
Does emotional intelligence depend on gender? – A study on IT sector in Hyderabad.

G.Nivedita

Research Scholar, Department of Business Management, Osmania University.
e-Mail: niveditagattu@gmail.com

Abstract: *Success in employees no longer depends on technical expertise and experience alone, but on how well employees handle themselves and others. Studies show that Emotional Intelligence (EI) can lead to success even trumping Intelligence Quotient and Experience. EI involves cognitive and emotional abilities to function in interpersonal relationships, social groups as well as manage one's emotional states. Emotionally intelligent individuals are self-confident and have strong executive presence and the ability to control their feelings, moods and emotional impulse. They gain support from the right people in the organization, handle stressful situations, and do it all with confidence and emotional calm. Many studies in the past have concluded that Emotional Intelligence of male and female are different. IT industry is a new age industry providing livelihood to millions of workforce in India and the impact of Gender on Emotional Intelligence is to be understood. This study attempts to determine whether employees from different gender are different in emotional intelligence and its—components in Hyderabad IT industry. In this study no clear difference between Emotional Intelligence values of male and female managers was found. The same has been the observation even at the individual Emotional Intelligence Component levels between male and female managers. Basis this study it is concluded that Emotional Intelligence doesn't depend on the Gender in IT industry.*

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, Components of Emotional Intelligence, Gender and IT industry.

Introduction

In today's competitive, knowledge-driven organization, employees at all levels—from top executives to line managers must have more than just technical skills and IQ. They must possess the right values, behaviours, and emotions. Research shows that emotional intelligence may actually be significantly more important than cognitive

ability and technical expertise combined (Kemper, 1999). Emotional Intelligence is defined as the capacity to process emotional information accurately and efficiently (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This processing includes the capability to perceive, assimilate, understand, and manage emotions. Traditionally, the emphasis when evaluating performance has been only on intellectual and technical abilities. Presently, emotional intelligence is touted as far more important than IQ and technical skills when measuring a leader's effectiveness. IQ predicts only about 20 percent of career successes, which leave the remaining 80 percent to other factors such as emotional intelligence (Pool, 1997).

Daniel Goleman (1995) defines emotional intelligence 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.” Recent research, according to Goleman “without emotional intelligence, a person can have the best training in the world, an incisive, analytical mind, and an endless supply of smart ideas, but he still will not make a great leader” (Goleman 1998). Jordan and Troth (2002) defined EI as a construct that involves the individual's capacity to monitor and control their own and others' emotions, their ability to distinguish between positive and negative effects of emotions, and the capability to use emotional information to monitor thinking and actions. Emotions may aid in considering numerous perspectives and lead

to creativity (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Moreover, EI is a construct that involves an individual's ability to monitor their own and others' emotions, to distinguish between the positive and negative effects of emotions, and to use emotional information to regulate thinking and actions (Jordan & Troth, 2002).

In 2016, a set of principles were used to guide the theorizing of EI, and it was located among broad intelligences. In this model, EI is considered a hot broad intelligence. "Cool intelligence relates to impersonal knowledge, whereas hot intelligence has to do with matters that are highly affective; they make our blood boil or chill out hearts" (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2016, p. 292). The new model (Mayer et al., 2016) defines EI as "the ability to reason validly with emotions and with emotion-related information, and to use emotions to enhance thought" (p. 296).

Are women emotionally intelligent than men?

EI competencies are influenced by many factors. One factor affecting EI is gender. This effect may be due to both social and biological factors. Socially, females are known to have greater EI than males (Singh, 2002; Ryff, Singer, Wing & Love, 2001). Petrides and Furnham (2000) described gender as a social process where some activities are more masculine or feminine. There are traits desirable for one gender but not the other; assertiveness is a typical male characteristic whereas empathy is a desirable female characteristic (Siegling, Furnham, & Petrides, 2015). One reason for the existence of such dissimilarities may be that males and females are socialized differently (Duckelt & Raffali, 1989; Sandhu & Mehrotra, 1999). In the socializing process, schools, peers, parents, and/or the media encourage females to be cooperative, expressive, and attuned to their interpersonal world, whereas males are

led to be openly competitive, independent, and instrumental (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Consequently, through experiences in childhood, females learn to give more value to nurturance and interpersonal interconnectedness than males do (Gunkel, Lusk, Wolff, & Li, 2007). On the contrary, from a biological perspective, Fernández Berrocal et al. (2012) claimed the female biochemistry is more suitably adapted to the individual's own and other's emotions as a vital factor for survival. In female brains, certain areas of emotional processing are larger than the corresponding areas in males (Baron-Cohen, 2003) besides males and females are different in cerebral processing of emotions (Craig et al., 2009) giving rise to the differences in EI.

The difference between males and females where overall EI was concerned was inconsistent in various parts of the world. Overall, EI and gender was found to have a mean correlation of 0.17 with females scoring higher than males and females possessing higher emotional and interpersonal skills than males in the United States (Van Rooy, Alonso, & Viswesvaran, 2005). A study carried out in Tamil Nadu, India, found that in medical graduates, females have higher EI than males (Chandra, Gayatri, & Devi, 2017) and females had higher mean EI scores among Sri Lankan medical undergraduates (Ranasinghe, Wathurapatha, Mathangasinghe, & Ponnampereuma, 2017). In Delhi, 10th graders, the EI of female students was demonstrated to be higher in comparison with their male counterparts (Joshi & Dutta, 2014), but in Iran, In Iran, Domakani, Mirzaei, and Zeraatpisheh (2014) found that females have greater overall EI and are better at interpersonal skills, adaptability, and pragmatic knowledge than males. The overall EI scores of females was significantly higher than males (Craig et al.,

2009; Harrod Scheer, 2005; Schutte et al. as cited in Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

Studies showed differences between genders in both types of EI measures: ability and trait. Spanish adults showed that the total ability EI score as well as scores on the four EI branches were affected by gender, where ability EI was higher in females than males (Cabello, Sorrel, Fernández-Pinto, Extremera, & Fernández-Berrocal, 2016).

However, in some cases, no clear difference in EI has been found between the genders (Bar-On, 1997; Bar-On, Brown, Kirkcaldy, & Thome, 2000; Brackett Mayer, 2003; Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, & Salovey, 2006; Brown & Schutte, 2006; Depape, Hakim-Larson, Voelker, Page, & Jackson, 2006). In a study carried out in the United Kingdom, Arteché, Chamorro-Premuzic, Furnham, and Crump (2008) could not find a significant relationship between overall EI and gender in a sample of employees. In a study carried out in Myanmar, no significant difference was found between the EI of male and female teachers (Myint & Aung, 2016).

Another avenue to explore to discern the differences between the genders in EI is the components of this intelligence. Arteché et al. (2008) found that females had higher scores on the interpersonal facet than males. In addition, females outscore males highly on empathy, emotional skills, and emotional-related perceptions (Craig et al., 2009) and on perception of emotions, such as decoding facial expressions (Kafetsios, 2004). Dunn (2002) claimed that females display better empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship than males. Mothers use more emotion words with females when they tell stories and display more emotion when interacting with females which may create a predisposition to

more emotions for the females (Bechtoldt, 2008). Jakupcak, Salters, Gratz, and Roemer (2003) ascertained that males have a greater fear of emotions and tend to show less emotion than females. Brody, Hall, 77and Stokes (2016) claimed that males more frequently express negative emotions (e.g., anger, aggression, and frustration). Research illustrates that males are more prone to expressing high-intensity positive emotions (e.g., excitement) and females are more prone to expressing low or moderately intense positive emotions (e.g., happiness) as well as sadness (Else-Quest, Hyde, Goldsmith, & Van Hulle, 2006; Perry-Parrish & Zeman, 2011; Schultz, Izard, & Bear, 2004; Zhou, Eisenberg, Wang, & Reiser, 2004). In addition, females are at an advantage in the perception of emotions and demonstration of social skills and EI, but exhibit more hesitation about feelings and decisions, and place less importance on the intellect (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Wong & Law, 2002). Females, also, place greater attention on their emotions than males do (Fernández-Berrocal, Extremera, & Ramos, 2004; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995), are more emotional (Grewal & Salovey, 2005), and are more skillful at dealing with and understanding their emotions, while males are more competent at regulating impulses and withstanding pressure (Sanchez-Nunez, Fernández-Berrocal, Montanes, & Lattore, 2008). Females exhibit more dexterity at guiding and managing emotions, of both self and others. Occasionally, females exhibit superiority at emotional attention and empathy, whereas males display higher emotion regulation (Bindu & Thomas, 2006; Goldenberg, Matheson, & Mantler, 2006). Another gendered area is work where males have more requests and demands (Reiff, Hatzes, Bramel, & Gibbon, 2001). In traits seen as related to effective leadership, males

show slightly more assertiveness and females show higher levels of integrity than males (Franke, Crown, & Spake, 1997).

In addition, studies carried out in Africa, East Asia (Singapore, China, and Japan), Europe, and the United States have nearly all shown male overestimation and female underestimation of their EI (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Brackett et al., 2006; Lumley, Gustavson, Partridge, & Labouvie-Vief, 2005; Zhang & Gong, cited in Petrides, Furnham, & Martin, 2004). British participants also displayed that females underestimate their emotional skills, whereas males tend to overestimate them (Szymanowicz & Furnham, 2013).

As research shows EI as “the ability to reason validly with emotions and with emotion-related information, and to use emotions to enhance thought” (Mayer et al., 2016, p. 296) may be different in males and females, and if this difference exists, it lies in different facets of EI.

Components of Emotional Intelligence:

Self-awareness is the ability to know one’s internal state, preferences and intuition. It is a measure that provides honesty in regards to one’s capabilities.

Self – management is part of emotional intelligence that enables control of the inner states, impulses and emotions.

Motivation - Self motivation includes our personal drive to improve and achieve, commitments to our goals, initiative, or readiness to act on opportunities and optimism and resilience.

Empathy - It is demonstrated by the ability to perceive others feelings, anticipate their needs and cultivate opportunities through development of different approaches to people.

Relationship management – means using an awareness of your own emotions and those of others to build strong relationships.

As the research (Goleman, 1995) shows that men and women have different EI based on the Gender while the others contradict it (as there may be some patterns observed in some contexts). For instance, some measures suggest women are on average better than men at some forms of empathy, and men do better than women when it comes to managing distressing emotions. Whenever you talk about such gender differences in behavior, you are referring to two different Bell Curves, one for men and one for women that largely overlap. What this means is that any given man might be as good or better as any woman at empathy, and a woman as good as or better than a specific man at handling upsets. Let’s look at empathy. There are three kinds: cognitive empathy, being able to know how the other person sees things; emotional empathy, feeling what the other person feels; and empathic concern, or sympathy—being ready to help someone in need. Women tend to be better at emotional empathy than men, in general. This kind of empathy fosters rapport and chemistry. People who excel in emotional empathy make good counselors, teachers, and group leaders because of this ability to sense in the moment how others are reacting. Neuroscientists tell us one key to empathy is a brain region called the insula, which senses signals from our whole body. When we’re empathizing with someone, our brain mimics what that person feels, and the insula reads that pattern and tells us what that feeling is.

Neither is better—both have advantages. The male tune out works well when there’s a need to insulate yourself against distress so you can stay calm while others around you are falling apart and focus on finding a solution to an urgent problem. And the

female tendency to stay tuned in helps enormously to nurture and support others in emotionally trying circumstances. It's part of the "tend-and-befriend" response to stress. (Goleman 1995).

Objectives of this study

1. To evaluate that the men and women have different emotional intelligence levels
2. To evaluate components of emotional intelligence on men and women

Hypothesis

H₀: There is no significant difference between the Emotional Intelligence of men and women

Research methodology

The research is empirical in nature and sample element in research was managers from IT industry of Hyderabad. Sample size was 121 managers.

This study used the Practical EQ Emotional Intelligence Self-Assessment questionnaire (Coaching Leaders Ltd 2012) which was based on Daniel Goleman Emotional Competencies is used to assess the EI values of male and female managers. The scale was administered on a sample of 121 managers (73 male and 48 female) from three top IT organizations of Hyderabad. This study also tries to see the differences in EI between male and female managers in IT industry, firstly based on the different Emotional Intelligence competencies and then at an aggregate level. The 'Practical EQ' assesses individual's responses to statements using a 5-point Likert scale. The scale used in EIS is as follows: (1) almost never; (2) rarely; (3) seldom; (4) usually (5) almost always do what is described in the statement.

Reliability of Scale

Internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the instrument 'Practical EQ' has been found to be good in a range of 0.68 to 0.87 with an

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	48	39.7	39.7	39.7
	Male	73	60.3	60.3	100.0
	Total	121	100.0	100.0	

overall average reliability of 0.78.

60% of managers (73 out of 121 managers) who participated in the study were male .

Interpretation of the results

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Self Awareness Manager	Male	73	14.51	2.593	.304
	Female	48	14.48	2.406	.347
	Total	121	14.50	2.510	.228
Self Management	Male	73	13.44	2.891	.338

Manager	Female	48	12.77	2.998	.433
	Total	121	13.17	2.940	.267
Motivation Manager	Male	73	13.55	2.949	.345
	Female	48	13.08	3.017	.435
Empathy Manager	Male	73	13.38	2.331	.273
	Female	48	12.71	2.405	.347
Relationship Management Manager	Male	73	12.11	2.270	.266
	Female	48	12.48	2.260	.326
Total EI Manager	Male	73	66.99	10.246	1.199
	Female	48	65.52	8.877	1.181
Total EI Manager	Total	121	66.40	9.715	.883

We find from the above table 2 that in Empathy and Relationship Management females have higher Component mean values while males have higher mean values in the other three components (viz. Self Awareness, Self Management and Motivation). Overall EI of male managers is marginally ahead of female managers at 66.99 vs 65.52

Table 3: ANOVA test for EI score and Gender

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Si g.
Self Awareness Manager	Between Groups	.022	1	.022	.003	.953
	Within Groups	756.226	119	6.355		
	Total	756.248	120			
Self Management Manager	Between Groups	12.904	1	12.904	1.499	.223
	Within Groups	1024.452	119	8.609		
	Total	1037.355	120			
Motivation	Between	6.2	1	6.2	.70	.4

Emotional Intelligence	Between Groups	51		2	6	0
	Within Groups	105	11	8		
	Total	106	12			
Empathy	Between Groups	13.203	1	3.20	2.369	.126
	Within Groups	663.177	119	5.73		
	Total	676.380	120			
Relationship Management	Between Groups	3.955	1	3.95	.770	.382
	Within Groups	611.102	119	5.13		
	Total	615.058	120			
Total EI Manager	Between Groups	62.192	1	62.19	.657	.419
	Within Groups	1126.965	119	9.46		
	Total	1132.5	120			

		157				
--	--	-----	--	--	--	--

ANOVA was used in order to find out whether the gender of the manager has a significant relationship on EI values. The results are illustrated in the table 3. It was noticed that the significance (2 tailed) was 0.419 which is **not** less than 0.05 at 95% CI (confidence interval). Hence the group variance could not be treated as unequal. **Hence Hypotheses H01 was accepted.** Thus it can be said that Emotional Intelligence values will not have a significant relationship with Gender of the managers.

Conclusion:

Research illustrates that males are more prone to expressing high-intensity positive emotions (e.g., excitement) and females are more prone to expressing low or moderately intense positive emotions (e.g., happiness) as well as sadness (Else-Quest, Hyde, Goldsmith, & Van Hulle, 2006; Perry-Parrish & Zeman, 2011; Schultz, Izard, & Bear, 2004; Zhou, Eisenberg, Wang, & Reiser, 2004). In addition, females are at an advantage in the perception of emotions and demonstration of social skills and EI, but exhibit more hesitation about feelings and decisions, and place less importance on the intellect (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Wong & Law, 2002). Females, also, place greater attention on their emotions than males do. While there were studies which established that females have higher emotional intelligence in this study I have found that there is no clear difference in EI between the Genders of managers in IT industry of Hyderabad. As IT is one of the new age industries with better Gender balance and it being a skill based work which might be the reason for no clear difference in EI or its components between the Gender of managers as observed in this study. Further research in other emerging IT

destinations can be done to further understand the impact of Gender on Emotional intelligence

References

- [1] Artech, A., Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Furnham, A., & Crump, J. (2008). The relationship of trait EI with personality, IQ and sex in a UK sample of employees. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 16, 421-426.
- [2] Bar-On, R. (1997). *The Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EQ-i): Technical manual*. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- [3] Bar-On, R., Brown, J. M., Kirkcaldy, B., & Thome, E. (2000). Emotional expression and implications for occupational stress; an application of the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28, 1107-1118.
- [4] Baron-Cohen, S. (2003). *The essential difference: The truth about the male and female brain*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- [5] Bechtoldt, M. N. (2008). Emotional intelligence, professional qualifications, and psychologists' need for gender research. In N. Karafyllis & G. Ulshofer (Eds.), *Sexualized brains* (pp. 117-130). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- [6] Bindu, P., & Thomas, I. (2006). Gender differences in emotional intelligence. *Psychological Studies*, 51, 261-268.
- [7] Brody, L. R., Hall, J. A., & Stokes, L. R. (2016). Gender and emotion: Theory, findings and content. In L. Feldman Barrett, M. Lewis, & J. M. Haviland-Jones (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions* (pp. 369-392). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- [8] Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29, 1147-1158.
- [9] Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., Shiffman, S., Lerner, N., & Salovey, P. (2006). Relating emotional abilities to social functioning: A comparison of self-report and performance measures of emotional intelligence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 91, 780-795.
- [10] Brown, R. F., & Schutte, N. S. (2006). Direct and indirect relationships between emotional intelligence and subjective fatigue in university students. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 60, 585-593.
- [11] Cabello, R., Sorrel, M. A., Fernández-Pinto, I., Extremera, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2016). *Age and gender differences in ability emotional intelligence in adults: A cross-sectional study*. *Developmental Psychology*, 52, 1486-1492. doi:10.1037/dev0000191
- [12] Chandra, A., Gayatri, A., & Devi, D. (2017). Assessment of emotional intelligence in first year medical graduates-A Questionnaire based study. *International Journal of Physiology*, 5, 124-126. doi:10.5958/2320-608X.2017.00027.0
- [13] Craig, A., Tran, Y., Hermens, G., Williams, L. M., Kemp, A., Morris, C., & Gordon, E. (2009). Psychological and neural correlates of emotional intelligence in a large sample of adult males and females. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 46, 111-115.
- [14] Coaching Leaders Ltd 2012 – Practical EQ Emotional Intelligence Self-Assessment questionnaire developed by www.coachingleaders.co.uk/emotional-intelligence-test
- [15] Depape, A. R., Hakim-Larson, J., Voelker, S., Page, S., & Jackson, D. L. (2006). Self-talk and emotional intelligence in university students. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, 38, 250-260.
- [16] Domakani, M., Mirzaei, A., & Zeraatpisheh, S. (2014). L2 learners affect and pragmatic performance: A focus on emotional intelligence and gender dimensions. *Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics*, 5, 149-174.
- [17] Dunn, P. (2002). *The impact of starting a new venture on the entrepreneur and their family: Expectation, reality, and willingness to start again*. Paper presented at the Association for Small Business and Entrepreneurship Annual Conference, Reno, Nevada.
- [18] Duckelt, E., & Raffalli, M. (1989). "Taking care": Maintaining the self and the home in early adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 18, 549-565.
- [19] Else-Quest, N. M., Hyde, J. S., Goldsmith, H. H., & Van Hulle, C. A. (2006). Gender differences in temperament: A metaanalysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 132, 33-72.
- [20] Fernández-Berrocal, P., Cabello, R., Castillo, R., & Extremera, N. (2012). Gender differences in emotional intelligence: The mediating effect of age. *Behavioral Psychology*, 20, 77-89.
- [21] Franke, G., Crown, D., & Spake, D. (1997). Gender differences in ethical perceptions of business practices: A social role theory perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 920-934.
- [22] Goleman, D. 1995. *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam books.

- [23] Goleman, D. 1998. *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- [24] Grewal, D., & Salovey, P. (2005). *Feeling smart: The science of emotional intelligence*. *American Scientist*, 93, 330-339.
- [25] Gunkel M, Lusk E. J., Wolff B, & Li, F. (2007). *Gender-specific effects at work: An empirical study of four countries*. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 14, 56-79.
- [26] Joshi, D., & Dutta, I. (2014). *Emotional intelligence among second-ary students: Role of gender and type of school*. *MIER Journal of Educational Studies, Trends & Practices*, 4, 167-182.
- [27] Harrod, N. R., & Scheer, S. D. (2005). *An exploration of adolescent emotional intelligence in relation to demographic characteristics*. *Adolescence*, 40, 503-512.
- [28] Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. C. (2002). *Emotional intelligence and conflict resolution: Implications for human resource development*. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 4, 26-79.
- [29] Jakupcak, M., Salters, K., Gratz, K., & Roemer, L. (2003). *Masculinity and emotionality: An investigation of men's primary and secondary emotional responding*. *Sex Roles*, 49, 111-120.
- [30] Kafetsios, K. (2004). *Attachment and emotional intelligence abilities across the life course*. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37, 129-145.
- [31] Kemper, C. L. (1999). *EQ vs. IQ*. *Communication World*, 16, 15- 22
- [32] Lumley, M. A., Gustavson, B. J., Partridge, R. T., & Labouvie-Vief, G. (2005). *Assessing alexithymia and related emotional ability constructs using multiple methods: Interrelationships among measures*. *Emotion*, 5, 329-342.
- [33] Myint, A. A., & Aung, A. A. (2016). *The relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance of Myanmar school teachers*. *AsTEN Journal of Teacher Education*, 1, 1-16.
- [34] Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (2016). *The ability model of emotional intelligence: Principles and Updates*. *Emotion Review*, 8, 290-300. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073916639667>
- [35] Mayer, J. D., & Geher, G. (1996). *Emotional intelligence and the identification of emotion*. *Intelligence*, 22, 89-113.
- [36] Perry-Parrish, C., & Zeman, J. (2011). *Relations among sadness regulation, peer acceptance, and social functioning in early adolescence: The role of gender*. *Social Development*, 20, 135-153.
- [37] Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2000). *Gender differences in measured and self-estimated trait emotional intelligence*. *Sex Roles*, 42, 449-461.
- [38] Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2006). *The role of trait emotional intelligence in a gender specific model of organizational variables*. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36, 552-569.
- [39] Petrides, K. V., Furnham, A., & Martin, G. N. (2004). *Estimates of emotional and psychometric intelligence: Evidence for gender-based stereotypes*. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 144, 149-162.
- [40] Pool, C.R. (1997). *Up with emotional health*. *Educational Leadership*. 54, 12-14.
- [41] Ranasinghe, P., Wathurapatha, W. S., Mathangasinghe, Y., & Ponnampereuma, G. (2017). *Emotional intelligence, perceived stress and academic performance of Sri Lankan medical undergraduates*. *BMC Medical Education*, 17, Article 41. doi:10.1186/s12909-017-0884-5
- [42] Reiff, H. B., Hatzes, N. M., Bramel, M. H., & Gibbon, T. (2001). *The relation of LD and gender with emotional intelligence in college students*. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 34, 66-78.
- [43] Ryff, C. D., Singer, B. H., Wing, E., & Love, G. D. (2001). *Elective affinities and uninvited agonies: Mapping emotion with significant others onto health*. In C. D. Ryff & B. H. Singer (Eds.), *Emotion, social relationships, and health* (pp. 133-175). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- [44] Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). *Emotional intelligence. Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9, 185-211.
- [45] Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., Goldman, S. L., Turvey, C., & Palfai, T. P. (1995). *Emotional attention, clarity, and repair: Exploring emotional intelligence using Trait Meta-Mood Scale*. In J. W. Pennebaker (Ed.), *Emotion, disclosure, & health* (pp. 125-154). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- [46] Sanchez-Nunez, M. T., Fernández-Berrocal, P., Montanes, J., & Lattore, J. M. (2008). *Does emotional intelligence depend on gender? The socialization of emotional intelligence in males and females and its implications*. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 6, 455-474.
- [47] Sandhu P. & Mehrotra N. (1999). *Time pattern of female students with special reference to leisure time activities*. *Industrial Journal of Social Research*, 40, 285-296.
- [48] Schultz, D., Izard, C. E., & Bear, G. G. (2004). *Emotionality, emotion information processing, and aggression*. *Development and Psychopathology*, 16, 371-387.
- [49] Siegling A.B., Furnham A, & Petrides K. V. (2015). *Trait emotional intelligence and personality:*



Gender-invariant link-ages across different measures of the Big Five. Journal of Psycho-educational Assessment, 33, 57-67.

[50] Singh, D. (2002). *Emotional intelligence at work: A professional guide*. New Delhi, India: Sage.

[51] Singh, S. (2004). *Development of a measure of emotional intelligence*. *Psychological Studies, 49*(2), 136-141.

[52] Szymanowicz, A., & Furnham, A. (2013). *Gender and gender role differences in self and other estimates of multiple intelligences*. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 153*, 399-423. doi:10.1080/00224545.2012.754397

[53] Van Rooy, D. L., Alonso, A., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). *Group differences in emotional intelligence test scores: Theoretical and practical implications*. *Personality and Individual Differences, 38*, 689-700.

[54] Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). *The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study*. *The Leadership Quarterly, 13*, 243-274.

[55] Zhou, Q., Eisenberg, N., Wang, Y., & Reiser, M. (2004). *Chinese children's effortful control and dispositional anger/frustration: Relations to parenting styles and children's social functioning*. *Developmental Psychology, 40*, 352-366