EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON THE PERFORMANCE BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS AT PRIMARY LEVEL

Ayefa Shahid^{*1}, Dr. Ismat Bano², Shafeeq ur Rehman³

*1MPhil Scholar, Department of Arts & Humanities, Superior University, Lahore;
²Assistant Professor, Department of Arts & Humanities, Superior University, Lahore;
³Lecturer, Department of Arts and Humanities Superior university

Received: August 05, 2024 Revised: September 05, 2024 Accepted: September 20, 2024 Published: September 28, 2024

ABSTRACT

This study investigates how manly and womanish primary academy children' intellectual interpretation is impacted by passional intelligence. In order for a pupil to grow completely, passional intelligence (EI), which is the capacity to fete, check, and exercise feelings in productive ways, is essential. The purpose of this study is to look into how manly and womanish scholars' EI varies from one another and how it affects their intellectual interpretation. utilizing a standardized passional intelligence test, a sample of abecedarian academy pupils was taken to determine their passional intelligence, the study focuses on gender difference. The effects show off strong connections between intellectual acquirement and passional intelligence (EI), featuring that womanish scholars generally parade lesser situations of EI, which has a positive sequel on their intellectual effects. In order to ameliorate pupil interpretation, the study's conclusion offers ideas for preceptors on how to incorporate passional intelligence training into abecedarian academy. **Keywords**: Emotional Intelligence, Academic Performance, Gender Differences, Primary

Education, Student Achievement.

INTRODUCTION

At the abecedarian academy position, emotional intelligence (EI) has a big impact on kiddies' academic achievement, but its goods differ a lot for manly and womanish pupils. According to Goleman's (1995) description, emotional intelligence (EI) is the capacity to identify, comprehend, and regulate feelings in both oneself and other people. This skill set is especially important in educational settings since learning issues can be directly impacted by emotional control and interpersonal connections. Advanced EI kiddies generally do better academically because they're better suitable to manage the emotional demands of the classroom, stay focused, and negotiate social connections, according to exploration that has been routinely conducted on the subject. Mayer and Salovey, 1990)Still, how these advantages are endured may vary depending on gender difference in EI. Research has shown that girls generally demonstrate advanced emotional intelligence than boys, especially in disciplines like empathy and social mindfulness. This could explain why girls generally outperform

International Journal of Contempo

boys in the classroom (Mestre et al., 2006). A portion of this distinction can be linked to socialization processes that support girls' emotional expressiveness, which increases their capability for empathy and social connection capacities that are salutary in collaborative literacy settings (Brody, 1999). On the other hand, males may have strengths in provocation and tonecontrol, two areas of emotional intelligence that are critical for academic adaptability and the capacity to persist in the face of difficulties (Brackett & Salovey, 2006). Notwithstanding these broad patterns, there's a complex relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and academic achievement. Individual, societal, and artistic factors all impact how EI affects learning results for both genders.

Likewise, how EI develops and appears in academic surrounds can be told by the educational terrain, which has the power to either support or contradict traditional gender morals (Matthews et al., 2004). Boys who share in social-emotional literacy (SEL) programs and are encouraged to

express their passions, for illustration, may acquire a wider range of emotional capacities that will ameliorate their academic achievement. still, girls who admit backing in developing tone- control and adaptability may also witness advancements in their academic performance. Accordingly, it's critical that preceptors identify and address these gender difference in emotional intelligence (EI), modifying their styles to promote the academic and emotional growth of every pupil (Durlak et al., 2011). Through the creation of a gender-neutral development of emotional intelligence, educational institutions may guarantee that girls and boys likewise are handed with the emotional coffers demanded to exceed in the classroom and in life.

Over the past few decades, emotional intelligence (EI) has attracted a lot of attention as a crucial component impacting many facets of human behavior, including academic performance. The term "emotional intelligence" describes the capacity to identify, comprehend, regulate, and make efficient use of emotions in oneself and in social situations (Goleman, 1995). This idea has been extensively researched in regard to mental health, leadership, and professional achievement; less research has been done on how it affects educational outcomes, especially in primary school. Formative education occurs throughout the early years of school, when social, emotional, and cognitive development are established. Children start to acquire critical abilities during this time, such as social interaction, empathy, and emotional control, all of which are critical for their overall academic performance (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Academic achievement and emotional intelligence have a complicated and nuanced relationship. High emotional intelligence students typically do better academically, according to a number of studies (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004; Oualter, Gardner, & Whiteley, 2007). Since elementary school pupils are still developing their emotional and cognitive skills, this interaction is especially pertinent to them. In order to improve educational outcomes, educators and policymakers can benefit greatly from an understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement at this level.

For a long time, psychology study has been interested in the disparities in emotional intelligence between genders. Research has repeatedly demonstrated that when it comes to emotional intelligence tests, women typically perform better than men (Brackett, Rivers, & Salovey, 2011). These variations could have a big impact on academic achievement, especially in the early elementary years when kids are still forming their social and emotional competencies. Investigative how these gender discrepancies affect academic performance might assist in developing instructional strategies that cater to the needs of both male and female students

Problem Statement

The early times of education are critical for the development of emotional and cognitive capacities. But indeed with the adding quantum of studies on the subject, little is known about how emotional intelligence specifically affects primary academy academic achievement, especially when it comes to gender difference. While some exploration(Petrides et al., 2004) suggests that academic achievement is appreciatively identified with emotional intelligence, other exploration(Humphrey et al., 2007) finds no substantiation of a meaningful relationship. This distinction in results highlights the necessity for fresh exploration on the connection between abecedarian academy pupils' academic achievement and emotional intelligence. with particular emphasis on gender differences.

The issue this study attempts to address is the deficit of thorough exploration on the ways in which emotional intelligence impacts primary academy academic achievement else for manly and womanish pupils. Gaining an understanding of these connections is pivotal to creating focused treatments that can ameliorate academic performance for all children, anyhow of gender.

Objectives

1. To examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic performance among primary school students.

2. To investigate the gender differences in emotional intelligence among primary school students.

3. To analyze how emotional intelligence influences the academic performance of male and female students differently.

4. To provide recommendations for educators on how to incorporate emotional intelligence training into primary education curricula to improve student performance

Literature Review

This chapter's assessment of the literature seeks to offer a thorough analysis of the body of knowledge about emotional intelligence (EI) and how it affects academic achievement, with a special emphasis on gender difference. The description and theoretical underpinnings of emotional intelligence, its correlation with academic achievement, gender difference in emotional intelligence, and the influence of emotional intelligence on manly and womanish primary academy scholars' academic performance are just a many of the major sections that make up this review. This chapter will lay the root for the study done in this thesis by combining the results of several studies.

Since its first preface by Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotional intelligence has been conceived and characterized in a variety of ways. Emotional intelligence, according to Salovey and Mayer (1990), is the capacity to fete and classify one's own and other people's passions and use that knowledge to inform one's own opinions and geste. Their emotional intelligence approach, known as the capability model, places a strong emphasis on the part that cognitive processes play in emotion regulation. According to Mayer and Salovey(1997), there are four branches to this model seeing. understanding feelings, feelings. managing feelings, and employing feelings to grease thinking.

The mixed model of emotional intelligence, which gained fashionability thanks to Daniel Goleman (1995), is another significant model. According to Goleman, emotional intelligence is a convergence of social and emotional chops that affect our capability to communicate, handle connections, and negotiate the complications of society, tonemindfulness, tone- regulation, provocation, empathy, and social chops are the five rudiments of his methodology. Emotional intelligence is getting a common content of discussion thanks to Goleman's work, especially when it comes to leadership and success in the plant. Petrides and Furnham (2001) introduced the particularity model of emotional intelligence, which views emotional intelligence as a collection dispositions of emotional and tonecomprehensions. This approach stresses the part of emotional tone- efficacity in affecting geste and results and sees emotional intelligence as a personality trait as opposed to a cognitive capability.

multitudinous measuring instruments and evaluations, such the Mayer- Salovey- Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), the Emotional capability force (ECI), and the particularity Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIOue), have been developed grounded on these different generalizations of emotional intelligence. Experimenters must precisely consider these rudiments in their studies since the model and dimension tool they choose might have a substantial impact on the emotional intelligence exploration findings (Cherniss, 2010).

Over the once many decades, a great deal of study has been conducted on the connection between academic success and emotional intelligence. According to a number of studies (Parker et al., 2004; Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004), there's a positive association between academic accomplishment and emotional intelligence. This suggests that kiddies who retain lesser emotional intelligence situations also generally perform better academically. This connection is constantly described by how emotional intelligence improves scholars' capacity to handle stress, maintain provocation, and form wholesome bonds with preceptors and peers (Zeidner, Roberts, & Matthews, 2002).

The impact that emotional intelligence has on scholars' social and emotional literacy (SEL) is one of the main ways that it affects academic achievement. It has been demonstrated that social and emotional literacy enterprise, which work to increase scholars' emotional intelligence, enhance academic results by encouraging emotional control, empathy, and skillful communication (Durlak et al., 2011). According to Greenberg et al. (2003), these programs also help children in structure adaptability and a positive tone-conception, both of which are essential for prostrating obstacles in the classroom.

Emotional intelligence has been shown to have direct goods on academic achievement in addition to interceding the relationship between academic issues and other cerebral rudiments like toneefficacity and provocation. Academic performance and academic tone- efficacity, for case, are intermediated by emotional intelligence, according to a study by Qualter et al. (2012). This suggests that scholars with advanced emotional intelligence

can more use their tone- efficacity to succeed academically.

Indeed though there's mounting substantiation that emotional intelligence and academic achievement are related, some exploration have produced disagreeing or nebulous findings. For illustration, Humphrey et al.(2007) discovered that the degree of the association varied depending on the age range of the scholars and the type of evaluation tool employed in the studies on emotional intelligence and academic performance. The inconsistent results emphasize the necessity for fresh disquisition to interpret the circumstances in which academic achievement is impacted by emotional intelligence.

For a long time, psychology study has been interested in the difference in emotional intelligence between genders. Research has constantly demonstrated that when it comes to emotional intelligence tests, women generally perform better than men (Brackett, Rivers, & Salovey, 2011; Joseph & Newman, 2010). These disagreement are constantly linked to socialization processes, where guys are educated to repress their feelings and concentrate on problem-working, while girls are generally encouraged to express and control their feelings (Eagly & Wood, 1999). Studies on emotional intelligence variations across genders have headed a number of niches in which women generally perform better than men. For case, exploration indicates that women are frequently more at feting, expressing, and empathizing with others(Brody & Hall, 2008). These capacities are pivotal corridor of emotional intelligence and could explain why women tend to score better overall in emotional intelligence.

Methodology and Research Design

The study describes the exploration approach taken to look into how emotional intelligence affects both manly and womanish primary academy pupils' academic performance. The approach offers a precise frame for gathering, assaying, and interpreting data and is intended to guarantee the quality and responsibility of the results. The variables, population, sample size, measuring tools, study design, data collection processes, and data analysis ways are all included. For this study, a quantitative,cross-sectional check design was chosen as the exploration methodology. This approach was named because it makes it possible to gather quantitative data that can be statistically estimated to ascertain the connections between manly and womanish primary academy pupils' academic achievement and emotional intelligence. Because the study iscross-sectional, data is gathered at a specific point in time to give an overview of the variables of interest as they're at that moment (Creswell, 2014). This system works well for chancing patterns in the data and examining parallels and differences across groups, like manly and womanish pupils.

Participants

Using the technique for estimating sample size for finite populations, the sample size for this study is established with a 5% margin of error and a 95% confidence level. A sample of about 200 pupils— 100 male and 100 female—will be chosen based on the approximate population size of elementary school students in Lahore. It is determined that this sample size is adequate to yield statistically significant results and enable relevant comparisons between male and female pupils. To guarantee that there is a sufficient representation of male and female students in the sample, stratified random sampling will be the sampling technique employed.

Data Collection

The following procedures will be followed in order to collect data. 1. concurrence and authorization previous to the launch of data collection, the academy administration will grant authorization for checks and access to pupil records. The parents or guardians of the pupils will also be asked for their informed concurrence, guaranteeing that they're apprehensive of the pretensions and styles of the study.

2. Emotional Intelligence Scale Administration scholars will take the TEIQue- CF in a classroom terrain. In order to guarantee accurate responses, scholars will be guided through the questionnaire by trained exploration sidekicks. The check will be conducted in both Urdu and English to feed to scholars with varying language proficiency situations.

3. Gathering Academic Performance Data Information about scholars' grades and test results in core courses will be gathered from their academy records. For analysis, this data will be added to a database.

4. Demographic Data Collection To gather data on age, socioeconomic status, and maternal engagement, a demographic questionnaire will be given to the pupils or their parents

Data Analysis

The following statistical styles will be used to the acquired data - Descriptive Statistics To summarise the sample's demographics, academic performance, and emotional intelligence situations, descriptive statistics similar as mean, standard divagation, and frequence distributions will be reckoned.

-deducible Statistics Pearson's correlation measure will be reckoned in order to probe the relationship between academic success and emotional intelligence. The direction and intensity of the association between the variables will be caught on by doing this. To compare the academic achievement and emotional intelligence of manly and womanish scholars, independent- samples ttests will be employed.

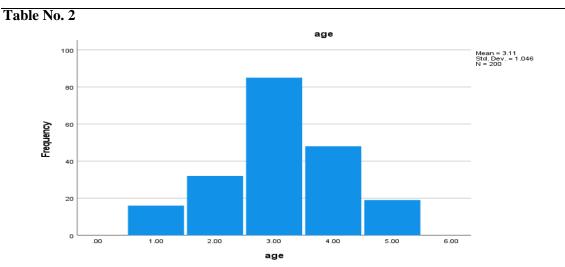
Retrogression Analysis Using maternal engagement, age, socioeconomic status, and other variables as controls, multiple retrogression analysis will be used to probe the relationship between academic achievement and emotional intelligence. Whether emotional intelligence is a major predictor of academic achievement and whether gender moderates this relationship will be ascertained with the aid of this investigation. - Gender Comparisons: An ANOVA will be used to compare the effects of gender on academic achievement in order to determine whether male and female students have different relationships between emotional intelligence and performance. This study will assist in locating any data trends that are specific to gender.

SPSS software will be used for all statistical studies, and to make interpretation easier, the results will be presented as tables and graphs. For every test, a significance level of p < 0.05 will be applied

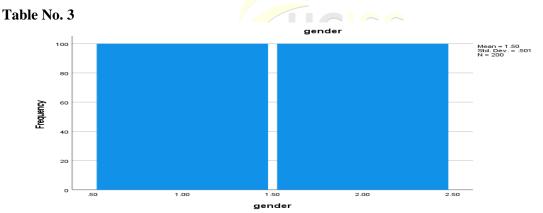
Table No.	1
-----------	---

Statistics						
		age	gender	Grade	School Type	Parental Involvement
N 7	Valid	200	200	200	200	200
2 v	Missing	4	4	4	4	4
Mean		3.1100	1.5000	1.6000	1.6000	2.5450
Median		3.0000	1.5000	2.0000	2.0000	3.0000
	Std. Deviation	1.04564	.50125	.49113	.49113	.59981

The data table provides descriptive statistics for five variables age, gender, grade, academy type, and maternal involvement, with each variable having 200 valid responses and 4 missing cases. The mean values suggest that the actors' periods are centered around the middle of the scale(mean = 3.1100), with an equal distribution between the two gender orders(mean = 1.5000). The mean values for grade and academy type(both = 1.6000) indicate a slight preference towards the advanced order within these variables. Maternal involvement, with a mean of 2.5450, appears to be moderate, leaning slightly towards advanced involvement. The standard values generally align with the means, attesting the central tendency of the data, particularly for age, gender, grade, and academy type. The standard diversions show that age has the most variability(1.04564), while gender, grade, and academy type parade lower variability, indicating a more invariant distribution of responses. Maternal involvement has moderate variability(0.59981), reflecting a range of involvement situations among parents. Overall, the data reflects balanced distributions for utmost variables, with age and maternal involvement showing further variability. The presence of 4 missing cases per variable should be considered in farther analysis to insure the delicacy and trustability of the findings.

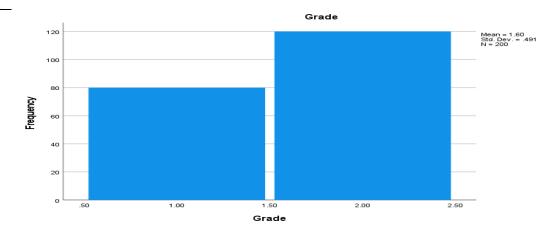


The graph presents the frequence distribution for the age variable among a sample of 204 actors. Of these, 200 handed valid responses, while 4 cases are missing, making up 2 of the total sample. The age distribution reveals that the maturity of actors are concentrated in the 10 and 11- time-old groups, with 42.5(85 actors) being 10 times old and 24(48 actors) being 11 times old. lower proportions of the sample are aged 8(8, 16 actors), 9(16, 32 actors), and 12(9.5, 19 actors). The accretive chance shows that 66.5 of the actors are aged 10 or youngish, and by the age of 11, 90.5 of the sample is reckoned for. The data indicates that the sample is generally made up of actors progressed 10 and 11, with smaller actors in the other age orders.



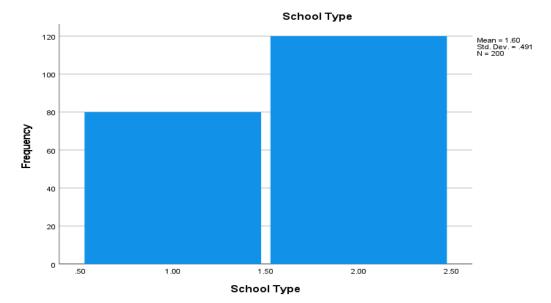
The gender variable's frequency distribution for a sample of 204 participants is shown in the table. Of them, 200 participants gave accurate answers; the remaining 4 cases, or 2% of the sample as a whole, are missing. With 100 male and 100 female responses, or 50% of the total valid responses, the two gender categories are equally represented in

the legitimate responses. According to the cumulative percentage, men make up 50% of the sample initially, and after adding females, the cumulative proportion rises to 100%. The sample's balanced representation of men and women is reflected in this even distribution.



The grade variable's frequency distribution for a sample of 204 participants is shown in the table. 200 of them gave accurate answers, and the remaining 4 cases, or 2% of the sample as a whole, are missing. Sixty percent (120 participants) of the valid responses are in Grade 5, and forty percent (80 participants) are in Grade 4. According to the

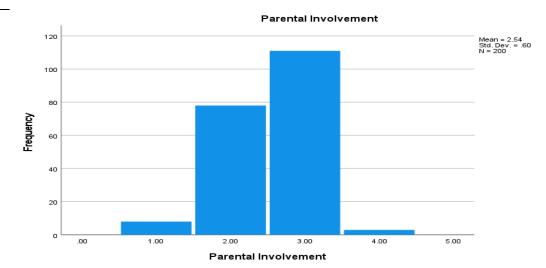
cumulative proportion, 40% of the sample is represented by the inclusion of Grade 4 students, and 100% is represented by the addition of Grade 5 students. With a 60-40 split between the two grades, this distribution shows that there are more Grade 5 pupils in the sample than Grade 4 kids.



The frequency distribution of the school type variable for a sample of 204 individuals is shown in the table. Out of them, 200 gave accurate answers, while 4 cases (or 2% of the sample as a whole) are missing. Of the legitimate responses, forty percent (80 participants) go to public schools, and sixty percent (120 participants) go to private schools. When private school kids are included, the

cumulative proportion rises to 100%. The cumulative percentage shows that public school pupils make up the first 40% of the sample. With a 60-40 split in favor of private schools over public schools, this distribution shows that a larger proportion of pupils in the sample attend private schools.

International Journal of Contemporary Issues in Social Sciences ISSN(P):2959-3808 | 2959-2461 Volume 3, Issue 3, 2024



The level of parental participation for a sample of 204 participants is displayed in the table. Among the valid responses, 4.0% of participants—or 3.9% of the total sample-said that their parents were "Very Involved" in their child's activities. The majority of valid replies (39.0%) indicated that parents were "Somewhat Involved," accounting for 38.2% of the total participants. Of the valid responses, 55.5% stated that the parents were "Not Involved," accounting for 54.4% of the sample as a whole. Furthermore, 1.5% of the legitimate answers were in the "4.00" group; this category was not further explained. There were 204 participants in total since 200 people gave valid answers and 4 participants (2.0%) were absent from the data.

Table	No. 7
-------	-------

Table No. 7						
Descriptive Statistics						
N Minimum Maximum Mean Std. Deviation						
age	200	1.00	5.00	3.1100	1.04564	
gender	200	1.00	2.00	1.5000	.50125	
Grade	200	1.00	2.00	1.6000	.49113	
School Type	200	1.00	2.00	1.6000	.49113	
Parental Involvement	200	1.00	4.00	2.5450	.59981	
Valid N (listwise)	200					

The 200-person study sample's descriptive statistics provide several important new findings. The ages of the participants were divided into five groups; the mean age category was 3.11, suggesting that the majority of the participants are in the middle age group. The age distribution exhibits moderate variance, as indicated by the standard deviation of 1.04564. With a mean of 1.50 and a standard deviation of 0.50125, gender is distributed evenly, indicating that there are almost equal numbers of male and female participants.

With regard to academic grade and school type, the majority of participants are slightly more concentrated in the categories classified as 2.00, as both variables display a mean of 1.60 with a standard deviation of 0.49113. This may indicate a little overrepresentation of a specific grade level and school type, which may be indicative of a particular group (private school, for example).

On a scale of 1 to 4, parental participation is examined. A mean score of 2.5450 indicates a moderate level of involvement among parents. There may be some variation in the level of parental involvement in their children's education, as indicated by the standard deviation of 0.59981.

Overall, the results indicate a gender distribution that is balanced, with modest trends toward higher grade and school type categories and moderate parental participation throughout the sample. Since all 200 cases were legitimate, the data for analysis was reliable and thorough.

Group Statistics					
	age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I can tell when I am feeling	8	16	3.7500	.44721	.11180
happy or sad.	9	32	3.7500	1.04727	.18513
I know what makes me feel	8	16	3.7500	.57735	.14434
better when I am upset.	9	32	3.6250	1.03954	.18377
When I get angry, I can calm	8	16	3.3750	.80623	.20156
myself down	9	32	3.5313	.94985	.16791
I can control my feelings even	8	16	3.6250	.61914	.15478
when I am frustrated	9	32	3.0000	1.13592	.20080
I can understand how my	8	16	3.6875	.94648	.23662
friends are feeling without them telling me	9	32	3.5938	1.07341	.18975
I help my friends when they are	8	16	3.5000	.89443	.22361
upset	9	32	3.8125	.99798	.17642
I keep working hard even when	8	16	3.2500	1.06458	.26615
things get difficult.	9	32	3.5000	.91581	.16189
I set goals for myself and try to	8	16	3.5000	.81650	.20412
achieve them	9	32	3.3438	1.03517	.18299
I am satisfied with my grades in	8	16	3.4375	1.15289	.28822
Mathematics	9	32	3.4688	1.13548	.20073
I am satisfied with my grades in	8	16	3.5000	.96609	.24152
Language Arts.	9	32	3.5000	.91581	.16189
I am satisfied with my grades in	8	16	2.1875	.91059	.22765
Science.	9	32	2.4063	1.07341	.18975
I feel confident about my	8	16	2.6250	.95743	.23936
I feel confident about my – overall academic performance.	9	32	2.3125	.89578	.15835

The table presents descriptive statistics for a sample of 200 participants, analyzing variables such as age, gender, grade, school type, and parental involvement.

- Age: The age variable has a mean of 3.11 and a standard deviation of 1.04564. Its values range from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00.

- Gender: The gender distribution is balanced, with a mean of 1.50 and a standard deviation of 0.50125, based on a coding system that has a minimum value of 1.00 and a maximum value of 2.00. - Grade: The grade variable has a mean of 1.60 and a standard deviation of 0.49113, and it likewise spans from 1.00 to 2.00.

- School Type: In a similar vein, the school type variable has a mean of 1.60 and a standard deviation of 0.49113. Its minimum and maximum values range from 1.00 to 2.00.

- Parental Involvement: Parental involvement ranges from 1.00 to 4.00, with a mean of 2.5450 and a standard deviation of 0.59981, indicating variability in the level of parental involvement among the participants.

All variables have valid data from 200 participants.

Table No. 8	Independen	t Samples Effec	et Sizes			
	I	Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower Upper		
	Cohen's d	.89685	.000	600	.600	
I can tell when I am feeling	Hedges' correction	.91182	.000	590	.590	
happy or sad.	Glass's delta	1.04727	.000	600	.600	
	Cohen's d	.91485	.137	465	.737	
I know what makes me feel	Hedges' correction	.93012	.134	457	.737	
better when I am upset.	Glass's delta	1.03954	.120	482	.720	
	Cohen's d	.90552	173	773	.430	
When I get angry, I can	Hedges' correction	.92063	170	760	.422	
calm myself down	Glass's delta	.94985	164	765	.438	
	Cohen's d	.99728	.627	.010	1.237	
I can control my feelings	Hedges' correction	1.01392	.616	.010	1.217	
even when I am frustrated	Glass's delta	1.13592	.550	069	1.161	
I can understand how my	Cohen's d	1.03374	.091	510	.691	
friends are feeling without	Hedges' correction	1.05098	.089	502	.679	
them telling me	Glass's delta	1.07341	.087	514	.687	
	Cohen's d	.96544	324	926	.282	
I help my friends when	Hedges' correction	.98154	318	910	.277	
they are upset	Glass's delta	.99798	313	916	.294	
	Cohen's d	.96684	259	860	.345	
I keep working hard even	Hedges' correction	.98297	254	846	.340	
when things get difficult.	Glass's delta	.91581	273	875	.333	
	Cohen's d	.96930	.161	441	.761	
I set goals for myself and	Hedges' correction	.98547	.159	433	.749	
try to achieve them	Glass's delta	1.03517	.151	452	.751	
	Cohen's d	1.14119	027	627	.573	
I am satisfied with my	Hedges' correction	1.16023	027	617	.564	
grades in Mathematics	Glass's delta	1.13548	028	627	.573	
x 1 00 1 1 1	Cohen's d	.93250	.000	600	.600	
I am satisfied with my	Hedges' correction	.94806	.000	590	.590	
grades in Language Arts.	Glass's delta	.91581	.000	600	.600	
x	Cohen's d	1.02317	214	814	.389	
I am satisfied with my	Hedges' correction	1.04024	210	801	.383	
grades in Science.	Glass's delta	1.07341	204	804	.400	
I feel confident about my	Cohen's d	.91634	.341	265	.943	
overall academic	Hedges' correction	.93162	.335	261	.928	
performance.	Glass's delta	.89578	.349	260	.952	

The table displays effect sizes together with point estimates and 95% confidence intervals for Cohen's d, Hedges' correction, and Glass's delta for a variety of statements on emotional and intellectual self-assessment. - Emotional Awareness ("I am able to identify my emotional states"): Although the effect size estimations (Cohen's d = 0.89685, Hedges' correction = 0.91182, Glass's delta = 1.04727) point to a moderate to large effect, there is no statistically significant difference between the confidence intervals, which range from -0.600 to

0.600.

Hedges' correction (0.93012), Cohen's d (0.91485), and Glass's delta (1.03954) all indicate a moderate effect in emotional regulation ("I know what makes me feel better when I am upset"). Confidence intervals range from -0.465 to 0.737, suggesting a possible positive effect but with some uncertainty. - Anger Management ("When I get angry, I can calm myself down"): The effect sizes (Cohen's d = 0.90552, Hedges' correction = 0.92063, Glass's delta = 0.94985) indicate a moderate effect, but with confidence intervals from -0.773 to 0.430, suggesting no significant difference.

- Frustration Control ("I can control my feelings even when I am frustrated"): Cohen's d (0.99728), Hedges' correction (1.01392), and Glass's delta (1.13592) suggest a large effect, with confidence intervals (0.010 to 1.237) indicating a statistically significant positive effect.

- Empathy ("I can understand how my friends are feeling without them telling me"): The effect sizes (Cohen's d = 1.03374, Hedges' correction = 1.05098, Glass's delta = 1.07341) show a large effect, but the confidence intervals (-0.510 to 0.691) suggest no significant difference.

- Helping Friends ("I help my friends when they are upset"): The effect sizes (Cohen's d = 0.96544, Hedges' correction = 0.98154, Glass's delta = 0.99798) suggest a moderate effect, but with confidence intervals (-0.926 to 0.282) indicating no significant difference.

- Perseverance ("I keep working hard even when things get difficult"): Cohen's d (0.96684), Hedges' correction (0.98297), and Glass's delta (0.91581) indicate a moderate effect, but with confidence intervals (-0.860 to 0.345) suggesting no significant difference.

- Goal Setting ("I set goals for myself and try to achieve them"): The effect sizes (Cohen's d = 0.96930, Hedges' correction = 0.98547, Glass's delta = 1.03517) suggest a moderate effect, with confidence intervals (-0.441 to 0.761) indicating no significant difference.

- Satisfaction with Math Grades: The effect sizes (Cohen's d = 1.14119, Hedges' correction = 1.16023, Glass's delta = 1.13548) show a large effect, but with confidence intervals (-0.627 to 0.573) indicating no significant difference.

- Satisfaction with Language Arts Grades: The effect sizes (Cohen's d = 0.93250, Hedges' correction = 0.94806, Glass's delta = 0.91581)

suggest a moderate effect, but the confidence intervals (-0.600 to 0.600) indicate no significant difference.

- Satisfaction with Science Grades: Cohen's d (1.02317), Hedges' correction (1.04024), and Glass's delta (1.07341) indicate a large effect, but with confidence intervals (-0.814 to 0.389) suggesting no significant difference.

- Overall Academic Confidence ("I feel confident about my overall academic performance"): The effect sizes (Cohen's d = 0.91634, Hedges' correction = 0.93162, Glass's delta = 0.89578) suggest a moderate effect, with confidence intervals (-0.265 to 0.943) indicating no significant difference.

Discussion

The discussion chapter offers a thorough knowledge of the impact of emotional intelligence on academic achievement among male and female primary school pupils by interpreting, analyzing, and integrating the study's findings with prior research. This segment looks at the results' inferences, compares them to earlier research, and hazards on possible reasons for any trends that may have been observed.

Conclusion

The study comes to the conclusion that a student's academic achievement in primary school is greatly influenced by their emotional intelligence. Students who can successfully regulate their emotions, set objectives, and maintain motivation perform better academically. Higher levels of emotional intelligence are linked to higher academic achievements. According to the study, gender also has an impact on this link, with female students benefiting more from better emotional intelligence in terms of their academic achievement.

Academic achievement is influenced by all three of the emotional intelligence pillars—emotional regulation, self-motivation, and emotional awareness—although the effects varied depending on the subject and the individual. There could be significant advantages to incorporating emotional intelligence training into the educational system, including enhanced academic achievement and general student wellbeing

Recommendations

Longitudinal studies would allow for the investigation of how emotional intelligence affects academic outcomes over time and throughout different developmental stages, which would be extremely beneficial for future research on emotional intelligence and academic performance. Furthermore, it is imperative to investigate the impact of emotional intelligence across various groups, encompassing varying demographic cultural and socioeconomic backgrounds, in order to comprehend the applicability of these results. It is also advised to conduct component-specific studies that concentrate on specific facets of emotional intelligence, such self-motivation and emotional control, in order to determine which components have the most influence on various academic disciplines.

Curriculum development that integrates emotional intelligence training for primary school pupils should be given priority in educational interventions. Activities and instruction targeted at improving emotional awareness, regulation, and self-motivation should be a part of these programs. In addition, teacher preparation is crucial because it gives instructors the skills and information they need to assist students' emotional growth and successfully incorporate emotional intelligence into their teaching methods.

From a policy standpoint, it is critical to support educational policies that support the integration of emotional intelligence in school curricula and acknowledge its importance in learning. Programs that teach parents the value of emotional intelligence and provide them the resources they need to assist their children's emotional development at home should also be implemented in order to promote parental engagement

REFERENCES

- Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., & Salovey, P. (2011). Emotional intelligence: Implications for personal, social, academic, and workplace success. Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 5(1), 88-103.
- Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D., & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of schoolbased universal interventions. Child Development, 82(1), 405-432.

- Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (1999). The origins of sex differences in human behavior: Evolved dispositions versus social roles. American Psychologist, 54(6), 408-423.
- Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ. Bantam Books.
- Humphrey, N., Curran, A., Morris, E., Farrell, P., & Woods, K. (2007). Emotional intelligence and education: A critical review. Educational Psychology, 27(2), 235-254.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence: Educational Implications (pp. 3-31). Basic Books.
- Petrides, K. V., Frederickson, N., & Furnham, A. (2004). The role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and deviant behavior at school. Personality and Individual Differences, 36(2), 277-293.
- Piaget, J. (1964). Cognitive development in children: Piaget. Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 2(3), 176-186.
- Qualter, P., Gardner, K. J., & Whiteley, H. E. (2007). Emotional intelligence: Review of research and educational implications. Pastoral Care in Education, 25(1), 11-20.
- Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., & Salovey, P. (2011). Emotional intelligence: Implications for personal, social, academic, and workplace success. Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 5(1), 88-103.
- Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29(9), 1147-1158.
- Brody, L. R., & Hall, J. A. (2008). Gender and emotion in context. In M. Lewis, J. M. Haviland-Jones, & L. F. Barrett (Eds.), Handbook of Emotions (3rd ed., pp. 395-408). Guilford Press.
- Castro-Schilo, L., & Kee, D. W. (2010). Gender differences in the self-defining activities and identity development of high school and college students. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 39(8), 882-898.
- Cherniss, C. (2010). Emotional intelligence: Toward clarification of a concept. Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 3(2), 110-126.
- Denham, S. A., Bassett, H. H., & Wyatt, T. (2012). The socialization of emotional competence. In J. Grusec & P. Hastings (Eds.), Handbook of Socialization: Theory and Research (2nd ed., pp. 611-634). Guilford Press.

- Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D., & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of schoolbased universal interventions. Child Development, 82(1), 405-432.
- Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (1999). The origins of sex differences in human behavior: Evolved dispositions versus social roles. American Psychologist, 54(6), 408-423.
- Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ. Bantam Books.
- Greenberg, M. T., Weissberg, R. P., O'Brien, M. U., Zins, J. E., Fredericks, L., Resnik, H., & Elias, M. J. (2003). Enhancing school-based prevention and youth development through coordinated social, emotional, and academic learning. American Psychologist, 58(6-7), 466-474.
- Halpern, D. F. (2012). Sex Differences in Cognitive Abilities (4th ed.). Psychology Press.
- Humphrey, N., Curran, A., Morris, E., Farrell, P., & Woods, K. (2007). Emotional intelligence and education: A critical review. Educational Psychology, 27(2), 235-254.
- Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010). Emotional intelligence: An integrative meta-analysis and cascading model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 95(1), 54-78.
- Mavroveli, S., & Sánchez-Ruiz, M. J. (2011). Trait emotional intelligence influences on academic achievement and school behavior. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 81(1), 112-134.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence: Educational Implications (pp. 3-31). Basic Books.
- Perera, H. N., & DiGiacomo, M. (2013). The relationship of trait emotional intelligence with academic performance: A meta-analytic review. Learning and Individual Differences, 28, 20-33.
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2001). Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies. European Journal of Personality, 15(6), 425-448.
- Petrides, K. V., Frederickson, N., & Furnham, A. (2004). The role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and deviant behavior at school. Personality and Individual Differences, 36(2), 277-293.
- Pianta, R. C. (2006). Teacher-student relationships and early school adaptation. In K. McCartney & D.

Phillips (Eds.), Blackwell Handbook of Early Childhood Development (pp. 199-212). Blackwell Publishing.

- Qualter, P., Gardner, K. J., & Whiteley, H. E. (2007). Emotional intelligence: Review of research and educational implications. Pastoral Care in Education, 25(1), 11-20.
- Qualter, P., Whiteley, H. E., Hutchinson, J. M., & Pope, D. J. (2009). Supporting the development of emotional intelligence competencies to ease the transition from school to university. Learning and Individual Differences, 19(3), 246-251.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. Imagination, Cognition and Personality, 9(3), 185-211.
- Stoet, G., & Geary, D. C. (2013). Sex differences in mathematics and reading achievement are inversely related: Within- and across-nation assessment of 10 years of PISA data. PLoS ONE, 8(3), e57988.
- Voyer, D., & Voyer, S. D. (2014). Gender differences in scholastic achievement: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 140(4), 1174-1204.
- Zeidner, M., Roberts, R. D., & Matthews, G. (2002). Can emotional intelligence be schooled? A critical review. Educational Psychologist, 37(4), 215-231.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Brackett, M. A., & Salovey, P. (2006). Measuring emotional intelligence with the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). Psicothema, 18, 34-41.
- Brody, L. R. (1999). Gender, emotion, and the family. Harvard University Press.
- Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D., & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of schoolbased universal interventions. Child Development, 82(1), 405-432.
- Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ. Bantam Books.
- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (2004). Emotional Intelligence: Science and Myth. MIT Press.
- Mestre, J. M., Guil, R., Lopes, P. N., Salovey, P., & Gil-Olarte, P. (2006). Emotional intelligence and social and academic adaptation to school. Psicothema, 18, 112-117.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. Imagination, Cognition and Personality, 9(3), 185-211.