Aspects of Emotional Intelligence

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By

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Dedicated to
my beloved father, the late Anwar Hussain;
and my dear mother, Mokina Khatoon

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

*	Significant at the .05 Level
**	Significant at the .01 Level
AD	Attainment Discrepancy
AGR	Assumed Growth Rate
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
B.ED	Bachelor of Education
CCS	Chaudhary Charan Singh
DF	Degree of Freedom
DPBS	Durga Prashad Baljeet Singh
E	Eta Coefficient
EARS	Emotional Accuracy Research Scale
ECI	Emotional Competence Inventory
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EIS	Emotional Intelligence Scale
EISC	Emotional Intelligence Scale for Children
EQ	Emotional Quotient
EQI	Emotional Quotient Inventory
G	General Ability
G.D.	Goal Discrepancy
GA	Ghazala Ansari
IO	Industrial Organization
IP	Ishwar Dayal Parsandi Devi
IQ	Intelligent Quotient
LACT	Level of Aspiration Coding Test
MS	Mean Square
MSCEIT	Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test
N	Number
NCERT	National Council of Educational Research and Training
NCF	National Curriculum Framework
NCFTE	National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education
NCTE	National Council for Teacher Education
NS	Not Significant
SCRS	Self-Concept Rating Scale

SD	Standard Deviation
SEI	Social Emotional Intelligence
SMCL	Shiv Mandir Chhuttan Lal
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
SS	Sum of Squares
SSRI	Schutte Self-Report Inventory
TMMS	Trait Meta Mood Scale
YV	Youth Version

FOREWORD

Emotional intelligence and education are intricately connected. The concept of emotional intelligence is connected with public affairs and also with teachers and students in the classroom. The ability to be aware of one's own emotion and emotional status, constitutes a skill fundamental to the key features of emotional intelligence and is related to impulse control, persistence, self-motivation, empathy, and social deftness. Emotional awareness is conceptualized as being the domain of cognitive development that unfolds in a manner parallel to that of intelligence in the usual cognitive sense. Empathy is seen as being fundamental to emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions; to access and generate emotions and emotional knowledge; and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth. It precedes and enables cognitive processes and skills by providing an accurate understanding of team and team member emotions and needs. The emotional understanding improves cognitive skills, pattern recognition, and perspective taking. If a teacher has the knowledge of empathy, they can understand the emotions of their students. When a teacher understands their student's emotions, they may take appropriate decision sat the right time to solve problems skilfully and deftly. The training of teachers is necessary for contributing towards the establishment of effective teaching learning processes by means of the proper use of pedagogy. Emotional intelligence is an important part of teacher training courses—courses which should enable teachers to understand the emotions of their students. It is a basic and reliable resource for promoting effective teaching and facilitating the proper development of their students' personalities.

The four main objectives of this book are (1) to encourage teacher training programs to incorporate EI principles and (2) to prioritize helping student-teachers understand the significant importance of providing an EI-informed pedagogy—with the goal that (3) student-teachers go on to incorporate EI-based best practices into their own teaching and (4) that future research assesses the potential benefits of doing so"?

I am thankful to Professor K.P. Pandey for his proper guidance and suggestions in completing this work.

Dr. Jawed Ahmad

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Dr. Jawed Ahmad

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The study of emotion has had a long and fragmented history (Plutchik, 1994). The scientific study of emotion predates "the formal birth of psychology with the writings of Charles Darwin (1872-1965)" as observed by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996). Emotion was also evident in the early writings of the so-called fathers of psychology William James and Wilhelm Wundt. However, objectivity and reason have been the designated rulers of western philosophy, religion, and science since the days of Socrates, the Greek philosopher, who developed the question-and answer method of teaching (Solomon 1993). Meanwhile, passions and emotions have been viewed with some contempt. Solomon challenges this stance by pleading that our passions are the soul of our existence – the source of our interests; our purpose – enticing us and drawing us forward. In addition, Ellsworth (1994) argued with cogency that the study of emotion has again become a topic to be pursued with vigour.

According to LeDoux (1998), emotions happen to us rather than emotions being a result of our willingness for them to occur. Hence, as is commonly perceived, we have little direct control over our emotional reactions. Conscious control over our emotions is weak—and emotion readily floods consciousness states (LeDoux, 1998). This ensures our evolution; the human brain is wired so that the connections from the emotional to the cognitive system are stronger than from the cognitive to the emotional system (Bennet-Goleman, 2002). Emotion significantly assists us in decision-making. It influences learning and memory and motivates critical action when called by appropriate environmental cues. It is, therefore, important to consider the role of emotions in the workplace, especially with respect to organizational behaviour.

It may be noted, from the very outset, that the construct of emotions is difficult to define—because an emotional reaction, rather than being a single reaction, constitutes a constellation of reactions to an event. Frijda

(1993) mentions the following essential components of what comprises an emotional reaction:

- An experiential component, in which feelings have an emotional, non-cognitive element, resulting from the cognitive appraisal of an event;
- It is characterized as being pleasant/unpleasant;
- Physiological changes accompany the emotion;
- So, too, does a tendency towards arousal; an increase in arousal; or an action based on arousal; along with a general readiness to deal with the environment;
- Emotions, further, have an event/object specificity. As such, an emotion arises in response to "something" or "someone."

1.2 The Amygdala

Convincing evidence has implicated the amygdala in emotional processing. Information about the external world seemingly reaches the amygdala in two ways.

First, a short and direct pathway provides the amygdala with crude information from the sensory thalamus. This information is not filtered via cortical processing but rather is very biased towards evoking a response. This initial, crude response is useful under life-threatening conditions, enabling the organism to respond to a stimulus even before that stimulus has been properly identified (Bennet and Goleman, 2002). However, continuously unchecked amygdala responses (impulsive behaviour) may violate convention and result in social sanction (for example, in the workplace).

The second and longer route entails information travelling from the thalamus to the cortex (where the information is encoded with more detail) and then back to the amygdala to keep inappropriate responses in check (LeDoux, 1998).

1.3 Emotions in the Workplace

Pirola Merlo, Härtel, Mann, and Hirst (2002) argue that progress in the understanding of organizational behaviour is hampered by a failure to consider the bounded emotionality aspects of human behaviour in addition to bounded rationality aspects. On a theoretical level, Muchinsky (2000) supports the following:

> "the specialized field of industrial organizational (IO) psychology has generally followed the path of its parent discipline psychology in its neglect of emotions."

This short overview mirrors business practices, since business schools and organizations emphasize technical rather than social skills. Emotions are at the very core of human experience; and since we spend most of our time engaged in working rather than in other activities, IO psychology should take the lead in explaining the role of emotions at work (Muchinsky 2000). However, the last years of the past decade reflect widespread interest in the role of emotions at work as reflected in the proceedings of various workshops and conferences on the topic.

The organization by which people are employed offer opportunities for experiencing numerous emotions affecting the employees' thoughts, feelings, and actions, both in the workplace and as also in sites when they are away from it (Brief and Weiss 2002). The centrality of these emotions to work life has, however, largely been ignored and not been openly discussed (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996). Burke, Brief, George, Roberson, and Webster (1989) and Fisher (2000) concur that there are relatively few studies on emotions experienced at work and that the influence of the work context on affective domain experience remains largely unexplored. Traditionally, potent dysfunctionalities – rather than standard functionalities – of everyday emotions have tended to receive comparatively more attention from managers and researchers (Ashforth and Humphrey 1995). This pejorative view of emotion has blinded many scholars and practitioners to the value of emotions. When research was conducted on emotion, the conclusions drawn from the study that it mostly related to strong work place emotions—focusing on relatively dramatic occupations such as health care, police, and rescue workers (work which, at times, requires emotions to be suppressed) rather than on the applicability of emotions and emotional regulation to the broader organizational setting.

1.4 Emotional Intelligence—an Historical Perspective

In addition to the backdrop provided in the previous sections, it may be asserted that although EI recently received an increased amount of attention, the relationship between cognition and affect has been discussed for centuries. Dating back as far as ancient Greece and Rome, philosophers have debated the relationship between cognition and emotion. Some critics believe that affect is, and strong emotions are, associated with weaknesses and irrational thoughts (Grewal and Salovey2005). Stoics, for example, believed that one must avoid extreme emotions in order to think

reasonably and rationally (Still and Dryden 1999). Conversely, philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle believed that thought plays a significant role in the expression of human emotion. They believed that emotion results from one's thoughts and beliefs about the world (Fortenbaugh 1975). For example, an individual may experience fear only if they appraise the situation as being dangerous. Similar discussions relating to the relationship between cognition and emotion continue in modern thought and psychological research, exploring new perspectives on the interaction between emotion and thought—and seeking rules to describe when and why emotions arise (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso 2002).

The term "intelligence" was first used in the literature during the twentieth century (Spearman 1927). Prior to that period, even books of good standing on psychology did not mention this word. Since then, psychologists have attempted to define intelligence from various perspectives. Sadock and Sadock (2000) define intelligence as being "the capacity for learning and the ability to recall, integrate constructively, and apply what one has learned; the capacity to understand and think rationally."This capacity was traditionally measured and expressed as an "IQ" (an "intelligence quotient"). However, as early as 1920, Thorndike (as quoted by Hedlund and Sternberg, 2000) was already arguing in favour of social ability as being an important component of intelligence. He defined social intelligence as being the ability to act or behave wisely in relation to others. He distinguished social intelligence from the mechanical and abstract forms of intelligence. The study of emotional intelligence really originated with the writings of Wechsler (1940) who referred to the non-cognitive intellective aspects of general intelligence. He subsequently defined intelligence as being

> "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his/her environment" (Wechsler 1958).

This concept clearly involves more than mere cognitive intelligence and embraces those abilities required to adapt to new situations and cope successfully with life. He was of the opinion that these factors undeniably contribute to intelligent behaviour. He argues that

> "we cannot expect to measure total intelligence until our tests also include some measures of the non-intellective factors" (Wechsler 1943).

These early thoughts were succeeded by the ideas of Gardner (1983, 1993, and 1999) a half-century later. He proposed a theory of multiple intelligences

that included (in addition to the recognized cognitive intelligences) kinaesthetic, practical, musical, and personal intelligences-thereby expanding on Wechsler's concept of general intelligence. He conceptualized the personal intelligences as being intrapsychic capacities and interpersonal skills. According to Gardner, intrapersonal intelligence constitutes the ability to understand oneself-including knowing how one feels about things, and understanding one's range of emotions; as well as having insight into the way one acts. Intrapersonal intelligence helps people act in ways that are appropriate to their needs, goals and abilities. Interpersonal intelligence, conversely, includes the ability to read the moods, desires, and intentions of others and to act on this knowledge. In this onward progression of the visualization of abilities, the concept of EI emerged; thereby adding depth to the concept of human intelligence in an attempt to expand the ability to evaluate overall intelligence (Bar-On 1997). He contended that general intelligence may be conceived as including both cognitive and emotional intelligence; and he viewed personal intelligence as being the precursor of emotional intelligence. EI, accordingly, referred to the emotional, social, personal, and survival dimensions of intelligence, rated by some as being more important for daily functioning than the renowned aspects of the dimension of cognitive intelligence. Stemming from earlier conceptions, emotional intelligence focused on understanding and relating to the self and others and coping successfully with the immediate context. According to Bar-On, emotional intelligence was viewed as being tactical and had been aimed at immediate functioning; whilst cognitive intelligence was thought to be more strategic, with a long-term capacity. Emotional intelligence reflects one's ability to manage the immediate situation successfully by applying available knowledge. EI was, thus, related to a person's "common sense" and the person's ability to adapt to the demands of the world.

1.5 Emotional Intelligence as a Construct

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is generally defined as the ability to use emotions to help solve problems, manage relationships, enhance thoughts, and succeed in transactional tasks. Although some may argue that the concept of emotional intelligence is new, its origin has indeed been firmly embedded in psychological thought over the past century. Within the last two decades, the concept of EI has received considerable attention in the social sciences as well as in the popular media. In fact, in a case of life imitating art the American Dialect Society listed EI as being one of the most useful effects it was designed to create. Kelly (1955) proposed that a

person's anticipation of an event - that is, his or her expectation – is central to determining their behaviour. This model was essentially cognitive and emphasized expectations, interpretations, and "personal constructs" or schemas that inform people's understanding of how the world works.

The term "emotional" in emotional intelligence refers to both mood and emotions. Scholars have long recognized the relevance of cognition to problem-solving and leadership; whilst the relevance of emotion has traditionally been discounted (Salovey et al. 2000). Since researchers studying the brain have more recently determined that emotion precedes or at least accompanies cognition, affect (both mood and emotion) has been recognized as being a unique form of information that improves cognition (Dickman and Standford-Blair 2002, Zajonc 1998). Individuals vary in their ability to take in and understand affective information. Strength in this ability has been labelled *emotional intelligence* (Salovey et al. 2000). The key difference between emotional intelligence and cognitive skills involves the integration of emotion with thoughts, enabling an individual to understand what others are feeling; while cognitive skills involve the integration, organization, and ordering of thoughts (Goleman 2001). Therefore, emotional intelligence essentially describes the ability to effectively join emotions and reasoning; using emotions to facilitate reasoning intelligently about emotions (Mayer and Salovey 1997). Emotional intelligence, therefore, influences the extent to which people's cognitive capabilities are informed by emotions and the extent to which emotions are cognitively managed. Furthermore, emotions are distinct from predispositions to experience certain kinds of emotions captured by the personality traits of positive and negative affectivity (George and Brief 1996, Tellegon 1985).

Empathy is seen as being fundamental to emotional intelligence and has been defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997) as

> "the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth."

Wolff, Pescosolido, and Druskat (2002) viewed empathy as being a seminal emotional intelligence ability and proposed that it improves the leadership's ability to perceive and understand both member and team emotions. It precedes and enables cognitive processes and skills by providing an accurate understanding of team and team members' emotions and needs. They further proposed that this emotional understanding

improves cognitive skills, pattern recognition, and perspective taking. Perspective taking is defined as analysing, discerning, and considering the merits of another's point of view (Boland and Tenkasi 1995) and metacognitively considering the merits from one's own point of view. Emergent leaders were, for example, noted to be socially perceptive and skilled at recognizing and understanding the feelings and emotions of the members of their teams. The understanding supposedly augments a leader's cognitive analysis and prioritization of issues encountered by the team. The high-quality cognitive analysis leads to skilled behaviour (Wolff, Pescosolido, and Druscat, 2002).

The research done by these leaders supported the basic premise, namely, that empathy serves as a foundation for cognitions and behaviours that support the emergence of leaders. Empathy also formed the foundation for the analytic skills of pattern recognition and perspective taking. Muchinsky (2000) believed that emotional intelligence may provide the long-sought-after missing link that will unite the ability and motivational or dispositional determinants of job performance. Accordingly, it was summarized that emotional intelligence assessment "could become a staple of a personnel selection battery."

After a decade of recognizing the complexity of cognitive processes, the next decade witnessed the recognition of emotional processes in personnel selection and job performance.

1.6 Some Concepts Related to Emotional Intelligence Competencies

In the present section, a few concepts related to EI have been summarily described.

Social Competence: According to Topping, Bremner and Holmes (2000), social competence is

> "the possession and use of the ability to integrate thinking, feeling, and behaviour to achieve social tasks and outcomes valued in the host of context and culture."

Socially competent people select and control behaviours to apply in pursuit of any given objective either set by them, or prescribed by others, within a given context. Thus, within the work context, such an individual may be self-assertive without being aggressive, thereby regulating the environment to his/her advantage. Social competence is important since it is a factor in resilience and the socially competent and since an integrated

individual seems more likely to withstand life stressors, and to withstand temptations such as involvement in self-damaging behaviour including drug taking.

Emotional Competence: According to Saarni (2000),

> "emotional competence is the demonstration of the self-efficacy in emotion-eliciting at social transactions" and "mature emotional competence, as defined here, assumes that moral character and ethical values have an influence on one's emotional responses in ways that promote personal integrity."

However, all individuals will, at some stage, experience some emotional incompetence when unprepared for an unexpected event within a particular social context.

1.7 The Role of the Self in Developing Emotional Competence

According to Saarni (2000), the most important contributor to the development of emotional competence is the self (or ego identity). The self always becomes automated by adulthood. Neisser developed a taxonomy of the self that fits well with the construct of emotional competence (Neisser 1998, 1992, Neisser and Fivush 1994). The taxonomy consists of the ecological self (that allows for a bi-directional engagement with the physical and social environment). Behaviour largely depends on what the environment allows and how the individual shapes/responds to his/her environment.

The second component of the taxonomy is the extended self that taps into previous experience (by means of schemas), helping the individual to adapt in a novel context. The third component is related to the evaluated self, feelings, and values, and is important in relation to goal-directed behaviour. Individuals interactively manoeuver through their world in ways designed to seek out advantages for themselves (whilst attempting to avoid disadvantages to themselves). The ecological, extended and evaluative self-taxonomy promotes our understanding of functional interactions between individuals and their social and physical environments.

This complex set of interactions to some extent explains the situation in which two people living in the same environment tend to interpret events differently and distinctly. Another powerful motivator of behaviour is the feedback received from others. Such feedback is internalized and contributes to self-beliefs and assists in the development of the capacity for self-evaluation. This helps regulate or monitor behaviour according to

the other's expectations of what constitutes appropriate behaviour (Harter 1998, Kopp 1992). Developmentally delayed children typically demonstrate a deficit in such self-regulatory capacity (Kopp and Wyer 1994). Therefore, an individual may feel emotionally competent in many situations but incompetent in other areas—since he/she is ill-prepared for that particular situation and has not yet developed the skills to cope within the particular context. Furthermore, individuals tend to deceive themselves rather than to deal directly with their emotional incompetence. Self-deception seems to be an important mediator between affective dispositions or mood and an individual's well-being (Erez, Johnson, and Judge 1995).

1.8 The Development of Emotional Awareness

The ability to be aware of one's own emotional states constitutes a skill fundamental to the key features of emotional intelligence and relates to impulse control, persistence, self-motivation, empathy, and social deftness.

> "Emotional awareness is conceptualized as being a domain of cognitive development that unfolds in a manner parallel to that of intelligence in the usual cognitive sense" (Lane 2000).

Lane and Schwartz (1987) proposed that this development process is similar to that which Piaget described for cognition in general. A fundamental principle of this approach is that variations in the degree of differentiation and integration of schema (applied to the processing of emotional information) will be variations reflected in individual differences between levels of emotional awareness.

These authors proposed that there are five levels of emotional awareness and they share the structural characteristics of Piaget's stages of cognitive development. In ascending order, these represent physical sensations; action tendencies, single emotions; blends of emotions, and blends of emotional experience. These levels influence the ability to recognize complexity in the experiences both of the self and of others—and to use this information as a guide in order to act adaptively. Another influential aspect in the normal development of EI is language.

1.9 EI as a Popular Concept

Goleman (1995) created a model of EI characterized by five broad areas: knowing one's emotions (recognizing and monitoring feelings), managing emotions (emotional regulation), motivating oneself (goal

oriented), recognizing emotions in others (empathic awareness), and handling relationships (managing the emotions of others). It will be pertinent to note that Goleman considered EI as encompassing

> "a set of abilities which include self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself."

He further specified that EI consists of the ability to

> "motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification, to regulate one's mood, and to empathize and to hope."

Goleman (1998) later broadened this concept and described EI as including up to 25 skills and characteristics that promote success, such as initiative, team work, and self-awareness; and likened EI to individual character.

Goleman (1995) made strong claims about the ability to predict important real-life outcomes. In his book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*, he contended that EI accounts for up to 80% of the variance in academic and occupational success. Goleman asserted that EI provides an advantage in any domain in life, whether in romance and intimate relationships or in picking up the unspoken rules that govern success in organizational politics. The influence of Goleman's book on popularizing EI became immediately apparent. It stimulated a great deal of research with regard to EI, as evidenced by the competing theories of EI that emerged shortly after its publication.

In addition, intervention and training programs were developed to provide parents with strategies to improve their children's EI; and some business concerns hired EI coaches to enhance worker productivity (Grewal and Salovey, 2005). By 2000, over 20 formal programs of social-emotional learning were incorporated into school curricula (Elias et al. 2000).

Goleman was criticized by many researchers for his having not provided empirical support for his assertion that EI is a more important predictor of success than is IQ (Landy 2005, Mayer and Cobb 2000, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso 2004). For example, Goleman (1998) claimed that EI has greater predictive validity for occupational performance than does IQ. However, Matthews et al. (2002) argued that no published studies actually confirm this relationship and that the unpublished investigation that Goleman cites does not actually include any measure of EI. Critics of Goleman also contend that his definition of EI is over-inclusive and

unclear—incorporating aspects of cognition, personality, motivation, emotions, neurobiology, and intelligence (Locke 2005, Matthews et al. 2002). In response to Goleman's claims, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) stated that

> "the unexplained 80% of the component of success appears to be in large part the consequence of complex, possibly chaotic interactions among hundreds of variables playing out over time"

At present, the theoretical framework of EI is a topic of debate among researchers (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran 2004). Mayer and colleagues made a distinction between the main competing group of mixed theories of EI (which are sometimes referred to as "trait EI") and ability models (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso 2000).

1.10 Mixed Models of EI and their Measurement

In mixed models, EI does not exclusively consist of emotion or intelligence (Neubaur and Fredenthaler 2005). Instead, EI is seen as being a mixture of cognitive abilities and personality traits that may predict success in various domains (Mayer et al. 2000). Although most mixed models EI theories make reference to cognitive abilities utilized in the processing of emotional information, these theories focus more on personality traits and personal attributes such as optimism and motivation (Goldenberg, Matheson, and Mantler 2006, Livingstone and Day 2005).

Mixed models are generally measured by self-report questionnaires, which assess an individual's belief about his or her competencies in areas of EI. Typically, respondents are given a series of statements regarding their emotional understanding, awareness, and control. They are then asked to indicate on a Likert scale the extent to which the statements describe how they feel, think, or behave in most situations. Authors of mixed-model EI measures claim that they predict success and other important outcomes fairly well (Bar-On 1997, Goleman 1998, Schutte et al. 1998).

One of the most popular and widely cited mixed models of EI theories is Bar-On's model of Social-Emotional Intelligence (S-EI). In this theory, several interrelated emotional and social components that impact intelligent behaviour and the ability to cope with the demands and pressures of daily life are combined. Bar-On noted the influence of related constructs in the development of his theory, including social intelligence and Gardner's (1985) intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. S-EI consists of 15 competencies that measure five higher-order factors. The

first, intrapersonal skill (comprised of self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization), refers to ability to recognize, understand, and express emotions. The second, interpersonal skill (comprised of empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship), refers to the ability to understand the emotions of others. The third factor, adaptability (comprised of reality-testing, flexibility, and problem solving), refers to the ability to handle change and solve problems. The fourth, stress management (comprised of stress tolerance and impulse control), refers to the ability to manage emotions. The fifth factor, general mood (comprised of optimism and happiness), refers to the ability to generate positive affect and to be self-motivated (Bar-On 2006). To measure these constructs, Bar-On constructed the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I 2004, Bar-On 1997), a 133-item self-report measure. Of the existing EI measures, the EQ-i is among the most widely used (Van-Rooy and Viswesvaran 2004). According to Bar-On (1997), the EQ-i is predictive of success in academics and success among US Air Force recruiters. In addition, the EQ-i was found to be moderately correlated with measures of psychological well-being, physical health, self-actualization, and social interaction (Bar-On 1997, 2001, 2004, 2006, Bar-On and Fund 2004). In an independent study using the Emotional Quotient inventory: Youth version (EQ-i: Yv), overall EI correlated significantly with academic success among a large sample of high school students (Parker et al. 2004).

One of the most popular and widely cited mixed models of EI theory is that of Schutte et al. (1998). It is largely based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original model of EI, consisting of a general second-order EI factors—namely, appraisal and expression of emotion; regulation of emotion; and utilization of emotion. The appraisal and expression of emotion factor is comprised of perception of emotion and empathy. Regulation of emotion includes regulating emotions in the self as well as in others. The third factor – utilization of emotion – includes flexible-planning, creativity, attention, and motivation (Schutte et al. 1998). To measure these components, Schutte and his colleagues developed the Schutte Self-Report Inventory (SSRI; Schutte et al. 1998). The SSRI correlated moderately with alexithymia (i.e., difficulty describing and recognizing one's own emotions), depression, and academic success. Saklofske, Austin, and Minski (2003) also found moderate correlations between the SSRI and alexithymia, self-reported happiness, satisfaction with life, depression-proneness, social loneliness, family loneliness, and romantic loneliness. These findings support the validity of the SSRI. As