Emotional Intelligence- A Review

Dr. Kavita Gautam

Associate Professor, Home Science, Govt. Girls College, Chomu, Rajasthan, India

ABSTRACT: Emotional intelligence (EI) is most often defined as the ability to perceive, use, understand, manage, and handle emotions. People with high emotional intelligence can recognize their own emotions and those of others, use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior, discern between different feelings and label them appropriately, and adjust emotions to adapt to environments.[1]

Although the term first appeared in 1964,[2] it gained popularity in the 1995 best-selling book Emotional Intelligence, written by science journalist Daniel Goleman. Goleman defined EI as the array of skills and characteristics that drive leadership performance.[3] Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to perceive, control, and evaluate emotions. Some researchers suggest that emotional intelligence can be learned and strengthened, while others claim it is an inborn characteristic.[4]

KEYWORDS: Emotional, intelligence, thinking, behavior, skills, leadership, perceive, control, evaluate

I.INTRODUCTION

Various models have been developed to measure EI. The trait model, developed by Konstantinos V. Petrides in 2001, focuses on self reporting of behavioral dispositions and perceived abilities.[5] The ability model, developed by Peter Salovey and John Mayer in 2004, focuses on the individual's ability to process emotional information and use it to navigate the social environment.[6] Goleman's original model may now be considered a mixed model that combines what has since been modeled separately as ability EI and trait EI. More recent research has focused on emotion recognition, which refers to the attribution of emotional states based on observations of visual and auditory nonverbal cues.[7][8] In addition, neurological studies have sought to characterize the neural mechanisms of emotional intelligence.[9][10]

Studies have shown that people with high EI have greater mental health, job performance, and leadership skills, although no causal relationships have been shown. EI is typically associated with empathy because it involves an individual connecting their personal experiences with those of others. Since its popularization in recent decades, methods of developing EI have become widely sought by individuals seeking to become more effective leaders.

Criticisms have centered on whether EI is a real intelligence, and whether it has incremental validity over IQ and the Big Five personality traits.[11][12] However, meta-analyses have found that certain measures of EI have validity even when controlling for IQ and personality.[13][14][15]

The concept of Emotional Strength was first introduced by Abraham Maslow in the 1950s.[16] The term "emotional intelligence" seems first to have appeared in a 1964 paper by Michael Beldoch,[17][18] and in the 1966 paper by B. Leuner titled Emotional intelligence and emancipation which appeared in the psychotherapeutic journal: Practice of child psychology and child psychiatry.[19]

In 1983, Howard Gardner's Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences[20] introduced the idea that traditional types of intelligence, such as IQ, fail to fully explain cognitive ability. He introduced the idea of multiple intelligences which included both interpersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and intrapersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations).[21]

The first published use of the term 'EQ' (Emotional Quotient) is an article by Keith Beasley in 1987 in the British Mensa magazine.[22]

In 1989, Stanley Greenspan put forward a model to describe EI, followed by another by Peter Salovey and John Mayer published in the following year.[23]

However, the term became widely known with the publication of Goleman's book: Emotional Intelligence – Why it can matter more than IQ (1995).[24] It is to this book's best-selling status that the term can attribute its popularity.[25] Goleman has followed up with several similar publications that reinforce use of the term.[26][27][28][29]

Late in 1998, Goleman's Harvard Business Review article entitled "What Makes a Leader?"[3] caught the attention of senior management at Johnson & Johnson's Consumer Companies (JJCC). The article spoke to the importance of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in leadership success, and cited several studies that demonstrated that EI is often the distinguishing factor between great leaders and average leaders. JJCC funded a study which concluded that there was a strong relationship between superior performing leaders and emotional competence, supporting theorist's suggestions that the social, emotional and relational competency set commonly referred to as Emotional Intelligence, is a distinguishing factor in leadership performance.[30]

Tests measuring EI have not replaced IQ tests as a standard metric of intelligence,[31] and Emotional Intelligence has received criticism regarding its role in leadership and business success.[32]

II.DISCUSSION

Emotional intelligence has been defined, by Peter Salovey and John Mayer, as "the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately, and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior". This definition was later broken down and refined into four proposed abilities: perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions. These abilities are distinct yet related.[1] Emotional intelligence also reflects abilities to join intelligence, empathy and emotions to enhance thought and understanding of interpersonal dynamics.[33] However, substantial disagreement exists regarding the definition of EI, with respect to both terminology and operationalizations. Currently, there are three main models of EI:

1. Ability model
2. Mixed model (usually subsumed under trait EI)[34][35]
3. Trait model

Different models of EI have led to the development of various instruments for the assessment of the construct. While some of these measures may overlap, most researchers agree that they tap different constructs.

Specific ability models address the ways in which emotions facilitate thought and understanding. For example, emotions may interact with thinking and allow people to be better decision makers.[33] A person who is more responsive emotionally to crucial issues will attend to the more crucial aspects of his or her life.[33] Aspects of emotional facilitation factor is to also know how to include or exclude emotions from thought depending on context and situation.[33] This is also related to emotional reasoning and understanding in response to the people, environment and circumstances one encounters in his or her day-to-day life.[33]

Salovey and Mayer's conception of EI strives to define EI within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence.[36][37] Following their continuing research, their initial definition of EI was revised to "The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth." However, after pursuing further research, their definition of EI evolved into "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions, to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately 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."[6]

The ability-based model views emotions as useful sources of information that help one to make sense of and navigate the social environment.[38][39] The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviors. The model claims that EI includes four types of abilities:

1. Perceiving emotions – the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts—including the ability to identify one's own emotions. Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.

2. Using emotions – the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem-solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.

3. Understanding emotions – the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.

4. Managing emotions – the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

The ability EI model has been criticized in the research for lacking face and predictive validity in the workplace.[40] However, in terms of construct validity, ability EI tests have great advantage over self-report scales of EI because they compare individual maximal performance to standard performance scales and do not rely on individuals' endorsement of descriptive statements about themselves.[41]

III.RESULTS

The current measure of Mayer and Salovey's model of EI, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), is based on a series of emotion-based problem-solving items.[39][42] Consistent with the model's claim of EI as a type of intelligence, the test is modeled on ability-based IQ tests. By testing a person's abilities on each of the four branches of emotional intelligence, it generates scores for each of the branches as well as a total score.

Central to the four-branch model is the idea that EI requires attunement to social norms. Therefore, the MSCEIT is scored in a consensus fashion, with higher scores indicating higher overlap between an individual's answers and those provided by a worldwide sample of respondents. The MSCEIT can also be expert-scored so that the amount of overlap is calculated between an individual's answers and those provided by a group of 21 emotion researchers.[39]

Although promoted as an ability test, the MSCEIT test is unlike standard IQ tests in that its items do not have objectively correct responses. Among other challenges, the consensus scoring criterion means that it is impossible to create items (questions) that only a minority of respondents can solve, because, by definition, responses are deemed emotionally "intelligent" only if the majority of the sample has endorsed them. This and other similar problems have led some cognitive ability experts to question the definition of EI as a genuine intelligence.[43]

In a study by Føllesdal,[44] the MSCEIT test results of 111 business leaders were compared with how their employees described their leader. It was found that there were no correlations between a leader's test results and how he or she was rated by the employees, with regard to empathy, ability to motivate, and leader effectiveness. Føllesdal also criticized the Canadian company Multi-Health Systems, which administers the test. The test contains 141 questions but it was found after publishing the test that 19 of these did not give the expected answers. This has led Multi-Health Systems to remove answers to these 19 questions before scoring but without stating this officially.

Various other specific measures have also been used to assess ability in emotional intelligence. These measures include:

1. Diagnostic Analysis of Non-verbal Accuracy (DANVA)[45]– The Adult Facial version includes 24 photographs of equal amount of happy, sad, angry, and fearful facial expressions of both high and low intensities which are balanced by gender. The tasks of the participants is to answer which of the four emotions is present in the given stimuli.

2. Japanese and Caucasian Brief Affect Recognition Test (JACBART)[46]– Participants try to identify 56 faces of Caucasian and Japanese individuals expressing seven emotions such happiness, contempt, disgust, sadness, anger, surprise, and fear, which may also trail off for 0.2 seconds to a different emotion.

3. Situational Test of Emotional Understanding (STEU)[47] – Test-takers complete 42 multiple-choice items assessing whether they understand which of five emotions a person would be experiencing in a given situation. There is also a brief version (STEU-B) consisting of 19 items.

4. Situational Test of Emotion Management (STEM)[47] – Test-takers complete 44 multiple-choice items where they select which of four possible responses is the most effective action to manage emotions in a specified situation. There is also a brief version (STEM-B) consisting of 18 items.

The model introduced by Daniel Goleman[26] focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines five main EI constructs (for more details see "What Makes A Leader" by Daniel Goleman, best of Harvard Business Review 1998):

1. Self-awareness – the ability to know one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, drives, values and goals and recognize their impact on others while using gut feelings to guide decisions.
2. Self-regulation – involves controlling or redirecting one's disruptive emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.
3. Social skill – managing relationships to get along with others
4. Empathy – considering other people's feelings especially when making decisions
5. Motivation – being aware of what motivates them.

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.[48] Goleman's model of EI has been criticized in the research literature as mere "pop psychology".[33]

Implications

Two measurement tools are based on the Goleman model:

1. The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), which was created in 1999, and the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI), a newer edition of the ECI was developed in 2007. The Emotional and Social Competence – University Edition (ESCI-U) is also available. These tools developed by Goleman and Boyatzis provide a behavioral measure of the Emotional and Social Competencies.
2. The Emotional Intelligence Appraisal, which was created in 2001 and which can be taken as a self-report or 360-degree assessment.[49]

Konstantinos V. Petrides ("K. V. Petrides") proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability based model and a trait based model of EI and has been developing the latter over many years in numerous publications.[50][51] Trait EI is "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality."[51] In layman's terms, trait EI refers to an individual's self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. This definition of EI encompasses behavioral dispositions and self-perceived abilities and is measured by self report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait EI should be investigated within a personality framework.[52] An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy.

The trait EI model is general and subsumes the Goleman model discussed above. The conceptualization of EI as a personality trait leads to a construct that lies outside the taxonomy of human cognitive ability. This is an important distinction in as much as it bears directly on the operationalization of the construct and the theories and hypotheses that are formulated about it.[50]

There are many self-report measures of EI,[53] including the EQ-i, the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT), and the Schutte EI model. None of these assess intelligence, abilities, or skills (as their authors often claim), but rather, they are limited measures of trait emotional intelligence.[51] The most widely used and widely researched measure of self-report or self-schema (as it is currently referred to) emotional intelligence is the EQ-i 2.0. Originally known as the BarOn EQ-i, it was the first self-report measure of emotional intelligence available, the only measure predating Goleman's best-selling book.

The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) provides an operationalization for the model of Konstantinos V. Petrides and colleagues, that conceptualizes EI in terms of personality.[54] The test encompasses 15 subscales organized under four factors: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability. The psychometric properties of the TEIQue were

investigated in a study on a French-speaking population, where it was reported that TEIQue scores were globally normally distributed and reliable.[55]

The researchers also found TEIQue scores were unrelated to nonverbal reasoning (Raven's matrices), which they interpreted as support for the personality trait view of EI (as opposed to a form of intelligence). As expected, TEIQue scores were positively related to some of the Big Five personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness) as well as inversely related to others (alexithymia, neuroticism). A number of quantitative genetic studies have been carried out within the trait EI model, which have revealed significant genetic effects and heritabilities for all trait EI scores.[56] Two recent studies (one a meta-analysis) involving direct comparisons of multiple EI tests yielded very favorable results for the TEIQue.[35][57]

The Big Five Personality Traits theory gives a simple blueprint to understand others and improving relationships by knowing why people tend to behave the way they do. You can also use this theory to help better understand yourself and how to get along with others better than ever before. The Big Five Model, is also known as the Five Factor Model, is the most widely accepted personality theory held by psychologist today. The theory states that personality can boil down to five factors, known as the acronym CANOE or OCEAN (conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness, extraversion). Unlike other trait theories that sort individuals into binary categories (introvert or extrovert), the Big Five Model asserts that each personality trait is a spectrum. Therefore, individuals are ranked on a scale between two extreme ends.[58][59][60][61]

A review published in the Annual Review of Psychology in 2008 found that higher emotional intelligence is positively correlated with:[33]

1. Better social relations for children – Among children and teens, emotional intelligence positively correlates with good social interactions, relationships and negatively correlates with deviance from social norms, anti-social behavior measured both in and out of school as reported by children themselves, their own family members as well as their teachers.
2. Better social relations for adults – High emotional intelligence among adults is correlated with better self-perception of social ability and more successful interpersonal relationships with less interpersonal aggression and problems.
3. Highly emotionally intelligent individuals are perceived more positively by others – Other individuals perceive those with high EI to be more pleasant, socially skilled and empathic to be around.
4. Better academic achievement[62] – Emotional intelligence is correlated with greater achievement in academics as reported by teachers but generally not higher grades once the factor of IQ is taken into account.
5. Better social dynamics at work as well as better negotiating ability.
6. Better well-being – Emotional intelligence is positively correlated with higher life satisfaction, self-esteem and lower levels of insecurity or depression. It is also negatively correlated with poor health choices and behavior.

Emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to have a better understanding of themselves and to make conscious decisions based on emotion and rationale combined. Overall, it leads a person to self-actualization.[63][64]

In recent years the relevance and importance of emotional intelligence in contexts of business leadership, commercial negotiation and dispute resolution has been increasingly recognized, and professional qualifications and continuous professional development have incorporated aspects of understanding emotions and developing greater insight into emotional interactions.[65][66][67] Especially in the globalizied world, the ability to be a global leader is becoming more important than ever. A high EQ will allow business leaders to interact with various different cultures, and they must be comfortable in these diverse cultural environments, especially with a high chance of having a diverse team and organization. EQ has become an essential part of leading an organization.

Bullying is abusive social interaction between peers which can include aggression, harassment, and violence. Bullying is typically repetitive and enacted by those who are in a position of power over the victim. A growing body of research illustrates a significant relationship between bullying and emotional intelligence.[68][69][70] They also have shown that emotional intelligence is a key factor in the analysis of cases of cybervictimization,[71] by demonstrating a relevant impact on health and social adaptation.

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a set of abilities related to the understanding, use and management of emotion as it relates to one's self and others. Mayer et al., (2008) defines the dimensions of overall EI as: "accurately perceiving emotion, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotion, and managing emotion".[72] The concept combines emotional and intellectual processes.[73] Lower emotional intelligence appears to be related to involvement in bullying, as the bully and/or the victim of bullying. EI seems to play an important role in both bullying behavior and victimization in bullying; given that EI is illustrated to be malleable, EI education could greatly improve bullying prevention and intervention initiatives.[74]

IV.CONCLUSIONS

A 2012 study in India cross-examined emotional intelligence, self-esteem and marijuana dependence. Out of a sample of 200, 100 of whom were dependent on cannabis and the other 100 emotionally healthy, the dependent group scored exceptionally low on EI when compared to the control group. They also found that the dependent group also scored low on self-esteem when compared to the control.

Another study in 2010 examined whether or not low levels of EI had a relationship with the degree of drug and alcohol addiction in Australia. In the assessment of 103 residents in a drug rehabilitation center, they examined their EI along with other psychosocial factors in a one-month interval of treatment. They found that participants' EI scores improved as their levels of addiction lessened as part of their treatment.

Similarly, Locke (2005) claims that the concept of EI is in itself a misinterpretation of the intelligence construct, and he offers an alternative interpretation: it is not another form or type of intelligence, but intelligence—the ability to grasp abstractions—applied to a particular life domain: emotions. He suggests the concept should be re-labeled and referred to as a skill.

The essence of this criticism is that scientific inquiry depends on valid and consistent construct utilization and that before the introduction of the term EI, psychologists had established theoretical distinctions between factors such as abilities and achievements, skills and habits, attitudes and values, and personality traits and emotional states. Thus, some scholars believe that the term EI merges and conflates such accepted concepts and definitions.[75]

REFERENCES

1. Colman A (2008). A Dictionary of Psychology (3 ed.). Oxford University Press. ISBN 9780199534067.
2. ^ Beldoch, Michael; Davitz, Joel Robert (1976). The communication of emotional meaning. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press. p. 39. ISBN 9780837185279. OCLC 647368022.
3. ^ Goleman D (1998). "What Makes a Leader?". Harvard Business Review. 76: 92–105.
4. ^ Jovanovski, Antonio (2020-03-28). "Emotional Intelligence". Trainers Library. Retrieved 2019-03-26.
5. ^ Petrides KV, Furnham A (November 2001). "Trait Emotional Intelligence: Psychometric Investigation with Reference to Established Trait Taxonomies". European Journal of Personality. 15 (6): 425–48. doi:10.1002/per.416. S2CID 144031083.
6. ^ Mayer JD, Salovey P, Caruso DR (July 2004). "Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Findings, and Implications". Psychological Inquiry. 15 (3): 197–215. doi:10.1207/s15327965pli1503_02. S2CID 144415437.
7. ^ Durand K, Gallay M, Seigneuric A, Robichon F, Baudouin JY (May 2007). "The development of facial emotion recognition: the role of configural information" (PDF). Journal of Experimental Child Psychology. 97 (1): 14–27. doi:10.1016/j.jecp.2006.12.001. PMID 17291524. Archived (PDF) from the original on 2018-07-21.
8. ^ Bänziger T (2014). "Measuring Emotion Recognition Ability". In Michalos AC (ed.). Encyclopedia of Quality of Life and Well-Being Research. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands. pp. 3934–3941. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-0753-5_4188. ISBN 978-94-007-0753-5.
9. ^ "Scientists Complete 1st Map of 'Emotional Intelligence' in the Brain". U.S. News & World Report. 2013-01-28. Archived from the original on 2014-08-14.
10. ^ Kosonogov VV, Vorobyeva E, Kovsh E, Ermakov PN (2019). "A review of neurophysiological and genetic correlates of emotional intelligence" (PDF). International Journal of Cognitive Research in Science, Engineering and Education. 7 (1): 137–142. doi:10.5937/IJCRSEE1901137K. ISSN 2334-847X. Archived (PDF) from the original on 2020-02-11.

11. ^ Harms PD, Credé M (2010). "Remaining Issues in Emotional Intelligence Research: Construct Overlap, Method Artifacts, and Lack of Incremental Validity". Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice. 3 (2): 154–158. doi:10.1111/j.1754-9434.2010.01217.x. S2CID 144371039.

12. ^ Cavazotte F, Moreno V, Hickmann M (2012). "Effects of leader intelligence, personality and emotional intelligence on transformational leadership and managerial performance". The Leadership Quarterly. 23 (3): 443–455. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.10.003.

13. ^ Joseph DL, Newman DA (January 2010). "Emotional intelligence: an integrative meta-analysis and cascading model". The Journal of Applied Psychology. 95 (1): 54–78. doi:10.1037/a0017286. PMID 20085406.

14. ^ O'Boyle Jr EH, Humphrey RH, Pollack JM, Hawver TH, Story PA (2011-07-01). "The relation between emotional intelligence and job performance: A meta-analysis". Journal of Organizational Behavior. 32 (5): 788–818. doi:10.1002/job.714. ISSN 1099-1379.

15. ^ Joseph DL, Jin J, Newman DA, O'Boyle EH (March 2015). "Why does self-reported emotional intelligence predict job performance? A meta-analytic investigation of mixed EI". The Journal of Applied Psychology. 100 (2): 298–342. doi:10.1037/a0037681. PMID 25243996.

16. ^ Dhani, Priyam (5 March 2020). "EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE; HISTORY, MODELS AND MEASURES". Research Gate.

17. ^ Beldoch M (1964). "Sensitivity to expression of emotional meaning in three modes of communication". In Davitz JR, et al. (eds.). The Communication of Emotional Meaning. McGraw-Hill. pp. 31–42.

18. ^ Argyle (September 2017). Argyle M (ed.). Contributions to social interactions: Social Encounters. ISBN 9780201968979.

19. ^ Leuner B (1966). "Emotional intelligence and emancipation". Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Kinderpsychiatrie. 15: 193–203.

20. ^ Gardner H (1983). Frames of mind. New York: Basic Books.

21. ^ Smith MK (2002). "Howard Gardner, multiple intelligences and education". The Encyclopedia of Informal Education. Archived from the original on 2005-11-02. Retrieved 2005-11-01.

22. ^ Beasley K (May 1987). "The Emotional Quotient" (PDF). Mensa: 25.

23. ^ Salovey P, Mayer JD (1989). "Emotional intelligence". Imagination, Cognition, and Personality. 9 (3): 185–211. doi:10.2190/dugg-p24e-52wk-6cdg. hdl:10654/36316. S2CID 219900460.

24. ^ Goleman D (1996). Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ. Bantam Books. ISBN 978-0-553-38371-3.

25. ^ Dan Schawbel. "Daniel Goleman on Leadership and The Power of Emotional Intelligence – Forbes". Forbes. Archived from the original on 2012-11-04. Retrieved 2014-03-07.

26. ^ Goleman D (1998). Working with emotional intelligence. New York: Bantam Books.

27. ^ Lantieri L, Goleman D (2008). Building Emotional Intelligence: Techniques to Cultivate Inner Strength in Children. Sounds True. ISBN 978-1-59179-849-1.

28. ^ Goleman D (2011). The Brain and Emotional Intelligence: New Insights. More Than Sound. ISBN 978-1-934441-15-2.

29. ^ Goleman D (2011). Leadership: The Power of Emotional Intelligence. More Than Sound.

30. ^ "Emotional Competence and Leadership Excellence at Johnson & Johnson: The Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Study". www.eiconsortium.org. 2001. Retrieved 8 September 2020.

31. ^ "What is Emotional Intelligence and How to Improve it? (Definition + EQ Test)". positivepsychologyprogram.com. 14 November 2018. Retrieved 3 February 2019.

32. ^ "Why emotional intelligence is just a fad – CBS News". CBS News. 2012-02-13. Archived from the original on 2012-11-28. Retrieved 2014-03-07.

33. ^ Mayer JD, Roberts RD, Barsade SG (2008). "Human abilities: emotional intelligence". Annual Review of Psychology. 59: 507–36. doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.59.103006.093646. PMID 17937602. Archived from the original on 2015-12-22.

34. ^ Kluemper DH (2008). "Trait emotional intelligence: The impact of core-self evaluations and social desirability". Personality and Individual Differences. 44 (6): 1402–1412. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2007.12.008.

35. ^ Martins A, Ramalho N, Morin E (2010). "A comprehensive meta-analysis of the relationship between emotional intelligence and health". Journal of Personality and Individual Differences. 49 (6): 554–564. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2010.05.029.

36. ^ Mayer JD, Salovey P, Caruso DR, Sitarenios G (September 2001). "Emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence". Emotion. 1 (3): 232–42. doi:10.1037/1528-3542.1.3.232. PMID 12934682.

37. ^ MacCann C, Joseph DL, Newman DA, Roberts RD (April 2014). "Emotional intelligence is a second-stratum factor of intelligence: evidence from hierarchical and bifactor models". Emotion. 14 (2): 358–374. doi:10.1037/a0034755. PMID 24341786.

38. ^ Mayer JD, Salovey P (1997). "What is emotional intelligence?". In Salovey P, Sluyter D (eds.). Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators. New York: Basic Books. pp. 3–31. ISBN 978-0-521-51806-2.

39. ^ Salovey P, Grewal D (2005). "The Science of Emotional Intelligence". Current Directions in Psychological Science. 14 (6): 6. doi:10.1111/j.0963-7214.2005.00381.x. S2CID 2143869.

40. ^ Bradberry TR, Su LD (2003). "Ability-versus skill-based assessment of emotional intelligence" (PDF). Psicothema. 18 Suppl: 59–66. PMID 17295959. Archived (PDF) from the original on 2012-09-05. Retrieved 2014-03-07.

41. ^ Brackett MA, Mayer JD (September 2003). "Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence". Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin. 29 (9): 1147–58. doi:10.1177/0146167203254596. PMID 15189610. S2CID 5744173.

42. ^ Mayer JD, Salovey P, Caruso DR, Sitarenios G (March 2003). "Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0". Emotion. 3 (1): 97–105. doi:10.1037/1528-3542.3.1.97. PMID 12899321.

43. ^ Petrides KV (2015). "Ability and Trait Emotional Intelligence". In Chamorro-Premuzic T, von Stumm S, Furnham A (eds.). The Wiley-Blackwell Handbook of Individual Differences. London: John Wiley & Sons. pp. 656–78. ISBN 978-1-119-05030-8.

44. ^ Føllesdal H. Emotional Intelligence as Ability: Assessing the Construct Validity of Scores from the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (PhD thesis). University of Oslo 2008. Archived from the original on 2008-12-16.

45. ^ Nowicki, Stephen; Duke, Marshall P. (1994-03-01). "Individual differences in the nonverbal communication of affect: The diagnostic analysis of nonverbal accuracy scale". Journal of Nonverbal Behavior. 18 (1): 9–35. doi:10.1007/BF02169077. ISSN 1573-3653. S2CID 144426091.

46. ^ Matsumoto, David; LeRoux, Jeff; Wilson-Cohn, Carinda; Raroque, Jake; Kooken, Kristie; Ekman, Paul; Yrizarry, Nathan; Loewinger, Sherry; Uchida, Hideko; Yee, Albert; Amo, Lisa (2000-09-01). "A New Test to Measure Emotion Recognition Ability: Matsumoto and Ekman's Japanese and Caucasian Brief Affect Recognition Test (JACBART)". Journal of Nonverbal Behavior. 24 (3): 179–209. doi:10.1023/A:1006668120583. ISSN 1573-3653. S2CID 18039888.

47. ^ MacCann, Carolyn; Roberts, Richard D. (2008). "New paradigms for assessing emotional intelligence: Theory and data". Emotion. 8 (4): 540–551. doi:10.1037/a0012746. PMID 18729584 – via APA.

48. ^ Boyatzis RE, Goleman D, Rhee K (2000). "Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: Insights from the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI).". In Bar-On R, Parker JD (eds.). Handbook of emotional intelligence. Vol. 99. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. pp. 343–62.

49. ^ Bradberry T, Greaves J (2009). Emotional Intelligence 2.0. San Francisco: Publishers Group West. ISBN 978-0-9743206-2-5.

50. ^ Petrides KV, Furnham A (2000a). "On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence". Personality and Individual Differences. 29 (2): 313–320. CiteSeerX 10.1.1.475.5285. doi:10.1016/s0191-8869(99)00195-6.

51. ^ Petrides KV, Pita R, Kokkinaki F (May 2007). "The location of trait emotional intelligence in personality factor space". British Journal of Psychology. 98 (Pt 2): 273–89. doi:10.1348/000712606x120618. PMID 17456273.

52. ^ Petrides KV, Furnham A (2001). "Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies". European Journal of Personality. 15 (6): 425–448. doi:10.1002/per.416. S2CID 144031083.

53. ^ Pérez JC, Petrides PJ, Furnham A (2005). "Measuring trait emotional intelligence.". In Schulze R, Roberts RD (eds.). International Handbook of Emotional Intelligence. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Hogrefe & Huber. pp. 123–43. CiteSeerX 10.1.1.474.294.

54. ^ Petrides KV, Furnham A (2003). "Trait emotional intelligence: behavioral validation in two studies of emotion recognition and reactivity to mood induction". European Journal of Personality. 17: 39–75. doi:10.1002/per.466. S2CID 4287409.

55. ^ Mikolajczak M, Luminet O, Leroy C, Roy E (June 2007). "Psychometric properties of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire: factor structure, reliability, construct, and incremental validity in a French-speaking population". Journal of Personality Assessment. 88 (3): 338–53. doi:10.1080/00223890701333431. PMID 17518555. S2CID 21196733.

56. ^ Vernon PA, Petrides KV, Bratko D, Schermer JA (October 2008). "A behavioral genetic study of trait emotional intelligence". Emotion. 8 (5): 635–42. doi:10.1037/a0013439. PMID 18837613.

57. ^ Gardner JK, Qualter P (2010). "Concurrent and incremental validity of three trait emotional intelligence measures". Australian Journal of Psychology. 62: 5–12. doi:10.1080/00049530903312857.

58. ^ Checa P, Fernández-Berrocal P (2015). "The Role of Intelligence Quotient and Emotional Intelligence in Cognitive Control Processes". Frontiers in Psychology. 6: 1853. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01853. PMC 4664650. PMID 26648901.

59. ^ Salovey P, Grewal D (2005). "The Science of Emotional Intelligence". Current Directions in Psychological Science. 14 (6): 281–285. doi:10.1111/j.0963-7214.2005.00381.x. ISSN 0963-7214. JSTOR 20183048. S2CID 2143869.

60. ^ Lim AG (15 June 2020). "The Big Five Personality Traits". Retrieved 2020-12-11.

61. ^ Lim AG. "Big Five Personality Traits". Simply Psychology.

62. ^ MacCann, Carolyn; Jiang, Yixin; Brown, Luke E R; Double, Kit S; Bucich, Micaela; Minbashian, Amirali (2020). "Emotional intelligence predicts academic performance: A meta-analysis". Psychological Bulletin. 146 (2): 150–186. doi:10.1037/bul0000219. PMID 31829667. S2CID 209342554 – via APA.

63. ^ Heffernan M, Quinn Griffin MT, Fitzpatrick JJ (August 2010). "Self-compassion and emotional intelligence in nurses". International Journal of Nursing Practice. 16 (4): 366–73. doi:10.1111/j.1440-172X.2010.01853.x. PMID 20649668. S2CID 1902234.

64. ^ Bratton VK, Dodd NG, Brown FW (January 2011). "The impact of emotional intelligence on accuracy of self-awareness and leadership performance". Leadership & Organization Development Journal. 32 (2): 127–149. doi:10.1108/01437731111112971. ISSN 0143-7739.

65. ^ Whitener, S., The Importance Of Emotional Intelligence In Business, Forbes, published 25 November 2020, accessed 26 February 2020

66. ^ JCA Global Ltd. and CIPS (2017), Emotional Intelligence in the Procurement Sector, accessed 26 February 2020

67. ^ Kelly, E. J. et al, Importance of emotional intelligence in negotiation and mediation, International Comparative Jurisprudence, Volume 2, Issue 1, September 2016, pages 55-60, accessed 25 February 2020

68. ^ Lamb J, Pepler DJ, Craig W (April 2009). "Approach to bullying and victimization". Canadian Family Physician. 55 (4): 356–60. PMC 2669002. PMID 19366941.

69. ^ Lomas J, Stough C, Hansen K, Downey LA (2011-07-26). "The relationship between bullying, victimization, trait emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and empathy among preadolescents". Social Psychology of Education. 15 (1): 41–58. doi:10.1007/s11218-011-9168-9. ISSN 1381-2890. S2CID 143679923.

70. ^ Lomas J, Stough C, Hansen K, Downey LA (February 2012). "Brief report: Emotional intelligence, victimisation and bullying in adolescents". Journal of Adolescence. 35 (1): 207–11. doi:10.1016/j.adolescence.2011.03.002. hdl:1959.3/190030. PMID 21470670.

71. ^ Rey L, Quintana-Orts C, Mérida-López S, Extremera N (2018-07-01). "Emotional intelligence and peer cybervictimisation in adolescents: Gender as moderator". Comunicar (in Spanish). 26 (56): 09–18. doi:10.3916/c56-2018-01. ISSN 1134-3478.

72. ^ Mayer JD, Roberts RD, Barsade SG (2008). "Human abilities: emotional intelligence". Annual Review of Psychology. 59: 507–36. doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.59.103006.093646. PMID 17937602.

73. ^ Tolegenova AA, Jakupov SM, Chung C, Saduova M, Jakupov MS (2012). "A theoretical formation of emotional intelligence and childhood trauma among adolescents". Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences. 69: 1891–1894. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.12.142.

74. ^ Mckenna J, Webb J (2013). "Emotional intelligence". British Journal of Occupational Therapy. 76 (12): 560. doi:10.1177/030802261307601202. S2CID 208741104.

75. ^ Côté S, Miners CT (2006-01-01). "Emotional Intelligence, Cognitive Intelligence, and Job Performance". Administrative Science Quarterly. 51 (1): 1–28. doi:10.2189/asqu.51.1.1. JSTOR 20109857. S2CID 142971341.