live in peace with one another. Men, women with high emotional intelligence are extroverted, optimistic, and adept at expressing their emotions. The majority of findings (Rey et al., 2018) indicate that females score better on emotional abilities, particularly attention and emotional control. Although some authors have emphasized that gender differences may be caused by the lower self-confidence of females to estimate their emotional abilities in the self-report measures (Esnaola et al., 2017), or by the differences among other measures used (Perez-Daz et al., 2021; Petrides et al., 2003; Yudes, et al., 2021). The link between Gender and Emotional Intelligence (Schutte et al., 1998; Atkins and Stough, 2005) demonstrates that females report considerably greater Emotional Intelligence than men.

Female individuals reported greater favorable sentiments about students, indicating a gender difference among the same participants. Intriguingly, Gkonou and Mercer (2017) discovered a gender difference in the reported EI scores of EFL instructors, which is consistent with prior research indicating that women often score higher than males. The degree to which gender inequalities may exist for particular classroom practices, some of which are more strongly tied to emotional characteristics than others, might be the subject of further study.

In terms of gender differences in emotional intelligence, psycho-educational research has revealed a correlation between male and female instructors; however, this correlation has not been confirmed definitively. Some studies have shown substantial gender differences in emotional intelligence, whereas others have found the opposite. According to popular literature, men and women vary greatly in their emotional intelligence. Women are often seen as more compassionate and emotionally receptive than males. Yet, Goleman (1998) refutes the notion that women are less emotionally intelligent than males and vice versa.

According to Schutte et al. (1998) and Van Rooy, Alonso, and Viswesvaran (2005), females report considerably better emotional intelligence than men. Atkins and Stough saw a similar finding. Nonetheless, Petrides and Furnham (2000) found that men had considerably greater 'global' and 'self-motivation' evaluations of emotional intelligence than females. These authors hypothesized that males had greater self-assessments of emotional intelligence than females because females may have a tendency to self-deprecate on self-report measures. The association between age and emotional intelligence has historically been poor, and the same may be said of the relationship between experience and emotional intelligence. Day and Carroll (2004) discovered a slightly positive correlation between years of experience (university studies) and emotional intelligence on three of the four subscales of the MSCEIT. In contrast, Perry et al. (2004) observed in a study of pre-service (student) teachers using the RTS that females reported considerably better emotional intelligence than men. Several researches provide very comparable findings on average, women scored substantially higher than males in emotional intelligence. Several experts and writers advocate for more study on the link between gender and emotional intelligence.

Harrod and Scheer (2005) found a substantial difference in the emotional intelligence scores of 200 16- to 19-year-old boys and females, with females reporting a higher EI level. The Chandigarh adolescent research by Katyal and Awasthi (2005) revealed that females had higher EI ratings; nevertheless, the difference was insufficient to be definitive and was simply indicative of a trend. In their investigation of the association between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style, Mandell and Pherwani (2003) revealed a substantial difference between the EI scores of male and female managers. Adeyemo (2008) discovered that female employees in various firms had considerably better emotional intelligence than their male colleagues. Additional research found gender variations in a number of domains of emotional intelligence. Gender substantially influences college respondents' emotional intelligence (Wapao, 2021; Dumciene & Sipaviciene, 2021). Buck (1984) and Mayer and Geher (1996) found that female respondents fared better in terms of Emotional Intelligence than male respondents. Bastian (2005) discovered limited gender differences in emotional intelligence, which favored females greatly.

Another research found no substantial difference between male and female instructors' emotional intelligence. This study's results corroborate those of Birol et al. (2009), who found no significant difference between the gender and emotional intelligence level of instructors. Regarding gender, Petrides and Furnham (2004) discovered no significant disparities among their study participants. In another significant research, it was shown that gender had no influence on the emotional intelligence of instructors. There is a considerable disparity in the emotional intelligence of male and female pupils, according to a study. Statistically, females are more emotionally intelligent than males. This study's findings are consistent with those of a study of men. The findings of this research indicate that female pupils excel in emotional intelligence.

In many regions of the globe, the disparity between men and females in terms of total EI was uneven. In the United States, a link was observed between EI and gender, with females scoring higher than men and showing greater emotional and interpersonal abilities than males. A research conducted in Tamil Nadu, India, indicated that among medical graduates, females had greater EI than men (Chandra, Gayatri, & Devi, 2017), while among Sri Lankan medical students, females had

higher mean EI scores. In Delhi, 10th graders, the EI of female students was found to be greater than that of their male counterparts (Joshi & Dutta, 2014), whereas in Iran, Zohrevand (2010) discovered lower EI in 17-year-old female 11th grade school students compared with males from six different districts: Ardebil, Kordestan, Khuzestan, Golestan, Tehran, and Isfahan. In Iran, Domakani, Mirzaei, and Zeraatpisheh (2014) discovered that females had superior interpersonal skills, flexibility, and pragmatic knowledge in comparison to men. Overall, ladies had much higher EI values than men.

Studies have shown gender disparities in both ability and trait EI assessments. Nikoopour and Esfandiari (2017) discovered a substantial difference in trait EI among English and Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in Iran, but not in their spiritual, cultural, or social intelligence. The overall ability EI score as well as scores on the four EI branches varied by gender among Spanish adults, with females having a higher ability EI than men. Yet, in certain instances, there was no discernible variation in EI between the sexes. In a research conducted in the United Kingdom. Van Rooy, Alonso, and Viswesvaran (2005) investigated the influence of gender differences and age in EI among 275 undergraduate students at a big institution in the Southeast. They discovered that females had greater EI levels than men and that age had a positive and statistically significant relationship with EI.

No significant difference was detected between the EI of male and female instructors in a research conducted in Myanmar. Males and females are statistically equal in their belief that there is a need to sometimes learn how to be unpleasant and not spare an interlocutor's feelings. They feel it is vital for both sexes to understand how to be unpleasant in a foreign language. Components of this intelligence should also be investigated to see if there are gender disparities in EI. Furthermore, females outperform men in empathy, emotional skills, and emotional-related perceptions (Craig et al., 2009) as well as in the perception of emotions, such as interpreting facial expressions. One of the distinctions in EI between the sexes is how they communicate their emotions. According to Naghavi and Redzuan (2011), ladies are often expected to be more outspoken, whilst men were trained to refrain from showing emotions as a sign of manliness. Males were better at expressing their emotions and marginally

better at guessing the emotions of the group as a whole than were females. According to Naghavi and Redzuan (2011), parents speak to their daughters about emotions and provide them with more knowledge about feelings; therefore girls learn to identify their emotions faster than boys. Moms use more emotion words with females when telling tales and express more emotion when dealing with females, which may establish a propensity for the females to experience greater emotions. Males have not been encouraged to express their emotions; thus, they fear and cannot identify their own and others' feelings. Jakupcak, Salters, Gratz, and Roemer (2003) discovered that men exhibit a larger dread of emotions and display fewer emotions on average than females. Brody, Hall, and Stokes (2016) suggested that men experience negative emotions more often. Males are more likely to display high-intensity positive emotions (such as enthusiasm), while females are more likely to express low or moderately strong positive emotions (such as happiness) and melancholy.

In addition, females have an edge in the assessment of emotions, exhibition of social skills, and emotional intelligence, but they are more hesitant about sentiments and choices, and they put less value on intelligence. Females pay more attention to their emotions than males do and are more emotional (Grewal & Salovey, 2005), and are more adept at managing and comprehending their emotions, whereas males are more adept at controlling impulses and withstanding pressure. Nasir and Masrur (2010) discovered that male students scored better on the Emotional Quotient Scale for stress management. In a research of 12- to 15-year-olds conducted in Andalusia, Spain, females were shown to have more perceived attention to emotions, a weaker capacity to properly understand their feelings, and a worse ability to heal unfavorable emotional states. In a study of Canadian university students, ladies scored higher on expression and recognition, caring and empathy ratings, whereas men scored higher on emotion regulation. Similarly, females had much higher scores on the ability model. Ladies are more adept at directing and controlling their own and others' emotions.

In a study of police officers in Ibadan, Nigeria, men scored considerably higher than females on a self-report measure (Olugbemi & Bolaji, 2016). Moreover, British participants demonstrated that women tend to underestimate their emotional talents, whilst men prefer to exaggerate them. As research indicates, EI as "the capacity to reason legitimately with emotions and with emotion-related information,

and to utilize emotions to improve thinking" (Mayer et al., 2016, p. 296) may be different in men and females, and if there is a difference, it rests in various aspects of EI. Using the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Scale, this study was aimed to explore EI among Iranian university students. Since EQ-i was a complete self-report measure of EI, it was used. The researchers expected that the EI of male and female university students in Iran would be same.

### **2.2.2 Emotional Intelligence in relation to teaching experience**

Several studies (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 1999; Bandura, 1997) have shown that emotional intelligence is positively connected with professional experience. According to a research by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, (2001) the amount of a teacher's professional experience has a substantial impact on their sense of self-efficacy. Researcher found that "years of teaching experience in a classroom setting is the most powerful factor in moulding an individual's opinions of teaching effectiveness." The statistics presented here are consistent with Bandura's (1997) classification of mastery and vicarious experiences as the fundamental sources of efficacy beliefs. Similar to other cognitive abilities, Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) claim that EI increases with age and experience. This link demonstrated that those with more dance teaching experience are more likely to have a higher EI than those with less dance teaching experience.

The study conducted by Penrose, Perry, and Ball (2007) revealed that a teacher's degree of EI is related to their sense of efficacy independent of their teaching experience, demonstrating that teaching experience has no effect on the relationship between EI and teacher effectiveness. Dewaele and Mercer (2017) analysed variation in the self-reported attitudes of 513 EFL/ESL teachers towards their students using data collected from the same participants as the present study. The authors observed that teachers with high Trait EI had more positive attitudes about their students and a greater fondness for their dynamic students. This study reveals that those with low EI may find the teaching profession particularly challenging; nevertheless, effective preparation might enhance the EI levels of potential teachers. There are no discernible disparities between their Emotional Intelligence and Work Satisfaction ratings. Between 11 and 15 years of experience, Emotional Intelligence and Work Satisfaction were shown to be greater; nevertheless, this

analysis demonstrated a reduction in both levels. One of the conclusions of the research is that Emotional Intelligence and Work Satisfaction have a significant relationship with a higher level of education. In contrast to Ahmad, Bangash, and Khan's (2009) findings, there were no significant gender differences in EI and JS. It was shown that males had a greater EI.

Another encouraging discovery revealed that teachers with more experience had more positive attitudes about their students, but did not specifically prefer dealing with more active children. Gender was also a significant factor, with female teachers having much higher positive attitudes towards their students. The authors stated that (trainee) teachers should be aware of their Emotional intelligence abilities, self-efficacy, and FL proficiency, as they are likely to influence their professional well-being and relationships with students in the classroom (Vesely et al. 2014). EI training is considered an effective intervention based on evidence of the positive benefits of such therapies on the general public and teachers (Castillo et al., 2013; van Wingerden et al., 2017).

## **2.3 Studies on social intelligence in relation to demographic variables**

### **2.3.1 Gender gap in social intelligence**

Gkonou and Mercer (2017) conducted a study utilising a sequential, mixed-method, explanatory design with 890 English language teachers from around the world with varying degrees of teaching and overseas teaching experience. They observed that female instructors had an edge over male teachers in terms of social intelligence.

Despite the apparent lack of empirical research on social intelligence in relation to language learners' or teachers' social intelligence, social intelligence characteristics are present in concepts such as group dynamics, teacher–student rapport, and collaborative learning. Imai's research is perhaps the most influential empirical study on social intelligence in second language acquisition (2010). Via case studies involving two unique groups of Japanese university EFL learners making an oral group presentation in English outside of class, the researcher explored emotions in collaborative learning. The findings demonstrated that emotions in language

learning are created socially and interactively, and that students use them to motivate and aid one another in achieving learning goals.

Nevertheless, research has shown that highly socially intelligent teachers pay attention to positive and healthy group dynamics and enforce the concept of cooperation and collaboration among their students (Albrecht, 2006) as well as classroom connectedness (Frisby and Martin, 2010) and are able to infer nonverbal cues regarding social interactions in the classroom.

The relationship between social intelligence and emotional intelligence is close, yet there are notable differences between the two. Goleman (2006) notes that a useful way to differentiate between them is to consider emotional intelligence as focusing on the psychology of a single individual, as opposed to social intelligence, which focuses on the psychology of two people and results from social interactions and interpersonal relationships. Particularly, Goleman (2006: 11) defined social intelligence as "being intelligent in and about our interactions." Therefore, social intelligence focuses on an individual's interpersonal awareness and social facility, i.e. their ability or skill to successfully manage social relationships, cooperate and collaborate with others, and develop and participate in healthy, constructive, and caring social interactions.

Social intelligence is strongly tied to interpersonal dynamism, which is obtained mostly via participation inter-relations in social interaction and groups (Martin and Dowson, 2009). When children are able to fulfill their need to belong to a peer group, motivation may increase, maladaptive behaviors such as anxiety, class avoidance, and detachment from school may diminish, and students' self-esteem and self-efficacy may see a substantial boost. These optimistic beliefs result in enhanced classroom participation, aggressive and intensive language use and practice, and good academic accomplishment. Social relationships with colleagues, trust and rapport, the exchange of materials and ideas, and teachers' personal and professional well-being all benefit from high social intelligence. ELT training programmes must incorporate social intelligence due to the social and interpersonal nature of language teaching.

Gender was the most significant predictor of both emotional and social intelligence, with female teachers surpassing their male colleagues in both categories. This is congruent with previous research in general psychology and education on



emotional and social intelligence (Bar-On, 2007; Corcoran and Tormey, 2012; Fernández-Berrocal et al., 2012; Petrides et al., 2004). Suggestions that females may experience more emotionally and socially intelligent than males (Grewal and Salovey, 2005) may be related to variations in the way the brain processes emotions in men and women. Further contributing to the differences between male and female instructors may be the type of socialization processes. Individual differences between and within genders are probable, and care must be taken not to exaggerate group tendencies. While emotional and social intelligence are abilities that may be developed (Humphrey, 2013), individual capability must be considered when interpreting survey findings, not just group averages.

Patel (2015) examined the social intelligence of 342 students enrolled in Gujarat's Banaskantha district's upper secondary schools during the 2014-2015 academic years, stratified by gender, location, and educational stream. In the 2014-2015 academic year, students from the Banaskantha district of Gujarat participated in the survey. The research sample was obtained by cluster sampling. Using the methodology of Survey Research, this research was conducted. This study is an illustration of Applied Research. This study's primary objective is to determine the impact of gender, educational level, and geographic location on Social Intelligence Scale scores. The development of hypotheses was influenced by gender, educational stream, and area. Hypotheses were investigated using a t-test. Gender was the only factor that affected social intelligence. The primary conclusion of the research is that females are more socially intelligent than men.

Gupta (2018) conducted a study to determine the relationship between instructors' social intelligence and their gender and level of experience. The study sample comprised of 500 instructors currently in the field. Stratified random sampling was utilised to select the sample. The data indicated that there was no correlation between gender and experience level and teachers' social intelligence.

Toor (2013) conducted a study to compare the social and emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers according to gender and school type. The study's sample consisted of 850 Punjabi secondary school teachers. The study discovered no substantial difference between male and female secondary school teachers' social intelligence. The social intelligence of private secondary school

instructors is much greater than that of their government counterparts. Male secondary school instructors are more emotionally intelligent than female secondary school instructors only in private institutions. Government secondary school teachers are more emotionally intelligent than private secondary school teachers among female instructors.

### **2.3.2 Social intelligence in relation to teaching experience of teachers**

Gkonou and Mercer (2017) conducted a study utilizing a mixed-method, sequential explanatory design on 890 English language teachers from around the world with varying degrees of teaching and overseas teaching experience. They discovered that longer teaching experiences were positively associated with trait EI and social intelligence as well as classroom management and pedagogical skills. Longer teaching experience (in the current context or nation and abroad) was associated with greater emotional and social intelligence levels among teachers. This finding corroborates previous research on emotional intelligence and the notion that it can be developed through experience (e.g., Bar-On, 2000) and has also been confirmed by another study, which discovered that longer teaching experiences were positively associated with trait emotional intelligence as well as classroom management and pedagogical skills.

For the sake of our research, we have understood this to suggest that teaching experience has provided the participating instructors with a plethora of classroom experiences from which they may draw to more successfully navigate the emotional map of their classrooms. It was observed in the qualitative data that instructors often resorted to critical experiences and narrative schemata to explain current events, a result that is consistent with research on expert teachers. This research has ramifications for inexperienced or freshly certified teachers and highlights the necessity for pre-service teacher training programs to integrate emotional and social intelligence training. While we are aware of the potential challenges that such an implementation could generate (Humphrey, 2013), we believe that explicit teacher training on emotional intelligence and social intelligence is necessary and goes hand-in-hand with recent shifts in emphasis toward reflective practices, caring relationships, and positive psychology in second language acquisition.

## **2.4 Studies on emotional intelligence in relation to teaching style and professional commitment**

### **2.4.1 Emotional intelligence in relation to teaching style**

Ayatollahi and Ferdosi (2021) aimed to identify and compare the most preferred teaching styles among Iranian English teachers in public schools and private language institutes, as well as to examine the potential relationship between EFL teachers' teaching styles and aspects of their emotional intelligence. Participants were one hundred EFL instructors from public and private language institutions in Shiraz, Iran. The authors measured the emotional intelligence and teaching styles of instructors using the Persian version of the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Scale and Grasha's Style Inventory (TSI), respectively. The most favoured teaching methods were the formal authority style for EFL instructors in schools and the facilitator style for teachers in private institutions. In addition, the 'delegator' and 'formal authority' methods were the least favoured for public school instructors and private institution teachers, respectively. In terms of emotional intelligence, the Stress Management component had the lowest mean scores, while the General Mood dimension had the greatest. In addition, 'overall mood' as a component of emotional intelligence was substantially connected with 'formal authority' and 'expert style,' both of which were the favored styles of public school instructors. Public School instructors were generally ineffective at using the 'personal model,' 'facilitator,' and 'delegator' instructional strategies. So, it is advised that they adopt these styles.

Hwang, Feltz, and Lee (2013) examined the links between emotional intelligence (EI), coaching efficacy (CE), and leadership style (LS) of coaches, as well as the mediation impact of CE in the relationship between EI and LS. Utilizing 323 high school head basketball coaches, structural equation modeling was used to analyze the model's connections and the mediational impact. These data were well-fit by the final model, in which LS was directly predicted by EI and CE. The relative standard estimates are 0.497 and 0.403. However, EI immediately anticipated CE the results indicated that CE significantly mediated the connection between EI and LS.

In addition to verbal and nonverbal abuse, emotional harassment by teachers is a common and detrimental experience for schoolchildren. But, its long-term psychological effects are largely unknown. Katzman, Dolev, and Koslowsky (2021)

investigated the moderating effect of emotional intelligence (EI) on the relationship between teachers' emotional abuse of students and the students' long-term emotional impact. The Psychological Maltreatment Subscale Questionnaire and the Wong and Law EI Scale were completed by 377 Israeli Arab students at varying phases of their university education. The questionnaire focused on the abuse of teachers when they were in school. Using a test created specifically for the research, the long-term emotional effect was examined. 31% of the participants reported at least one instance of mistreatment by a teacher. The most often reported long-term emotional effects were feeling defensive, a continual desire to establish one's value, and dread of being viewed as lazy. Mistreatment by a teacher resulted in severe long-term emotional effects and was adversely connected to EI. EI also worked as a substantial mediator in the relationship between teacher abuse and its long-term emotional effects, resulting in an indirect effect. 03. Educating instructors on the potential long-term emotional impacts of abusive practices may help prevent future abuse. Understanding the long-term effects of emotional abuse on social-emotional abilities may aid in explaining and preventing a variety of unfavorable consequences in later life for these kids.

The purpose of Oznacar, Yilmaz, and Guven's (2017) study was to determine whether teachers' emotional intelligence predicted their teaching styles, given that instructors' teaching styles influence the academic success and motivation of their students and that the ability to use emotions effectively improves the quality of instruction. In 2015, a sample of 355 elementary school teachers, 177 male and 178 female, was randomly chosen from 18 schools in Konya using a relational screening methodology. The sample consisted of 177 male and 178 female instructors. As data collection tools, the Turkish version of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire – Short Form (TEIQue – SF) and the Grasha-Reichmann Teaching Style Inventory were used. There was a substantial positive link between the emotional intelligence of instructors and their teaching styles across all subscales, including expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator. Although emotional intelligence is a crucial component that influences the teaching methods of instructors, it is likely to assist them in enhancing the quality of education, according to the findings.

According to research on integrated project delivery (IPD), cooperation satisfaction is a significant component in enhancing project results. In construction project management, the potential mechanism impacting it remains unknown,

particularly in terms of human capabilities. Zhang, Cao, and Wang (2017) investigated whether leadership styles mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and four collaboration satisfaction outcomes perceived by other team members: performance contribution satisfaction (PCS), efficiency satisfaction (ES), relationship satisfaction (RS), and interests' satisfaction. Data was acquired from 365 samples, which included project directors and academics with knowledge of IPD in China. Transformational and active-transactional leadership completely moderate the links between EI and PCS, ES, and IS, and somewhat mediate the association between EI and RS. In addition, the function of passive transactional leadership as a partial mediator in the interactions of EI with RS and IS was recognized, but its mediating effects between PCS and ES were not. Similarly, due to the insignificant impacts of laissez-faire leadership on collaboration satisfaction dimensions, this leadership style does not serve as a mediator in the interactions between EI and four collaboration satisfaction dimensions. By presenting collaborative satisfaction criteria and an EI model for the IPD project, this work contributes to the research on the mediating mechanism of the updated full-range leadership model.

Merida-Lopez, Bakker, and Extremera (2019) employed job demands–resources and emotional intelligence theories to evaluate a moderated mediation model explaining work engagement in two samples of independent teachers. We predicted that emotional intelligence mitigates the impact of emotional demands on job engagement by means of self-evaluated stress. Participating in the study were early childhood and primary educators (sample 1, N = 351) and secondary educators (sample 2, N = 344). While emotional intelligence did not regulate the association between emotional demands and self-evaluated stress, it did buffer the relationship between self-evaluated stress and job engagement in both samples of teachers. The results indicate that emotional intelligence has a particular buffering impact on intrapersonal and interpersonal processes. We examine the relevance of these results for attempts to assist educators in overcoming the negative effects of stress on job engagement.

Majeed, Ramayah, Mustamil, Nazri, and Jamshed (2015) investigated the direct and indirect effects of transformational leadership by examining the function of emotional intelligence as a mediator. Using structural equation modeling on academic survey answers, the validity of the model was examined. The association between

transformational leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior is statistically significant, with Emotional Intelligence playing a crucial role as a mediator, according to 220 respondents. The findings support and augment the good benefits of a transformational leadership style coupled with extra-role conduct at work, hence enhancing its significance. The results provide a substantial addition to the literature on leadership and organizational behavior in the higher education sector and suggest that companies should develop methods that assist to improve organizational citizenship behavior.

#### **2.4.2 Emotional intelligence in relation to professional commitment**

The nation's fate rests on the competence and effectiveness of the educators. Teachers shape the personalities of their students. Children are profoundly influenced by their parents' emotional, intellectual, social, and spiritual qualities. Teachers must possess sufficient emotional and spiritual maturity to address the emotional and spiritual needs of their pupils. Kumar and Shakila (2022) examined the emotional intelligence and spirituality of secondary school teachers' professional commitment. The sample comprises of 700 instructors from Andhra Pradesh's Visakhapatnam District. Drs.

Akinlolu and Chukwudi (2019) investigated the predictive link between counselling, self-efficacy, and commitment, as well as the possible mediating effects of emotional intelligence and gender identity. N = 126 Master's-level counselling interns and doctoral counselling students were surveyed to determine their levels of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, gender identity, and counsellor commitment. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients revealed significant pairwise connections between the four variables of concern. Several mediator path analyses confirmed that self-efficacy in counselling is a major predictor of counsellor commitment and that emotional intelligence mediates this relationship. The findings suggest that counselling self-efficacy may be a crucial factor in the development of critical counsellor preparation outcomes and professional dedication.

Jiang (2016) investigated the mechanism behind the association between emotional intelligence (EI) and career decision-making self-efficacy (CDMSE), as well as the moderating effect of gender on the aforementioned processes. The correlation between EI and GC was greater for male students than for female students.

This study proposes a mediation-based emotion–career framework for career development research and provides career counsellors with a greater understanding of how to help clients in the job selection process.

Anari (2012) performed research on emotional intelligence, occupational fulfilment, and organisational loyalty. According to the study's findings, there is a substantial positive correlation between emotional intelligence and work satisfaction, emotional intelligence and organisational commitment, and job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Regarding work satisfaction and organisational commitment, however, there are no significant differences between male and female high school English instructors. Regarding emotional intelligence, however, women are more intelligent than men.

Sharma (2010) examined the link between teacher educators' professional devotion, emotional intelligence, work satisfaction, and organisational environment in a research study. A positive and statistically significant association was discovered between emotional intelligence and professional dedication, as well as a positive and statistically significant correlation between work satisfaction and professional commitment. Furthermore, strong favourable associations were discovered between organisational environment and professional commitment attributes. There was no association discovered between professional dedication and socioeconomic standing. It was discovered that male and female teacher educators were equally dedicated to their vocation. There were no notable differences between rural and urban educator preparation programmes in terms of professional dedication.

Seyal and Afzaal (2013) investigated the connection between Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Dedication, and Work Satisfaction. A researcher who recognized the relative relevance and potential of the EI and OC domains to work satisfaction conducted this new study. The research was undertaken by Brunei Darussalam researchers. Ninety Brunei Darussalam technical university faculty members were chosen for this investigation. The approach used was survey methodology. Two out of seven aspects of EI and effective components of organizational commitment highly predict the work satisfaction of respondents, according to the findings of the study. On the basis of the research's analysis and conclusion, the findings were assessed and suggestions were given.

Anari (2012) conducted study on emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and organizational loyalty. There is a significant positive association between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, emotional intelligence and organizational commitment, and job satisfaction and organizational commitment, according to the results of the study. Nevertheless, there are no significant differences between male and female high school English teachers on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, when it comes to emotional intelligence, women are more intelligent than men.

## **2.5 Studies on social intelligence in relation to teaching style and professional commitment**

The nation's destiny depends on the ability and efficacy of the educators. Teachers influence the characteristics of their students. Children are greatly impacted by the emotional, intellectual, social, and spiritual elements of their parents. Teachers must be emotionally and spiritually mature enough to meet the emotional and spiritual requirements of their students. Kumar and Shakila (2022) sought to ascertain the emotional intelligence and spirituality of secondary school teachers' professional dedication. The sample consists of 700 teachers from the Visakhapatnam District of Andhra Pradesh. Srinivasan and Murugesan developed the professional commitment scale for teachers (PCST). The Spirituality Questionnaire was developed by Dr. Ajay Kumar. Singh was employed to collect data. We utilised mean, standard deviation, and the t-test to analyse the data. The descriptive method was used to examine this study. The study revealed a strong correlation between secondary school teachers' professional commitment, emotional intelligence, and spirituality.

Akinlolu and Chukwudi (2019) examined the predictive relationship between counselling, self-efficacy, and commitment, in addition to the potential mediating effects of emotional intelligence and gender identity. Interns and doctoral students in counselling at the master's level (N = 126) were surveyed to assess levels of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, gender identity, and counsellor commitment. Significant pairwise correlations were shown by the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between the four variables of interest. Multiple mediator path analysis supported the hypotheses that self-efficacy in counselling is a significant predictor of counsellor commitment and that emotional intelligence mediates this



relationship. The findings suggest that counselling self-efficacy may be a significant variable in the development of important counsellor preparation outcomes and professional commitment.

Jiang (2016) investigated the mechanism of the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and career decision-making self-efficacy (CDMSE), as well as the moderating effect of gender on the aforementioned processes. The association between EI and GC was stronger among male than female pupils. This research establishes a mediation-based emotion–career framework for career development

research and provides career counsellors with a deeper understanding of how to assist clients with career selection processes.

Sharma (2010) investigated a research study on the relationship between teacher educators' professional dedication and their emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and organisational environment. The study found a positive and statistically significant link between emotional intelligence and professional commitment, as well as a positive and statistically significant correlation between job satisfaction and professional commitment. In addition, significant positive connections were found between organisational environment and professional commitment qualities. No significant correlation was found between professional commitment and socioeconomic status. Male and female teacher educators were found to be equally committed to their profession. There were no substantial differences in professional devotion between rural and urban educator training programmes.

### **2.5.1 Social intelligence in relation to teaching style**

The teachers' confidence in their abilities, self-assurance in their own capabilities, and belief in the value of their work assist them in establishing a strong sense of identity and personal boundaries. Therefore, they are aware of their abilities, which may enhance their job performance. Dash investigated the relationship between social intelligence and teacher effectiveness in a study (2021). The primary objectives of this study are to investigate the relationship between social intelligence and teacher effectiveness and to compare the social intelligence and effectiveness of secondary school teachers by gender. In this investigation, descriptive survey

methodology was utilised. Using the Social Intelligence Scale (SIS) of Chadha and Ganesan and the Teacher Effectiveness Scale (TES) of Kumar and Mutha, they collected data from 60 randomly selected Angul Educational District government secondary school teachers (30 male and 30 female). 62.39 percent of secondary school teachers had a high level of Teacher Effectiveness, while 37.61 percent had a low level. The majority of secondary school teachers (75.5%) have a moderate level of Social Intelligence, while only 13.1% and 11.4% have a high and low level, respectively. The overall Teacher Effectiveness did not differ significantly between male and female educators. Nonetheless, a significant positive correlation was found between the Teacher Effectiveness and Social IQ of secondary school teachers.

Social Intelligence is the capacity to compromise in order to comprehend and manage people and to participate in socially adaptive situations. Intelligence in general and social intelligence in particular are necessary for survival. Teachers must engage with their students effectively and have a deeper understanding of their students in the school setting. In this context, Bhattacharyya and Gayen (2018) sought to investigate the relationship between social intelligence and classroom instructor behaviour. The first objective of this study is to determine the gender and age-based social intelligence levels of secondary school teachers in the North 24 pgs. district. The second objective is to determine the relationship between secondary school teachers' social intelligence and classroom behaviour. Two self-created questionnaires were used to collect data, and the t-test and correlation were used to analyse the data. According to the study's first finding, there is no significant difference between male and female secondary school teachers in the North 24 pgs. region. Second, there is no significant difference between the Social intelligence levels of two groups of secondary school teachers, and third, there is no significant difference between the Social intelligence and classroom conduct of secondary school teachers.

### **2.5.2 Social intelligence in relation to professional commitment**

The purpose of Kumar's (2015) study was to examine the relationship between teacher educators' levels of professional commitment and social intelligence. The participants in this study were B.Ed. teacher educators from Punjab. The researcher utilised the instruments Social Intelligence Scale by Chada and Ganeshan (2004) to

collect the necessary information. One hundred B.Ed. teacher educators from various institutions in the Punjab region of Ludhiana were sampled. According to the results of the study, there is no correlation between the professional commitment and Social Intelligence of instructors working in teacher training institutions. Since social intelligence has little effect on the professional commitment of teacher educators. Their relationship is nearly nonexistent. In addition, the research reveals that there are substantial gender and geographic differences in the methods of professional commitment among B.Ed. teacher educators in the Ludhiana District. The results of the survey also indicate that there is no statistically significant gender or geographic differences in the social intelligence of B.Ed. teacher educators in the Ludhiana District.

## **2.6 Critical review of literature**

Review of related literature revealed that The researcher has found a large number of studies are conducted in the area of India and international level on emotional intelligence at higher education level (Sharma & Arora, 2012) in relation to effective teaching (Bhambure, 2017), burnout and work engagement (Savneet, 2012), Stress and Psychological Well Being (Babu, 2011), and mental health (Gawali, 2009). A study has conducted on the Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Work Life Balance among the Faculty Members Performance in the Private Universities (Mary, 2017) in Tamil Nadu in India. In India, there are studies on emotional intelligence of secondary school teachers with respect to occupational self-efficacy leadership style and teaching effectiveness (Malviya, 2017; Paite, 2014; Sharma, 2007; Vishalakshi, 2013), teaching aptitude (Adhikari, 2012), Job satisfaction and personality (Mondal, 2018), stress, coping behavior and personality traits (Rani, 2011) teaching professional (Lakshmi, 2017) and Adolescents' emotional intelligence and understanding of attachment (Nowinski, 2017). The researcher has observed few studies on emotional intelligence of Higher secondary school teachers with teaching competency (Varghese, 2004), role conflict (Shabana, 2012), stress management of higher secondary school students (Khan, 2016) in Indian context. The researcher has noticed various studies on emotional intelligence with reference to Teacher effectiveness with cognitive style (Thakur, 2017) and social maturity (Singh, 2017), spiritual intelligence and academic achievement (KaurDhatt, 2013), mental health and teaching performance (Sharma, 2007; Biswas, 2012), Teaching Profession, Personality and Gender (Chakraborty, 2015),

locus of control, Motivation (Reena Ruby, 2016), Gender and some socio- educational factors (Joshi, 2008) of B.Ed. trainee teachers. Researcher has also identified emotional intelligence of D.Ed. trainee teachers with reference to self-concept, personality adjustment, attitude (Mangala, 2013), Emotional Intelligence Package EIP (Pushpa, 2014), teaching competency (Joshith, 2011) in India. In Abroad, the researcher has found one studies in other discipline like on emotional intelligence in medicine in the context (Gilar-Corbi, Pozo-Rico, Sanchez and Castejon, 2010) ACGME competences, leadership styles, self-efficacy and perception of sense of power (Al Reshidi, 2019) of nursing faculty.

The researcher has seen studies on social intelligence of secondary school teachers in relation to teacher effectiveness (Agarwal, 2003; Gupta, 2013), problem- solving style and teaching competency (Borgio, 2016) and Professional ethics (Kaur, 2018) in India and job satisfaction (Jeloudar, &Goodarzi, 2017) among college teachers in abroad. In India, the researcher has found studies on social intelligence of B.Ed. college teachers with teaching aptitude (Lyngdoh, 2013), computer competencyand self-esteem (Mohan, 2016), moral values (Sivanandam, 2015), cognitive styles (Mohan, 2015), Family relationship and learning behavior of adolescent students (Parmar, 2016) in India. In abroad researcher was able to find one study regarding exploring the neurological substrate of social intelligence (Bar-On, Tranel, Denburg&Bechara, 2003).

In Abroad researcher has observed some studies regarding teaching styles in relation to learning styles (Amir & Jelas, 2010), EFL Teachers' beliefs on learning English (Dogruer, Menevis & Eyyam, 2010), status of teaching styles (Heimlich, & Norland, 2002), thinking styles Zhang, 2004), Organizational commitments (Zhang & Jing 2016), online teaching Styles (Barrett, 2004), computing skills of girls (Bromfield, Clarke & Lynch, 2001), Teaching practices and student practices: a study of the responsiveness to the didactic contract (Barry, 2018) in higher education and changing teaching styles in distance education (Brew, & Wright, 2006). The researcher has also noticed few studies on teaching styles on tool development Yoshida, Conti, Yamauchi, and Iwasaki, 2014), construction such as the validation of a scale measuring teaching styles in the Italian context (Alivernini, Lucidi & Manganelli, 2012; Antoniou & Kalinoglou, 2013), validate the Need-Supportive Teaching Style Scale (NSTSS) in secondary teachers through exploratory structural equation modeling (Catalan, Serrano,

Lucas, Clemente, & Gonzalez, 2018) in abroad. The researcher has looked on distinct documents on teaching styles of secondary school teachers in relation to controlling teaching and student motivational experiences Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Mouratidis, Katartzi, Ntoumani & Vlachopoulos, 2018), the mathematical beliefs and teaching practices of home- educating parents in the context of their children's perceptions and knowledge of mathematics (Yusuf, 2009) in abroad. The researcher has observed few studies on teaching style with respect to prospective teachers' opinions (Cakmak, 2011), Student achievement (Caubrilana, & Mayan, 2018), competences, self-efficacy, and commitment (Gonzalez, Conde, Diaz, Garcia & Ricoy, 2017), students and educators preferred teaching styles (Khandaghi, & Rajaei, 2011), Academic Engagement (Kikasa, Silinskas, Jogi & Soodlaa, 2016) of B.Ed. trainee teachers in abroad. The researcher has got very few doctoral level documents in India of teaching style in relation to influence of select psychological variables (Babu, 2015), teacher effectiveness and personality type (bhardwaj, 2009), thinking and teaching styles of teacher educators in relation to some selected demographic variables (kumari, 2008), hemisphericity and learning style in increasing achievement level (Lakshmi, 2013) of secondary school teachers. Although several studies have been documented in abroad the researcher has found quite limited studies in Indian context especially at doctoral level.

The researcher has looked on the various studies of professional commitment (Varandani, 2016), on teacher effectiveness at elementary level (Chand, 2011), Professional commitment in relation to several variable such as teachers emotional intelligence, locus of control and organizational climate (Kaur, 2009), occupational stress and teacher effectiveness (Sharma, 2018), emotional intelligence and teachers' morale (Sundari, 2017), change proneness, rule conflict and self-efficacy (Sen, 2017), Work motivation and professional competence as determinants of change proneness (Verma, 2014) of secondary school teachers in Indian context. In India, the Researcher also found few studies on primary teacher trainees that perceptions about education and professional aptitude (Shah, 2014), professional values, teaching aptitude and job satisfaction (Devi, 2011). There are certain studies conducted in Professional commitment in relation to EI management and technical institutions (Kaur, 2014), subjective well-being (Choudhary, 2014), nishkam karma yoga on

managerial effectiveness (Chatterjee, 2015), event management (Roy, 2017), Professional commitment and commercialism (Kumar, 2016) in other discipline in Indian context. The researcher has found several studies on Teacher Professional commitment (Demirkasimoglu, 2010; Saravanan & Wadi, 2014; Mohamed, 2011; Khan and Khan, 2018; Ilgan, Aslanargun, & Shaukat, 2015; Evans, 2008; Gamble, 2010) in abroad.

In comparison to previous studies researcher identified certain following significant points:

i. Some of the researches were conducted on emotional intelligence and social intelligence on other teaching related variables irrespective of national and international boundary. It was found that emotional and social intelligence are very important contributor for quality teaching. So, in this research, the researcher was attempted to collect information regarding interrelation among emotional intelligence, social intelligence and teaching style and professional commitment of teachers in Indian context especially limited to west Bengal state.

ii. This study mainly focused on the secondary level school teachers who are teaching class IX-X under west Bengal board of secondary education (WBBSE).

iii. In this study, the researcher conducted a study on a large number of secondary level school teachers of West Bengal through using randomization procedure which is also differs in terms of other studies.

iv. In this study researcher develop two attitude scales to measure emotional intelligence and social intelligence of teachers and impact of the both two variables on teaching style and professional commitment of teachers.

Research has yet to provide a more comprehensive analysis on several studies but unable to found any study on those four variables altogether those were emotional intelligence, social intelligence, teaching style and professional commitment

irrespective of national and international level. So, researcher has decided to conduct a study on emotional intelligence, social intelligence in relation to teaching style and professional commitment of teachers.