

Social intelligence and self-esteem among working and non-working women

Dr. Hosamani Marilingappa^{1*}

ABSTRACT

The study was conducted on 100 women, working and non-working women (N=50 each) to measure the difference of social intelligence among working and non-working women, to measure the difference of self-esteem among working and non-working women, and to measure the correlation between social intelligence and self-esteem. The sample group which was selected validates the first hypothesis which states “There is significant difference in social intelligence among working and non-working women.” The group also validates the second hypothesis which states that “There is significant difference in self-esteem among working and non-working women.” The sample group does not validate the third hypothesis which states that “There is no significant difference between social intelligence and self-esteem among working and non-working women.” The groups reject the fourth hypothesis which states that “Social intelligence and self-esteem are high in working women than non-working women”

Keywords: *Social Intelligence, Self-Esteem*

Social Intelligence (SI) is the ability to get along well with others, and to get them to cooperate with you. Sometimes referred to simplistically as "people skills," SI includes an awareness of situations and the social dynamics that govern them and knowledge of interaction styles and strategies that can help a person achieve his or her objectives in dealing with others. It also involves a certain amount of self-insight and a consciousness of one's own perceptions and reaction patterns.

From the standpoint of interpersonal skills, Karl Albrecht classifies behavior toward others as falling somewhere on a spectrum between "toxic" effect and "nourishing" effect. Toxic behavior makes people feel devalued, angry, frustrated, guilty or otherwise inadequate. Nourishing behavior makes people feel valued, respected, affirmed, encouraged or competent. A continued pattern of toxic behavior indicates a low level of social intelligence - the inability to connect with people and influence them effectively. A continued pattern of nourishing behavior tends to make a person much more effective in dealing with others; nourishing behaviors are the indicators of high social intelligence.

¹Asst Prof of psychology, PG Coordinator, Maharani Women's Art's, Commerce and Management College
**Responding Author*

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IQ is largely what you are born with. Genetics play a large part. Social intelligence (SI), on the other hand, is mostly learned. SI develops from experience with people and learning from success and failures in social settings. It is more commonly referred to as “tact,” “common sense,” or “street smarts.”

Professor Gardner has proposed various categories of intelligence over the years of his research, typically suggesting seven of them. Inasmuch as he and others have recently been rearranging the categories and in some cases debating about how many intelligences we have, Karl Albrecht has taken the liberty of recasting them into a simpler model which is useful in business and professional settings. According to Karl Albrecht's simplified interpretation, we can think of human beings as having six primary dimensions of intelligence (**A.S.P.E.A.K.**):

	DIMENSION	INVOLVES
A	Abstract	Conceptual reasoning, manipulating verbal, mathematical & symbolic information.
S	Social	Interacting successfully with others in various contexts.
P	Practical	"Common sense" capabilities; the ability to solve problems & get things done.
E	Emotional	Self-insight & the ability to regulate or manage one's reactions to experience.
A	Aesthetic	Appreciation of form, design and relationships.
K	Kinesthetic	Whole-body competence, e.g. singing, dancing, flying an airplane.

Self-Esteem

In psychology, the term self-esteem is used to describe a person's overall sense of self-worth or personal value. In other words, how much you appreciate and like yourself.

- Self-esteem is often seen as a personality trait, which means that it tends to be stable and enduring.
- Self-esteem can involve a variety of beliefs about yourself, such as the appraisal of your own appearance, beliefs, emotions, and behaviors.

Importance of Self-Esteem

Self-esteem can play a significant role in your motivation and success throughout your life. Low self-esteem may hold you back from succeeding at school or work because you don't believe yourself to be capable of success. By contrast, having a healthy self-esteem can help you achieve because you navigate life with a positive, assertive attitude and believe you can accomplish your goals.

Self-Esteem Theories

The need for self-esteem plays an important role in psychologist Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which depicts self-esteem as one of the basic human motivations. Maslow suggested that people need both esteem from other people as well as inner self-respect. Both of these needs must be fulfilled in order for an individual to grow as a person and achieve self-actualization.

It is important to note that self-esteem is a concept distinct from self-efficacy, which involves how well you believe you'll handle future actions, performance, or abilities.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

1. Goleman's (2006) definition divides social intelligence into two broad categories: social awareness and social facility. He defined social awareness as "what we sense about others" and defined social facility as "what we then do with that awareness" (2006). Several studies have shown that social intelligence is multidimensional and distinguishable from general intelligence domains (Jones & Day, 1997; Marlowe, 1986; Weis & Süb, 2007; Wong, Day, Maxwell & Meara, 1995). These concepts of social intelligence are incorporating internal and external perceptions, social skills, and other psychosocial variables (Taylor, 1990). Instruments used in these studies range from self-reports, peer or other ratings, use of behavioral criterion, and performance measures. Goleman has argued that to fully understand social intelligence requires us to include "non-cognitive" aptitudes—"the talent, for instance, that lets a sensitive nurse calm a crying toddler with just the right reassuring touch, without having to think for a moment about what to do" (2006).
2. Weis and Süb (2007) showed that social understanding and social knowledge were separate constructs of social intelligence. Additionally, their model showed support for existence of an underlying general social intelligence and possibly a hierarchical model of social intelligence.
3. Willmann, Fedlt and Amelang (1997) said that native Chinese subjects viewed supporting harmony and restoring equilibrium between individuals as acts of being socially intelligent, whereas German subjects identified obtaining one's goals, supporting values defined by society as a whole, and being able to influence others. The Chinese subjects had also interpreted social desirability (behaving or reacting according to the expectations of others) and social engagement (involvement with others) to be more socially intelligent; the German subjects did not. These findings argue that "social intelligence and the manifestations of social intelligence in specific aspects of human interaction appear to be dependent upon culture" (Willmann et al., 1997)
4. Self-esteem Bandura, known for his social cognitive theory (1986) as well as for his self-efficacy theory (1999), argued that individuals' beliefs regulate human functioning through four major processes, including cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes. According to Bandura, individuals can motivate themselves by thinking they are powerful, strong, and good. The exercise of forethought of positive evaluation of themselves can drive individuals to do well at work, at school, and at other places. For instance, the California Task Force to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility reports that self-esteem empowers individuals to live responsibly and prevent the individuals from numerous social ills, including crimes, substance abuse, child abuse, welfare dependency, and educational failure (1999).
5. Rosenberg (1981) suggested that maintaining and enhancing self-esteem may be accomplished in several ways. When individuals have a low self-esteem, they may act in ways that increase it so that they feel better and more satisfied. Another way is for individuals to redefine situations, generating a new, more positive impression of them. Still another way to enhance self-esteem is through association with individuals that validate and confirm one's positive identity (Swann, 1990).
6. In developing a new approach to building self-esteem for elementary and middle school students, Bean (1992) suggested that there are four conditions which make up children's self-esteem: the sense of connectivity, the sense of uniqueness, the sense of power, and the sense

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Koper & Collaco of models. Bean pointed out that children with high self-esteem tend to be “proud of their accomplishments, act independently, assume responsibility easily, tolerate frustration, and approach new challenges with enthusiasm and feel capable of influencing others”. Children with low self-esteem “tend to avoid situations that stimulate fear or anxiety, demean their own talents, feel disliked and unwanted, blame others for their failures, are overly influenced by others, become easily frustrated and feel powerless”.

7. Research suggests that a positive self-evaluation leads to successful interpersonal relationships (Sternberg & Vroom, 2002). When individuals value themselves, they tend to contribute more to their interpersonal relationships. When individuals have a low self-esteem, they tend to be more defensive and contribute less to their relationships (Kernis, Paradise, Whitaker, Wheatman, & Goldman, 2000).
8. Acceptance in social relations also differs between high self-esteem and low self-esteem individuals. When individuals feel confident in themselves, they feel accepted by others, regardless of success or failure; whereas, when individuals have a low self-esteem, their feeling of belonging is conditional based upon their success or failure (Baldwin, Baccus, & Fitzsimons, 2004). Furthermore, individuals with a low self-esteem appear to be more sensitive to rejection and sometimes perceive rejection where it does not exist (Koch, 2002).
9. paves the way for satisfaction of higher order needs ... the satisfaction of higher order needs, or the acquisition of competence in satisfying those needs, contributes to the satisfaction of lower order needs. Thus new competence, especially in human relations, which improves self-esteem, should help the individual with his other esteem needs as well as his love, security, and physiological needs (Fitts, 1970). He presented a Wheel Model which is intended to clarify ways in which people can improve their interpersonal competence, and thus increase self-esteem and move toward self-actualization, even before the satisfaction of lower order needs.
10. Sembian, R and Visvanathan, G (2012) A study on social intelligence of college students. The study was intended to find out the social intelligence of college students in Cuddalore, Villupuram, Nagapattinam, Thanjore, vellore and Thiruvannamalai Districts of Tamil Nadu, India. Random Sampling Technique was used to compose a sample of 1050 college students Mean, Standard Deviation and t value were calculated for the analysis of data. The result revealed that the locality, type of family and type of colleges had no significant difference but, gender and type of institution exhibited significant difference in respect of their social intelligence of college students.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Aim: to study social intelligence and self-esteem among working and non-working women

Objectives

The main objectives of study is to,

1. Measure the difference of social intelligence among working and non-working women.
2. Measure the difference of self-esteem among working and non-working women.
3. Measure the correlation between social intelligence and self-esteem.

Hypothesis

1. There is significant difference in social intelligence among working and non-working women.

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2. There is significant difference in self-esteem among working and non-working women.
3. There is no significant difference between social intelligence and self-esteem among working and non-working women.
4. Social intelligence and self-esteem are high in working women than non-working women.

Variables

1. Dependent variable: Social intelligence and Self-esteem
2. Independent variable: Employment status

Sample

The sample consisted of 100 women of which 50 were working and 50 were Non-working. The samples were residents of Bangalore city.

Inclusion criteria:

1. Female adults were selected for the study.
2. Age of the adults ranged between 22-50 years
3. Samples were residents of Bangalore city.
4. Samples fluent in English, Kannada and Hindi languages.

Exclusion Criteria

1. Samples from rural Bangalore were not considered for the study.
2. Male samples were not considered.
3. Samples from outside Bangalore were not considered for the study.

Research Design

A between group research design with purposive sampling was considered for the study.

Tools

Social intelligence scale

Social intelligence of the subjects was assessed through Chadha and Ganesan's (1986) social intelligence scale (SIS). SIS is a group test designed to measure the social intelligence. The test consists of eight independent dimensions.

The description of 8 dimensions is given below:

1. Patience - Calms endurance under stressful situation.
2. Cooperativeness - Ability to interact with others in a pleasant way: to be able to view matters from all angles.
3. Confidence - Firm trust in oneself.
4. Sensitivity - To be accurately aware of and responsive to human behavior.
5. Recognition of social environment - Ability to perceive the nature and atmosphere of the existing situation.
6. Tactfulness - Delicate perception of the right thing to say or do.
7. Sense of humor - Capacity to feel and cause amusement; to be able to see the lighter side of life.
8. Memory - Ability to remember all relevant issues: names and face of people.

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The split-half reliability co-efficient of different dimensions of the scale range between .89 and .96. The test-retest reliability co-efficient ranges from .84 to .97 in "the sample of 150 subjects.

The validity of the test has been computed in terms of empirical validity and cross validity. For empirical validity, author's used "social intelligence test" by Moss and Hunt (N=50). The total scores of SIS have been found highly correlated with SIT i.e. .70. The cross validity of the test range between .75 and .95. Thus the scale may be taken as a fair measure of social intelligence.

The six dimensions (patience, cooperativeness, confidence and sensitivity, sense of humor and recognition of social environment) scores of 1, 2 and 3 indicate a degree of confidence; hence a score of 1 indicates lack of confidence. In the other two dimensions (sense of humor and recognition of social environment). Subject has to choose one of the three alternatives; thus one score is awarded. In case of the tactfulness dimension the response was in the form of 'yes' or 'no'. The appropriate response was awarded a score of 1. The last dimension that memory was scored '1' or '0' depending on whether or not the subject's response was right or wrong. A high score indicates high social intelligence.

Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSE)

The **Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSES)**, developed by sociologist Dr. Morris Rosenberg,^[1] is a self-esteem measure widely used in social-science research. It uses a scale of 0-30 where a score less than 15 may indicate a problematic low self esteem.

The RSES is designed similar to the social-survey questionnaires. It is ten-item Likert-type scales with items answered on a four-point scale—from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Five of the items have positively worded statements and five have negatively worded ones. The scale measures state self-esteem by asking the respondents to reflect on their current feelings. The original sample for which the scale was developed consisted of 5,024 high-school juniors and seniors from 10 randomly selected schools in New York State. The Rosenberg self-esteem scale is considered a reliable and valid quantitative tool for self-esteem assessment.

Reliability: Internal consistency for the RSE range from 0.77 to 0.88. Test-retest reliability for the RSE range from 0.82 to 0.85.

Validity: Criterion validity = 0.55

Construct validity = correlated with anxiety (- 0.64), depression (- 0.54), and anomie (- 0.43).

Scores are calculated as follows:

- For items 1, 2, 4, 6, and 7:
 - Strongly agree = 3
 - Agree = 2
 - Disagree = 1
 - Strongly disagree = 0
- For items 3, 5, 8, 9, and 10 (which are reversed in valence):
 - Strongly agree = 0
 - Agree = 1

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Disagree = 2

Strongly disagree = 3

The scale ranges from 0-30. Scores between 15 and 25 are within normal range; scores below 15 suggest low self-esteem.

Procedure

The sample consisted of 100 adult women. Those who volunteered for the study were administered the social intelligence scale and Rosenberg self-esteem scale. The participants were assured that the data collected from them would be kept confidential and used for academic purpose only. The collected data were scored as per the author's norms.

Data Analysis

The obtained data were scored using the SPSS. Descriptive statistics of mean, standard deviation and 't' were used.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table – 1 Classification of Respondents by Age and Education N=100

Characteristics	Category	Respondents				χ^2 Test
		Working women (n=50)		Non-Working women (n=50)		
		N	%	N	%	
Age (years)	≤ 30	18	36.0	6	12.0	14.77*
	31-40	20	40.0	14	28.0	
	41-50	12	24.0	30	60.0	
Education	SSLC	3	6.0	11	22.0	10.39*
	PUC	9	18.0	7	14.0	
	Graduate	26	52.0	29	58.0	
	Post graduate	12	24.0	3	6.0	
Total		50	100.0	50	100.0	

* Significant at 5% level, NS: Non-significant

Table 1 shows the age and qualification of the respondents. Results indicate that (36%) Working Women and (12 %) Non-working women fall under the age of 30 years and below and (40 %) Working Women and (28%) Non-working women belong to the age group 31 to 40 years , followed by (24 %) Working Women and (60 %) Non-working women fall under the age of 41 to 50 years . (24%) Working women and (36 %) non-working women are not graduates whereas (52%) working women and (58%) Non-working women are graduates, followed by (24 %) working women and (6 %) Non-working women who are post graduates.

The data subjected to statistical analysis indicates that the difference in the age of working women and Non-working women was found to be significant ($x^2 = 14.77^*$) . Most of the working women belonged to the age group 31 to 40 years whereas most Non-working women belonged to the age group 41 to 50 years. Hence it can be seen that young adults are majorly socially aware. There can be seen significance ($x^2 = 10.39^*$) among the education of working women and Non-working women. Working women are comparatively more educationally qualified than Non-working women.

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Table – 2 Showing the Mean, SD, ‘t’ scores in different dimensions among working and non-working women on social intelligence scale by DR.N.K. CHADHA and MS.USHA GANESAN N = 100

No.	DIMENSIONS	Response				‘t’ Test
		Working Women (n=50)		Non- Working Women (n=50)		
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
I	PATIENCE	18.5	2.7	26.9	6.1	9.72*
II	COOPERATIVENESS	20.0	6.3	28.60	7.7	6.11*
III	CONFIDENCE	29.49	5.0	27.05	5.6	2.30*
IV	SENSITIVITY	19.23	4.5	22.42	6.9	2.74*
V	RECOGNITION OF SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT	31.8	10.7	49.8	13.3	7.46*
VI	TACTFULNESS	14.55	2.78	15.80	2.60	26.74*
VII	SENSE OF HUMOR	5.10	3.4	11.85	7.1	6.60*
VIII	MEMORY	33.4	8.2	40.1	6.9	4.42*

* Significant at 5% level,

$t (0.05, 98df) = 1.96$

Table 2 shows the Mean, SD, ‘t’ scores in different dimensions among working and non-working women on social intelligence scale of the respondents . The data subjected to statistical analysis indicates that the difference in the Patience, Cooperativeness, Confidence, Sensitivity, Recognition of social environment, Tactfulness, Sense of humor and Memory of working and non-working women was found to be significant ($t = 9.72 , 6.11 , 2.30 , 2.74 , 7.46 , 26.74 , 6.60 , 4.42$ respectively)

Most of the working women had lower patience and Cooperativeness when compared to the non-working women, making them weigh less than the non-working women.

Patience

In the dimension of patience, the mean score obtained by working women is 18.5, and by non-working women is 26.9. The SD for working women is 2.7 and 6.1 for non-working women respectively. The obtained ‘t’ value is 9.72 which is significant at 0.05 level indicating that there is a significant difference with regard to patience among working women and non-working women.

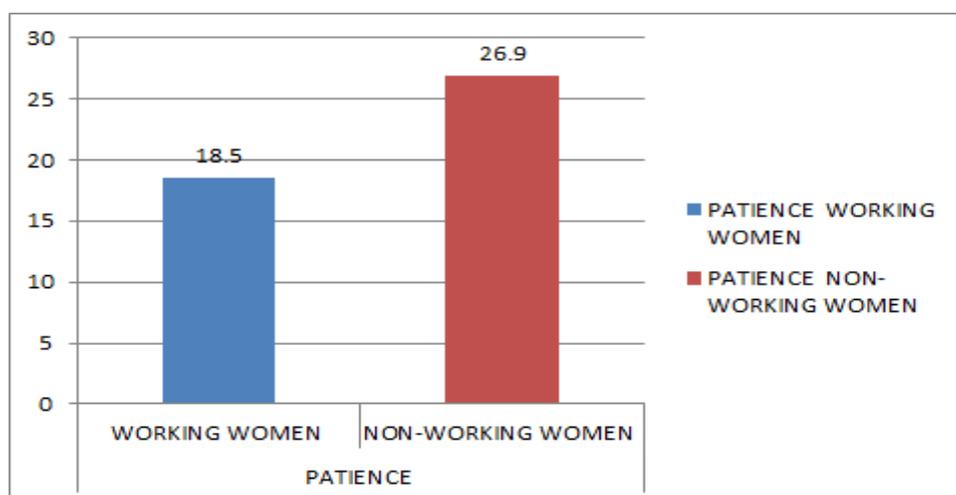


Figure 1. Comparison of patience of the working and non-working women Cooperativeness

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In the dimension of cooperativeness, the mean score obtained by working women is 20.0, and by non-working women is 28.60. The SD for working women is 6.3 and 7.7 for non-working women respectively. The obtained 't' value is 6.11 which is significant at 0.05 level indicating that there is a significant difference with regard to cooperativeness among working women and non-working women.

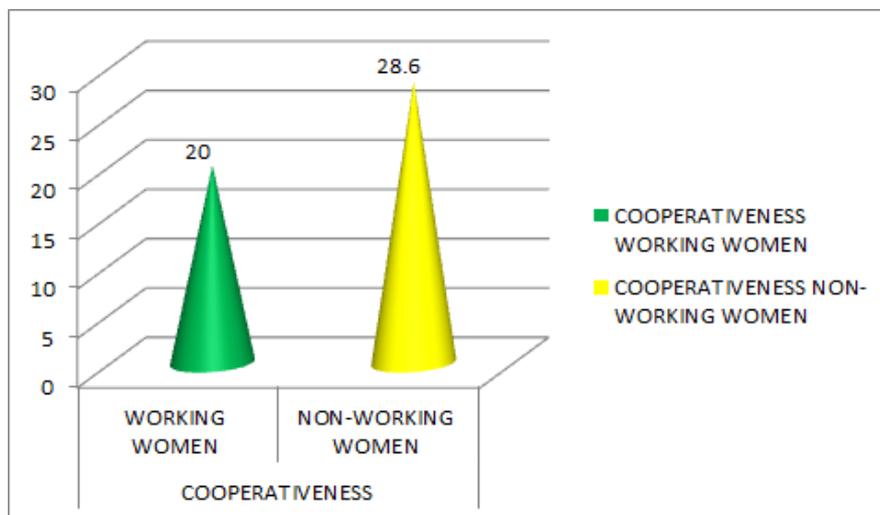


Figure 2. Comparison of cooperativeness of the working and non-working women

Confidence

In the dimension of confidence, the mean score obtained by working women is 29.49, and by non-working women is 27.05. The SD for working women is 5.0 and 5.6 for non-working women respectively. The obtained 't' value is 2.30 which is significant at 0.05 level indicating that there is a significant difference with regard to confidence among working women and non-working women.

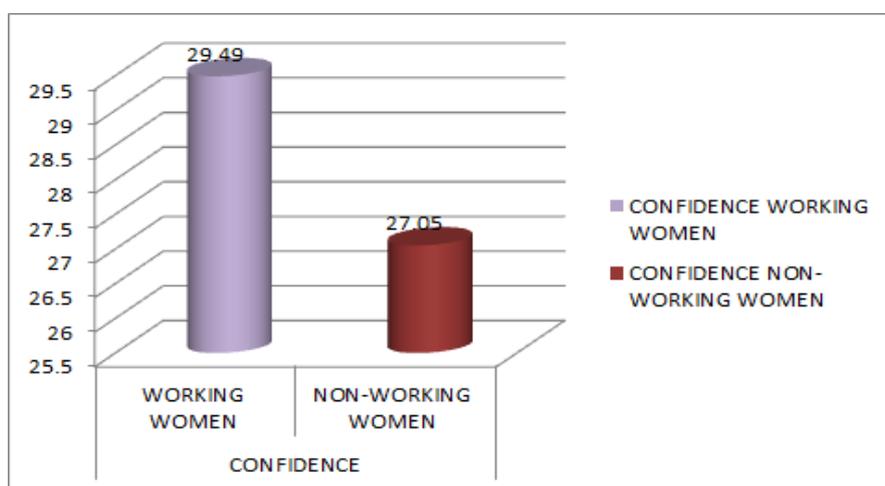


Figure 3. Comparison of confidence of the working and non-working women

Sensitivity

In the dimension of sensitivity, the mean score obtained by working women is 19.23, and by non-working women is 22.42. The SD for working women is 4.5 and 6.9 for non-working women respectively. The obtained 't' value is 2.74 which is significant at 0.05 level

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indicating that there is a significant difference with regard to sensitivity among working women and non-working women.

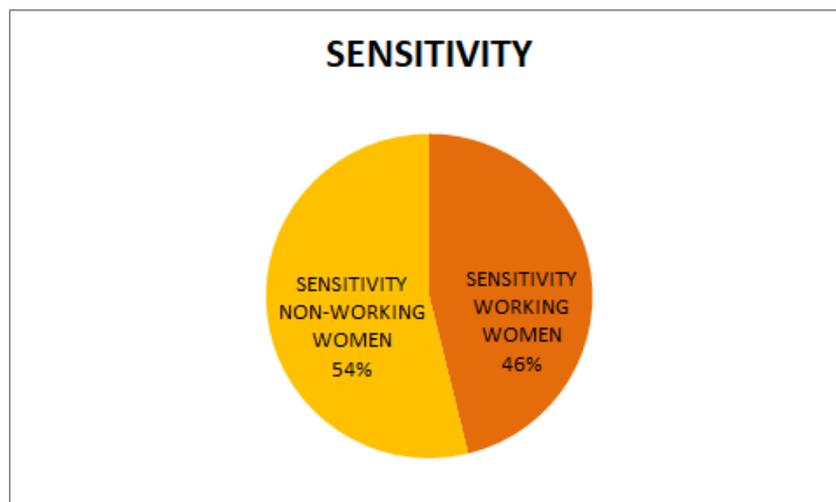


Figure 4. Comparison of sensitivity of the working and non-working women

Recognition Of Social Environment

In the dimension of recognition of social environment, the mean score obtained by working women is 31.8, and by non-working women is 49.8. The SD for working women is 10.7 and 13.3 for non-working women respectively. The obtained 't' value is 7.46 which is significant at 0.05 level indicating that there is a significant difference with regard to recognition of social environment among working women and non-working women.

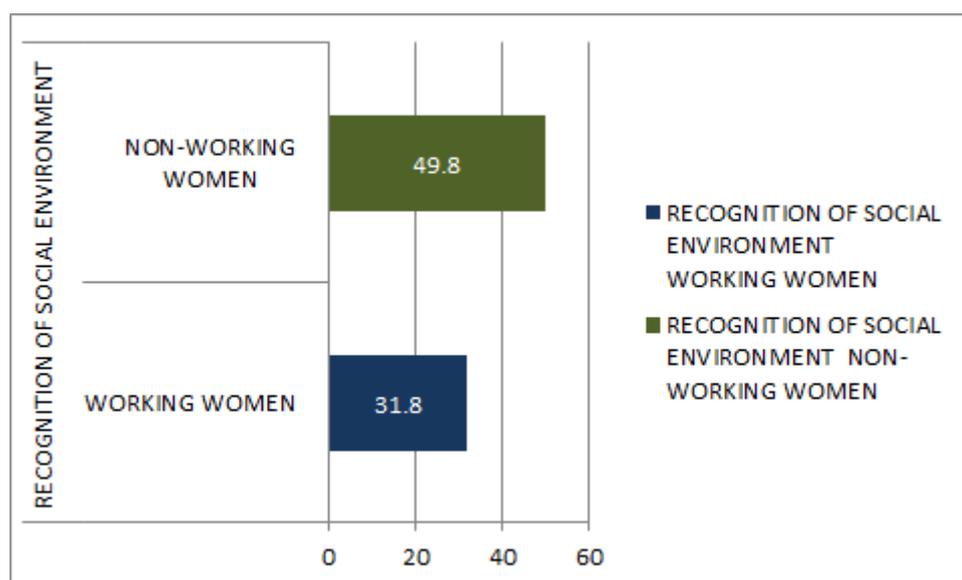


Figure 5. Comparison of recognition of social environment of the working and non-working women

Tactfulness

In the dimension of tactfulness, the mean score obtained by working women is 14.55, and by non-working women is 15.80. The SD for working women is 2.78 and 2.60 for non-working

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women respectively. The obtained 't' value is 26.74 which is significant at 0.05 level indicating that there is a significant difference with regard to tactfulness among working women and non-working women.

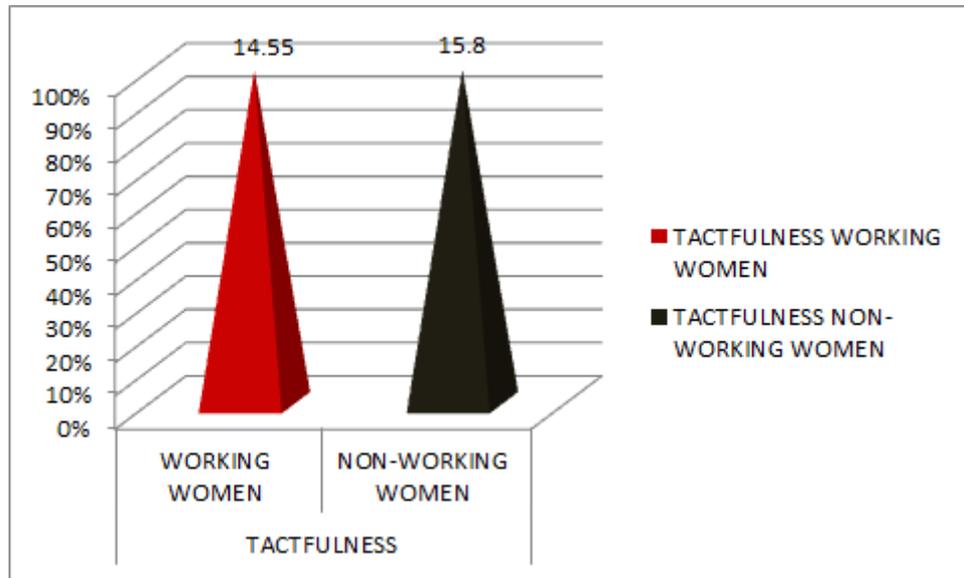


Figure 6. Comparison of tactfulness of the working and non-working women

Sense Of Humor

In the dimension of sense of humor, the mean score obtained by working women is 5.10, and by non-working women is 11.85. The SD for working women is 3.4 and 7.1 for non-working women respectively. The obtained 't' value is 6.60 which is significant at 0.05 level indicating that there is a significant difference with regard to sense of humor among working women and non-working women.

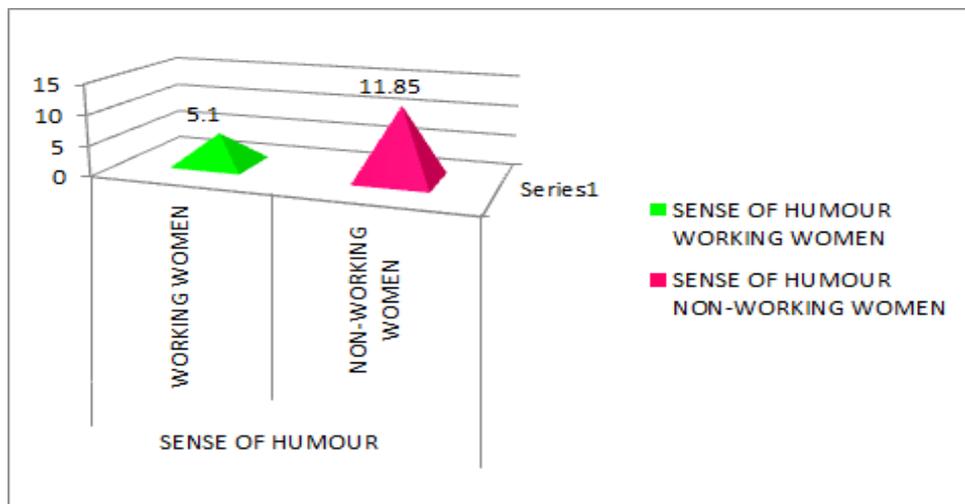


Figure 7. Comparison of sense of humor of the working and non-working women

Memory

In the dimension of memory, the mean score obtained by working women is 33.4, and by non-working women is 40.1. The SD for working women is 8.2 and 6.9 for non-working

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women respectively. The obtained 't' value is 4.42 which is significant at 0.05 level indicating that there is a significant difference with regard to memory among working women and non-working women

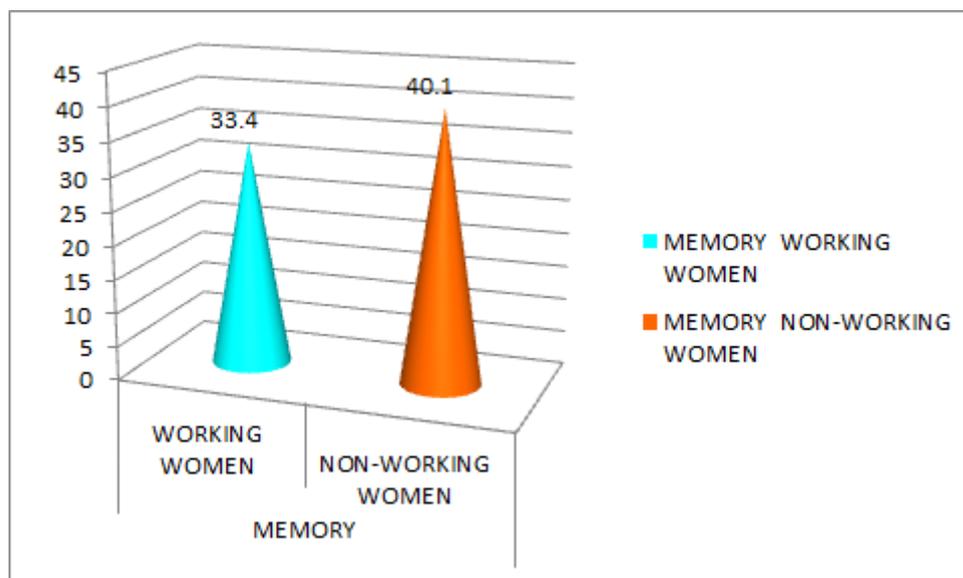


Figure 8. Comparison of memory of the working and non-working women

Table 3 Showing the Mean, SD, 't' among working and non-working women on social intelligence scale by CHADHA and GANESAN

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	't'
Working Women	50	21.50	5.44	5.022**
Non-working women	50	27.81	7.02	

**Significant at 0.01 level

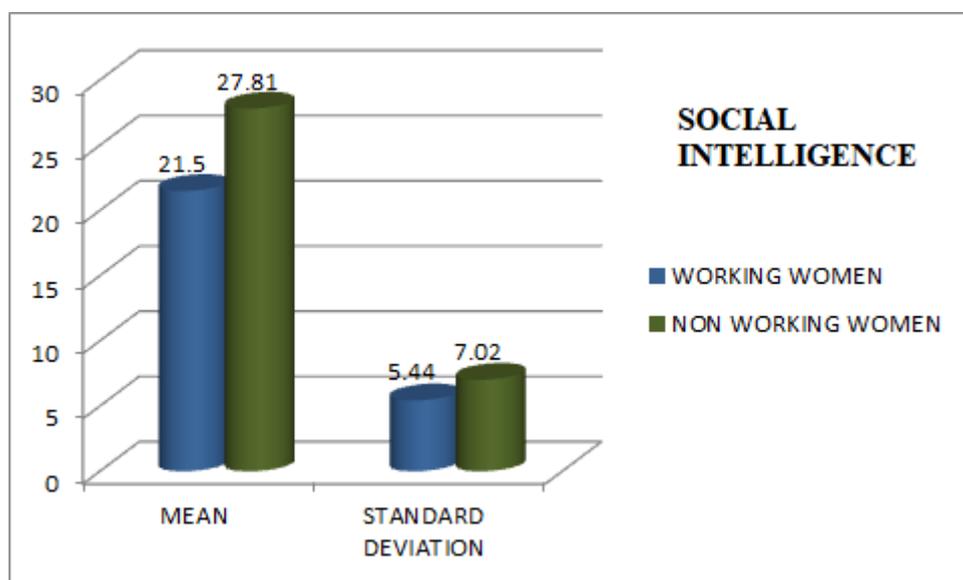


Figure 9. Comparison of social intelligence of working and non-working women

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Table 3 shows the mean, SD, and 't' values on the social intelligence among working and non-working women. The mean score obtained by working women is 21.50, and by non-working women is 27.81. The SD for working women is 5.44 and 7.02 for non-working women respectively. The obtained 't' value is 5.022 which is significant at 0.01 level indicating that there is a significant difference with regard to Social intelligence among working women and non-working women.

Table 4 Showing the Mean, SD, 't' among working and non-working women on self-esteem scale by ROSENBERG.

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	't'
Working Women	50	16.41	6.51	2.20**
Non-working women	50	18.01	4.86	

**Significant at 0.01 level

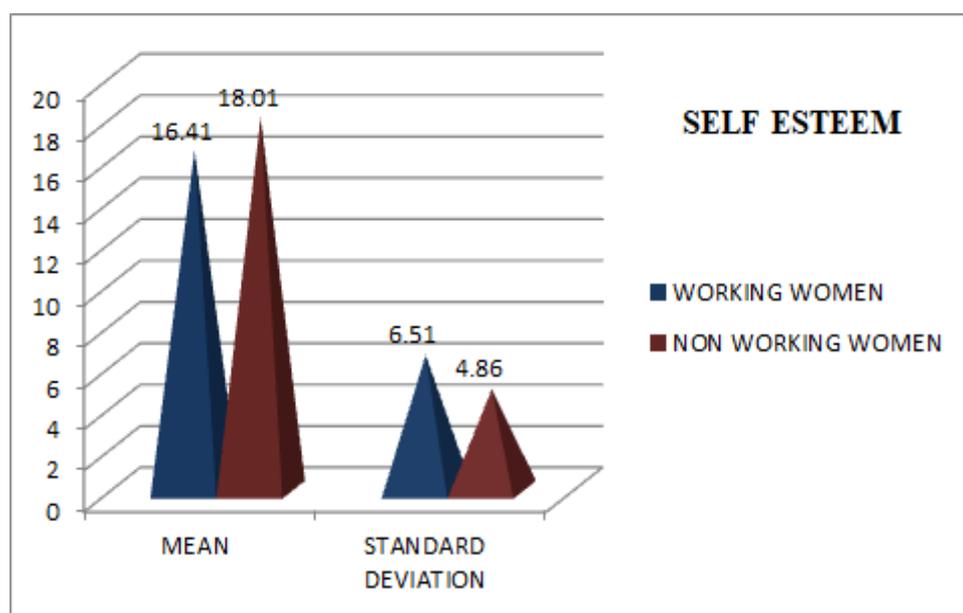


Figure 10. Comparison of self-esteem of working and non-working women

Table 4 shows the mean, SD, and 't' values on the self-esteem among working and non-working women. The mean score obtained by working women is 16.41, and by non-working women is 18.01. The SD for working women is 6.51 and 4.86 for non-working women respectively. The obtained 't' value is 2.20 which is significant at 0.01 level indicating that there is a significant difference with regard to Self-esteem among working women and non-working women.

Table 5 Showing the correlation between social intelligence and self-esteem

Group	N	SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE	SELF ESTEEM	'R' CORRELATION FACTOR
Working Women	50	21.50	16.41	0.9962***
Non-working women	50	27.81	18.01	

***POSITIVE CORRELATION ACCORDING TO PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

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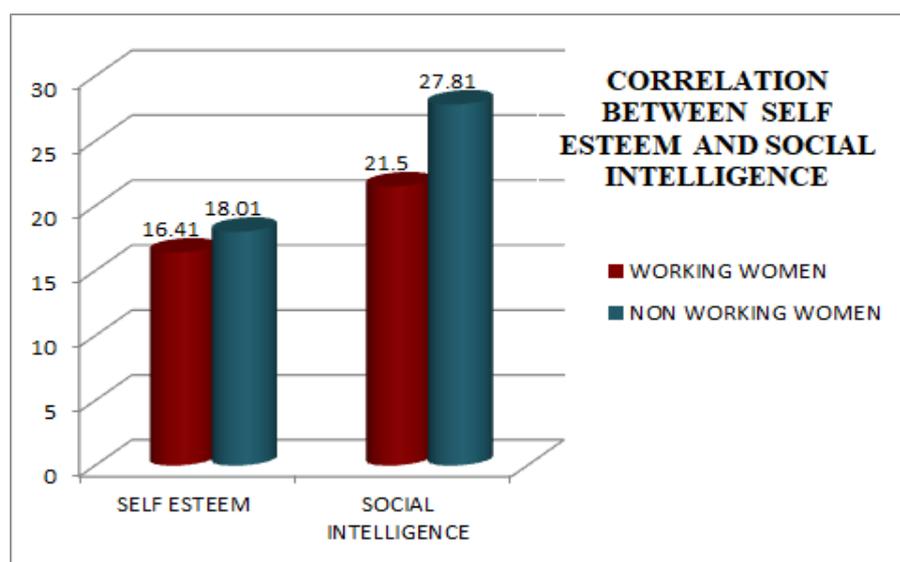


Figure 11. Correlation between social intelligence and self-esteem

Table 5 shows the correlation between social intelligence and self-esteem using Pearson's correlation method. According to Pearson's correlation method there is a positive correlation between social intelligence and self-esteem; if social intelligence is high self-esteem will be high vice versa.

CONCLUSION

1. The results showed that there is significant difference in social intelligence among working and non-working women.
2. The results revealed that there is a significant difference in self-esteem among working and non-working women.
3. The obtained results showed that there is a positive correlation between social intelligence and self-esteem.

Limitations

1. The size of the sample was restricted to 100 women working and non-working.
2. The sample was restricted to Bangalore city only
3. Generalization of the findings cannot be made due to small sample size

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Conflict of Interest

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