A Study About Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Life Satisfaction

Kubilay Özyer[*]   Öznur Azizoğlu[**]   Gulnaz Fahreeva[***]

Abstract

This study investigated the association between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction. Two measures Schutte et al., (1998) Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) and Diener's (1985) Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) were assessed in 114 participants recruited from general community in Ankara. Positive associations found between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction were consistent with previous studies. Correlations between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction showed higher emotional intelligence were associated with higher life satisfaction. In addition, demographic factors influencing emotional intelligence and life satisfaction were examined. Contrary to some previous research, only one statistically significant difference was found in gender. Emotional intelligence level found to be higher for female than for male participants. Demographic factors showed no relationship with life satisfaction.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence (EI); Life satisfaction (LS)

Duygusal Zeka ile Yaşam Tatmini Arasındaki İlişkiye Yönelik Bir Çalışma

Özet

Bu çalışmada duygusal zeka ile yaşam tatmini arasındaki ilişki incelenmektedir. Çalışmada Schutte ve arkadaşlarının (1998) hazırlamış oldukları duygusal zeka ölçeği (EIS) ile Diener'in (1985) hazırlamış olduğu yaşam tatmini ölçeği (SWLS) kullanılmıştır. Araştırma Ankara'da yaşamakta olan 114 katılımcı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Duygusal zeka ile yaşam tatmini arasında eski çalışmalarla benzer bir şekilde olumlu yönde bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Katılımcıların duygusal zekaları yüksek olduğunda yaşam tatminlerinin de benzer şekilde yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca, çalışmada duygusal zekayı ve yaşam tatmini etkileyen demografik faktörler de araştırılmıştır. Önceki çalışmalarala çok da benzer olmayacak şekilde sadece cinsiyette bir farklılığa rastlanmıştır. Kadınlarda duygusal zeka seviyesi erkeklere oranla daha yüksek bulunmuştur. Demografik faktörler yaşam tatmininde bir farklılık ortaya koymamıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Duygusal zeka, yaşam tatmini

[*] Assist. Prof. Dr. GOP University, IIBF, Isletme Bolumu, Tokat, kubilay@gop.edu.tr
[**] Assist. Prof. Dr., Hacettepe University, Ankara, IIBF, Isletme Bolumu, nur@hacettepe.edu.tr
[***] Postgraduate Student, Hacettepe University, IIBF, Isletme Bolumu, Ankara, gulnaz_fahreeva@hotmail.com

1. Introduction

1.1 Emotional Intelligence

The roots of emotional intelligence can be traced back to the teachings of ancient Chinese philosophers. For a long time, emotional intelligence was nothing more than a philosophy. Today, our advancement in understanding human behavior and psychological measurement allows us to quantify this once intangible concept (Lac and Su, 2004).

Most theorists tend to agree that intelligence is "goal-directed mental activity that is marked by efficient problem solving, critical thinking, and effective abstract reasoning." However, reaching as far back as 1920, definitions of intelligence began to emerge that described intelligence in terms of socially competent behavioral norms. It was psychologist Edward Thorndike who in 1920 first coined the term *social intelligence*. By 1935, the first instrument for measuring social intelligence was introduced by Edgar Doll (Bar-On, 2005).

David Wechsler defined intelligence as "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment". As early as 1940 he referred to "non-intellective" as well as "intellective" elements, by which he meant affective, personal, and social factors. Furthermore, as early as 1943 Wechsler was proposing that the non-intellective abilities are essential for predicting one's ability to succeed in life (Cherniss, 2000).

Fast forward to 1973, the year in which Harvard psychologist David McClelland published a paper entitled "Testing for Competence Rather than Intelligence." This paper attempted to shift the debate from one of trying to define success in terms of intelligence based upon traditional academic assessment to one of attempting to define success in terms of competences (to include empathy, self-discipline, and initiative). In 1983, another Harvard psychologist, Howard Gardner, proposed seven primary types of intelligence that he called *personal intelligences.* Within the scope of this review are the two intelligences that Gardner described as *intrapersonal* (or emotional) and *interpersonal* (or social) intelligence (Koonce, 2006).

Today, there are three generally accepted conceptual models of EI: (1) the Salovey-Mayer model; (2) the Goleman model; and (3) the Bar-On model (Spielberger, 2004). Although all three models share many consistencies, each model has its own uniqueness. The focus of the Salovey-Mayer model is primarily cognitive, whereas the Goleman model is directed at emotional domains and competencies, and the Bar-On model, behavioral traits (Koonce, 2006).

There are both mental ability models and mixed models of emotional intelligence. The mental ability model focuses on emotions themselves and their interactions with thought. The mixed models treat mental abilities and a variety of other characteristics such as motivation, states of consciousness and social activity as a single entity (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995).

Salovey and Mayer's theoretical work was cosentrated at mental ability concept. When Salovey and Mayer coined the term emotional intelligence in 1990, they were aware of the

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previous work on non-cognitive aspects of intelligence. They described emotional intelligence as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action". Salovey and Mayer also initiated a research program intended to develop valid measures of emotional intelligence and to explore its significance. For instance, they found in one study that when a group of people saw an upsetting film, those who scored high on emotional clarity (which is the ability to identify and give a name to a mood that is being experienced) recovered more quickly. In another study, individuals who scored higher in the ability to perceive accurately, understand, and appraise others' emotions were better able to respond flexibly to changes in their social environments and build supportive social networks (Cherniss, 2000).

In contrast, others expanded the meaning of emotional intelligence by explicitly mixing in nonability traits. For example, Bar-On's (1997) model of emotional intelligence was intended to answer the question, "Why are some individuals more able to succeed in life than others?" Bar-On reviewed the psychological literature for personality characteristics that appeared related to life success and identified five broad ares of functioning relevant to success (see Table 1). Bar-On's theoretical work combines what may qualify as mental abilities (e.g., emotional self-awareness) with other characteristics that are considered separable from mental ability, such as personal independence, self-regard, and mood; this makes it a mixed model. Also he believes that EQ, along with IQ, can provide a more balanced picture of a person's general intelligence (Mayer et al., 2000; Goleman, 1995).

A third view of emotional intelligence was popularized by Goleman (1995). Goleman created a model that also was mixed and was characterized by the five broad areas depicted in column 3 of Table 1. Goleman makes extraordinary claims for the predictive validity of his mixed model. He states that emotional intelligence will account for success at home, at school and at work. Among youth, he says, emotional intelligence will lead to less rudeness or aggressiveness, more popularity, improved learning and better decisions about "drugs, smoking, etc" (Goleman, 1995). At work, emotional intelligence will assist people "in teamwork, in cooperation, in helping learn together how to work more effectively". More generall, emotional intelligence will confer "an advantage in any domain in life, whether in romance and intimate relationships or picking up the unspoken rules that govern success in organizational politics (Mayer et al., 2000)."

The three models represent emotional intelligence in different ways. Both the Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1995) models are distributed across the various levels. For example, Bar-On's adaptability skills (problem-solving, reality testing, and flexibility) primarily represent cognitive skills, whereas his interpersonal skills (interpersonal relationships, social responsibilty, and empathy) primarily represent more synthetic interpersonal relatedness. By way of contrast, the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model fits within the emotion and cognitive interactions area. The diagram shows in yet another way that a central difference among models is that the mental ability models operate in a region defined by emotion and cognition, whereas mixed models label a multitude of components as emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 2000).

The development of theoretical models of emotional intelligence has been paralleled by the development of tests to measure the concept. Popular measures include the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i; Bar-On, 1997), the Schutte Self-Report Inventory (Schutte et al., 1998), the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (Salovey et al., 1995), the Multi-Factor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS; Mayer et al., 2000), and most recently, the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCIET; Mayer, Caruso, Salovey, & Sitarenios, submitted) (Zeidner et al., 2002).

1.2 Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is widely considered to be a central aspect of human welfare. Many have identified happiness with it, and some maintain that well-being consists largely or wholly in being satisfied with one's life. Empirical research on well-being relies heavily on life satisfaction studies (Haybron, 2005).

Life satisfaction admits of many definitions, so that any critique is liable to meet objections that what it addresses isn't "really" life satisfaction. we may define life satisfaction as having a favorable attitude toward one's life as a whole. Opinions vary about the precise nature of this attitude, but typically it is seen as somehow embodying a *global judgment* about one's life taken as a whole: that, all things considered, one's life is satisfactory. Central to life satisfaction for Sumner, for instance, is a positive evaluation of the conditions of your life, a judgment that, at least on balance, it measures up favorably against your standards or expectations (Haybron, 2005).

Some researchers' notably those from an economics background tend to see happiness, life satisfaction and well-being as synonymous and interchangeable. But there are important and clearly discernable differences. Satisfaction with life overall, tends to be generally stable since it reflects a summary of "judgments about feelings". Whilst on the individual level, day-to-day changes in happiness are of interest, at a policy level it is overall satisfaction that gives the best indication of how groups of people are faring (http://www.happyplanetindex.org/life-satisfaction.htm). Life satisfaction seems to be widely regarded as a central aspect of well-being, or at least to correlate very strongly with it.

1.3 Related Studies

EI has been theoretically related to several important human values including life satisfaction, the quality of interpersonal relationships, and success in occupations that involve considerable reasoning with emotional information such as those involving creativity, leadership, sales and psychotherapy (Palmer et al., 2002).

Several studies have examined the relationship between EI and life satisfaction (Bar-On, 1997; Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Martinez-Pons, 1997, 1999; Mayer et al., 2000). Research with self-report measures (e.g., the EQi, Bar-On; the TMMS, Martinez-Pons) has found moderate positive correlations between EI and life satisfaction. Similarly, research with the performance-based measure of EI (MEIS) has found low to moderate positive correlations between EI and life satisfaction. Importantly, Ciarrochi et al. (2000) found that EI correlated with life satisfaction even after controlling for IQ and personality variables suggesting that EI

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accounts for unique variance. There is some doubt currently surrounding the predictive validity of self-report measures of EI. While some self-report measures of EI have been shown to correlate with theoretically related variables, it has been suggested that these relationships exist because they are essentially tapping personality traits known to predict these criteria. Several recent studies have found a significant overlap between self-report measures of EI and personality. The utility of the EI construct (and the validity of EI measures), resides in whether or not it accounts for variance in theoretically related life criteria not already accounted for by intelligence and personality and other well-established psychological constructs (Palmer et al., 2002).

One of the most widely used self report measures is the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), based on Salovey and Mayer's EI model (1990). This self-report measure evaluates three facets of the reflective processes that accompany mood states termed the meta mood experience. Specifically, (1) Attention, that is, perceived ability to attend to moods and emotions; (2) Clarity, that is, perceived ability to discriminate clearly among feelings; and (3) Repair, that is, individuals' perceived ability to repair negative moods (Extremera et al, 2007).

Salovey et al. (1995) found that individuals with high scores on Clarity showed greater rebound from induced negative mood and greater decline in ruminative thoughts following an experimental stressor. Furthermore, in a natural stress situation, Goldman et al., (1996) found that individuals with low emotional Repair were more likely to visit a health center when stress was high, but in time of low stress the repair mood did no predict health center visit. Similarly, research about moral and emotional dilemmas found that moral understanding of the situation is influenced by age (meaning life experience) and by level of emotional Clarity (Extremera and Fernandez-Berrocal, 2005).

Another study investigated the association between Perceived Emotional Intelligence (PEI), measured by the TMMS, and life satisfaction in Spanish undergraduate university students. The authors investigated whether PEI would account for variance in satisfaction with life beyond the level attributable to mood states and personality traits. Correlation analysis showed significant associations between Clarity and Repair and higher life satisfaction. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis confirmed these findings and indicated that Clarity accounted further variance in life satisfaction not accounted for by mood states and personality traits. These findings extend previous studies and provide additional support for the incremental validity of the TMMS suggesting that Clarity contribute to life satisfaction independently from well-known mood states constructs and personality traits (Extremera and Fernandez-Berrocal, 2005).

Extremera et al., (2006) examined the relationships between perceived emotional intelligence (PEI) (measured by TMMS), dispositional optimism/pessimism and psychological adjustment (perceived stress and life satisfaction) in a sample of 498 adolescents (202 males and 296 females). In addition, the present research investigated the extent to which dimensions of PEI predicted variance in life satisfaction and perceived stress beyond the variance explained for by individual differences in optimism and pessimism. TMMS dimensions and dispositional optimism/pessimism showed significant correlations in the expected direction with perceived stress and life satisfaction. Likewise, PEI and dispositional optimism/pessimism were not strongly redundant albeit related. Further hierarchical regression analyses confirmed that

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emotional clarity and mood repair still remained significant in predicting perceived stress and life satisfaction after the influence of optimism/pessimism were controlled. These results are consistent with previous findings on construct validity of PEI assessed by TMMS. In this sense, data suggest that adolescents with high perceptions of emotional abilities (in particular, high clarity and repair) generally show higher life satisfaction and lower perceived stress. Moreover, to some degree, this effect might be considered as independent from their own optimistic or pessimistic dispositions.

Palmer et al., (2002) examined the incremental predictive validity of EI as a predictor of life satisfaction, independently of positive affect and negative affect. To test the incremental predictive validity hypothesis, Palmer et al. (2002) collected data from 107 participants who completed two self-report inventories of EI (Trait Meta-Mood Scale) and the Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20), a measure of life satisfaction (the Satisfaction With Life Scale or SWLS), and a self-report measure of positive (PA) and negative (NA) affect (PANAS). Palmer et al. (2002) used multiple regressions and reported that only Clarity subscale from the TMMS was uniquely related to SWLS.

In another investigation made by Gignac (2006), structural equation modeling was used for the purposes of modeling a general EI factor as a potential incrementally predictive predictor of life satisfaction. The results demonstrated that a general EI factor was associated with SWLS at b = .61 and that this effect was only partially mediated by PA and NA, such that the validity coefficient was reduced to b = .49.

One finding that has emerged in a number of studies is the positive relationship between EI and psychological health. This relationship is not surprising, given that the link between personality and health is well established, and that empirical evidence suggests that trait-based measures of EI are substantially correlated with personality measures. Thus, it is possible that the relationship between EI and psychological health is simply due to their shared relationship with personality (Day et al., 2005).

Emotional intelligence, personality, alexithymia, life satisfaction, social support and health related measures were assessed in Canadian (N ¼ 500) and Scottish (N ¼ 204) groups by Austin et al., (2005). EI was found to be negatively associated with alexithymia and alcohol consumption and positively associated with life satisfaction and social networksize and quality. The relative strengths of EI and personality as regression predictors of health-related outcomes were investigated for a subgroup of Scots (N range 99–111). The results of these analyses show that EI is more strongly associated than personality with social networksize, but social network quality, life satisfaction, alcohol consumption, number of doctor consultations and health status are more strongly related to personality. More work is required to investigate the possible existence of other variables which, as with social networksize are predicted better by trait EI than by personality.

Considerable research has focused on workplace success and interpersonal relationships, with EI reported as positively correlated with social network size and quality (Ciarrochi et al., 2001), positive relations with others, perceived parental support and fewer negative interactions with close friends, pro-social behavior, parental warmth and positive peer and family relations, more optimism, higher empathic perspective taking and self-monitoring in

social situations, and higher social skills and higher marital satisfaction. Additionally, negative correlations have been reported with illegal drug and alcohol use, deviant behavior and poor relationships with friends, unauthorized absences and exclusions from school and depression (Bastian et al., 2005).

Study examining the relationship between EQ and family environment was conducted by Özabacı (2006). The sample of the study was selected as 274 parents who live in Istanbul including 152 female, 122 male. Data were collected by EQ-NED and "Family Environment Scale" to determine the EQ and family characteristics. The results of the study indicate that there was a relationship between EQ and family cooperation.

Several studies have examined life satisfaction in relation to various EI measures, with all reporting low-to-moderate positive correlations in the order of r = .11 to r = .61. However, these studies have not comprehensively controlled for the possible effects of personality and cognitive abilities (if at all, generally only personality or cognitive abilities, but typically not both have been controlled). A study of 246 predominantly first-year tertiary students investigated relationships between EI and a number of life skills (academic achievement, life satisfaction, anxiety, problem-solving and coping). Correlations between EI and academic achievement were small and not statistically significant, although higher EI was correlated with higher life satisfaction, better perceived problem-solving and coping ability and lower anxiety. However, after controlling for the influence of personality and cognitive abilities, shared variance between EI and life skills was 6% or less.

Various authors have theorized that high emotional intelligence would lead to greater feelings of emotional well-being. Those who are able to understand and regulate their emotions should able to generally maintain a better outlook on life and experience better emotional health. Some empirical evidence that emotional intelligence is associated with emotional well-being comes from research indicating that higher emotional intelligence is associated with less depression and greater life satisfaction. Thus, both theory and previous research suggest a link between emotional intelligence and emotional well-being. Emotional intelligence includes the ability to understand and regulate emotions; emotional well-being includes positive mood and high selfesteem. Malouff et al (2002) carried out two studies investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and mood, and between emotional intelligence and self-esteem. The results of these studies indicated that higher emotional intelligence was associated with characteristically positive mood and higher self-esteem. The results of a third study indicated that higher emotional intelligence was associated with a higher positive mood state and greater state self-esteem (Malouff et al, 2002).

2. Research Objectives

The purpose of the present study was twofold. First, study was conducted to find out if there any relationship between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction and if there is to determine the significance and direction of this relationship. Secondly, study was carried out to determine whether the demographic characteristics of individuals will cause change on emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels. Thus, goals of this study are the following:

(1) To examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction

(2) To examine whether emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels change according to gender

(3) To determine whether emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels change according to age

(4) To determine whether emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels change according to marital status

(5) To determine if there is a relationship between monthly wage and life satisfaction level of the individual

(6) To determine whether emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels change according to individual's educational level

(7) To determine whether emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels change according to individuals' parent's educational level

3. Methods

3.1 Participants

From the total of 136 questionnaires distributed among participants 114 returned back. Therefore the respondent rate of this study comprised %83.6. From 114 people participated in the study 53 were males (46.5%) and 61 females (53.5%) aging between 18 and 76. Participants were recruited from general community in Ankara. The information had been collected from the individuals who were conveniently available to provide it.

3.2 Materials

3.2.1 Emotional Intelligence Scale

The *Emotional Intelligence Scale* (EIS) was developed by Schutte et al. (1998). This self-report index asks a person to endorse a series of descriptive statements on some form of rating scale. In the Schutte Self-Report Inventory individuals rate themselves from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) on 33 statements (e.g., "I know why my emotions change"; "I expect good things to happen"). As suggested in Salovey and Mayer's theory of emotional intelligence (1990), the instrument has three categories: (a) the appraisal and expression of emotion assessed by 13 items; (b) the regulation of emotion assessed by 10 items; and (c) the utilization of emotion assessed by 10 items. Participants read each statement and decide whether they 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', are 'undecided', 'agree', or 'strongly agree' with the statement.

For the present study, the internal consistency reliability (cronbach alpha) was 0.90.

3.2.2 Satisfaction With Life Scale

Life Satisfaction was measured by *Satisfaction With Life Scale* (SWLS) developed by Diener, Robert A. Emmons, Randy J. Larsen and Sharon Griffin (1985). The SWLS is a short 5-item instrument designed to measure global cognitive judgments of satisfaction with one's life. The scale requires only about one minute of a respondent's time. Understanding Scores on the Satisfaction with Life Scale:

- 35 - 31 Extremely satisfied
- 26 - 30 Satisfied
- 21 - 25 Slightly satisfied
- 20   Neutral
- 15 - 19 Slightly dissatisfied
- 10 - 14 Dissatisfied
- 5 - 9 Extremely dissatisfied

For the present study, the internal consistency reliability (cronbach alpha) was 0.87.

4. Results

4.1 Demographic Characteristics

Respondents were queried about their gender, age, marital status, occupation, salary, educational level, mother's and father's educational level. Fifty three point five per cent reported the female was the most recent appointment and 46.5% the male. Fifty three point five per cent of the respondents were single and 46.5% were married. Other demographic characteristics are shown below (Table 2).

4.2 Research Findings

The means, standard deviations and internal consistency reliabilities (coefficient alpha) for measured variables are presented in Table 3.

H. 1 There is a relationship between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction

In order to test this hypothesis the correlation analysis was conducted. As shown in Table 4 there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction (p=0,000 < 0,05). Those two variables are found to be correlated significantly positively (r = 0,617)

To find out the direction of the relationship regression analysis had been undertaken (Table 5). Examination of regression showed that emotional intelligence had huge impact on life satisfaction.

H. 2 Emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels changes according to gender

To test this hypothesis Independent-Sample T Test was carried out. According to results there is a significant difference between female and male participants (p: 0,039<0,05). As shown in Table 6 emotional intelligence level found to be higher for female participants (mean for female participants 132, 62 whereas for male participants 126, 21). Analysis showed that gender of the participants had no influence on life satisfaction level of participants (p=0,458>0,05).

H.3 Emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels changes according to age

To determine whether emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels change according to age One-Way ANOVA analysis were undertaken. As we can see in Table 7 variables are not changing according to age factor. ANOVA shows that there is no difference between age groups (EI p: 0,161>0,05; LS p: 0,086>0,05).

H.4 Emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels changes according to marital status of individuals

To determine whether emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels are changing according to marital status Independent-Sample T Test was carried out. As shown in Table 8 emotional intelligence as well as life satisfaction levels are not changing according to marital status (EI p: 0,361>0,05; LS p: 0,653>0,05).

H.5 There is a relationship between monthly wage and life satisfaction level of the individual

To determine if there is a relationship between monthly wage and life satisfaction of the individual intelligence correlation analysis were undertaken. The results showed that there is no relationship between those two variables (p: 0,261>0,05).

H.6 Emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels are changing according to educational level of individuals

To determine whether emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels change according to educational level One-Way ANOVA analysis were undertaken. As we can see in Table 7 neither of variables are changing according to educational level (EI p: 0,763>0,05; LS p: 0,254>0,05).

H.7 Emotional intelligence and life satisfaction levels change according to individuals' parent's educational level

To determine whether emotional intelligence and life satisfaction level of individual change according to mother's and father's educational level One-Way ANOVA analysis were conducted. As we can see from Table 11 and 12 neither emotional intelligence nor life satisfaction changes according to individuals' parent's educational level (mother's

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educational level p: 0,937>0,05; 0,797>0,05; Father's educational level p: 0,922>0,05; 0,737>0,05).

5. Conclusion

The aim of the current study was to examine whether emotional intelligence predicts one of the most important human values, namely, life satisfaction. Two measures were used, Schutte et al's (1998) Emotional Intelligence Scale and Diener's (1985) Satisfaction With Life Scale. Positive associations found between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction were consistent with previous studies (Palmer et al., 2002; Saklofske et al., 2003; Bastian et al, 2005; Austin et al., 2005 etc.). Correlations between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction showed higher emotional intelligence was associated with higher life satisfaction (r=0,617, P<0.001).

Similarly research with self-report measures (e.g., the EQi, Bar-On; the TMMS, Martinez-Pons) has found moderate positive correlations between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction (e.g. the total EQ scale score of the EQi correlated with the Kirkcaldy Quality of Life Questionnaire r=0.41, P<0.001, as reported by Bar-On). Research with the performance-based measure of emotional intelligence (MEIS; Mayer et al., 2000) has found low to moderate positive correlations between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction (r=0.11, P<0.05, Mayer et al.,2000; and r=0.28, P<0.005, Ciarrochi et al., 2000). . Importantly, Ciarrochi et al. (2000) found that emotional intelligence correlated with life satisfaction even after controlling for IQ and personality variables suggesting that emotional intelligence accounts for unique variance (Palmer et al, 2001).

Various authors have theorized that high emotional intelligence would lead to greater feelings of emotional well-being. Those who are able to understand and regulate their emotions should able to generally maintain a better outlook on life and experience better emotional health. Some empirical evidence that emotional intelligence is associated with emotional well-being comes from research indicating that higher emotional intelligence is associated with less depression and greater life satisfaction. Thus, both theory and previous research suggest a link between emotional intelligence and emotional well-being (Schutte et al., 2002).

Gender, age, marital status, monthly wage, participant's educational level and participants' parent's educational level showed no relationship with LS. Gannon and Ranzijn (2005) also found no relationship between gender, age, education and LS. In his study only income, marital status correlated moderately and home ownership correlated weakly with LS. Similarly, Extremera et al (2007) observed no significant differences between male and female for life satisfaction.

In this study it is found that emotional intelligence level is higher for female participants than for male (mean for female participants 132.62 whereas for male participants 126.21; p=0.039). This finding is consistent with earlier studies which have evidenced greater attention to emotions reported by women (Schutte et al., 1998; Constantine and Gainor, 2001; Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Mayer et al., 1999; Reif et al., 2001; Petrides et al., 2000; Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Charbonneau and Nicol, 2002; Aşan ve Özyer, 2003; Brackett et al, 2004; Extremera, 2007). One possible explanation for this is proposed by Mayer et al (1999). He

argued that women must read emotions more carefully because they possess less power in society than do men. It is women in more powerful positions rather than less, however, who exhibit the greater emotional accuracy. Such findings suggest that emotional intelligence operates like other areas of intelligence, potentially raising the occupational status of an individual. Issues of power and status aside, women may be socialized to pay more attention to emotions, or they may be better biologically prepared to perform at such tasks.

Participant's age, marital status, monthly wage, educational level, participants' parent's educational level showed no relationship with emotional intelligence. Study done by Aşan and Özyer (2003) also found no relationship between age, education, individuals' parent's education, monthly income and emotional intelligence.

An analysis of variance of the North American normative sample was conducted by Bar-On (1997) to examine the effect of age, gender and ethnicity on EQ-i scores. The results indicated a few significant differences between the age groups that were compared; these differences are relatively small in magnitude. In brief, the older groups scored significantly higher than the younger groups on most of the EQ-i scales; and respondents in their late 40s obtained the highest mean scores. An increase in emotional-social intelligence with age is also observed in children (Bar-On, 2006).

Current research examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction based on self-report measurement. It will be useful to conduct similar research by using performance based measurement in order to find out absolute differences in using those two measurements. Also it is advisable to examine the relationships of emotional intelligence and other "life skills" such as academic achievement, problem-solving etc. The concept of emotional intelligence is still relatively new so it will be beneficial to conduct more investigations related to this topic.

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Table 1 Three Competing Models, all Labeled "Emotional Intelligence"

TABLE 18.1. Three Competing Models, all Labeled "Emotional Intelligence"

Mayer & Salovey (1997)	Bar-On (1997)	Goleman (1995a)
Overall Definition	**Overall Definition**	**Overall Definition(s)**
"Emotional intelligence is the set of abilities that account for how people's emotional perception and understanding vary in their accuracy. More formally, we define emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others" (after Mayer & Salovey, 1997).	"Emotional intelligence is . . . an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures." (Bar-On, 1997, p. 14).	"The abilities called here *emotional intelligence*, which include self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself." (Goleman, 1995a, p. xii). [. . .and. . .] "There is an old-fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: *character*" (Goleman, 1995a, p. 28).
Major Areas of Skills and Specific Examples	**Major Areas of Skills and Specific Skills**	**Major Areas of Skills and Specific Examples**
Perception and Expression of Emotion *Identifying and expressing emotions in one's physical states, feelings, and thoughts. *Identifying and expressing emotions in other people, artwork, language, etc. *Assimilating Emotion in Thought* *Emotions prioritize thinking in productive ways. *Emotions generated as aids to judgment and memory. *Understanding and Analyzing Emotion* *Ability to label emotions, including complex emotions and simultaneous feelings. *Ability to understand relationships associated with shifts of emotion. *Reflective Regulation of Emotion* *Ability to stay open to feelings. *Ability to monitor and regulate emotions reflectively to promote emotional and intellectual growth (after Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 11).	*Intrapersonal Skills:* *Emotional self-awareness, *Assertiveness, *Self-Regard *Self-Actualization, *Independence. *Interpersonal Skills:* *Interpersonal relationships, *Social responsibility, *Empathy. *Adaptability Scales:* *Problem solving, *Reality testing, *Flexibility. *Stress-Management Scales:* *Stress tolerance, *Impulse control. *General Mood:* *Happiness, *Optimism.	*Knowing One's Emotions* *Recognizing a feeling *as it happens*. *Monitoring feelings from moment to moment. *Management Emotions* *Handling feelings so they are appropriate. *Ability to soothe oneself. *Ability to shake off rampant anxiety, gloom, or irritability. *Motivating Oneself* *Marshalling emotions in the service of a goal. *Delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness. *Being able to get into the "flow" state. *Recognizing Emotions in Others* *Empathic awareness. *Attunement to what others need or want. *Handling Relationships* *Skill in managing emotions in others. *Interacting smoothly with others
Model Type Ability	**Model Type** Mixed	**Model Type** Mixed

Source: Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000), Models of emotional intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.). Handbook of Intelligence (pp. 396–420). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Table 2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	N=114	%
Age:		
18-24	28	24,56
25-34	45	39,47
35-49	31	27,19
50+	10	8,77
Current Salary (Turkish Lira):		
	19	16,67
0-250	17	14,91
251-500	29	25,44
501-1000	21	18,42
1001-1500	13	11,40
1501-2000	15	13,16
2001+		
Educational Level:		
Primary School	9	7,90
High School	20	17,54
University	49	42,98
Master Degree	20	17,54
Doctorate	16	14,04
Father's Educational Level:		
Primary School	38	33,33
High School	35	30,70
University	41	35,97
Mother's Educational Level:		
Primary School	51	44,74
High School	40	35,09
University	23	20,17

Table 3 Means, standard deviations and reliabilities

Measure	M	S.D	Cronbach's Alpha
EI	129,64	16,570	0,903
SWLS	24,03	6,385	0,875

Table 4 Correlations among the variables

		Emotional Intelligence	Life Satisfaction
Emotional Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	1	,617(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	114	114
Life Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	,617(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	114	114

Table 5 Regression Analysis

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,617(a)	,381	,376	5,045

a Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence

Table 6 T-Test Analysis - Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Emotional Intelligence	Male	53	126,21	18,671	2,565
	Female	61	132,62	13,984	1,790
Life Satisfaction	Male	53	23,55	6,877	,945
	Female	61	24,44	5,951	,762

Table 7 T-Test Analysis - Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Emotional Intelligence	Equal variances assumed	-2,092	112	,039	-6,415	3,066	-12,490	-,340
	Equal variances not assumed	-2,051	95,400	,043	-6,415	3,128	-12,624	-,206
Life Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	-,745	112	,458	-,895	1,201	-3,276	1,485
	Equal variances not assumed	-,738	103,654	,462	-,895	1,214	-3,302	1,511

Table 8 ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Emotional Intelligence	Between Groups	1796,235	4	449,059	1,675	,161
	Within Groups	29230,020	109	268,165		
	Total	31026,254	113			
Life Satisfaction	Between Groups	329,568	4	82,392	2,100	,086
	Within Groups	4277,353	109	39,242		
	Total	4606,921	113			

Table 9 T-Test Analysis

	Marital Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Emotional Intelligence	Married	53	128,11	21,031	2,889
	Single	61	130,97	11,399	1,459
Life Satisfaction	Married	53	23,74	7,120	,978

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Single	61	24,28	5,719	,732

Table 10 T-Test Analysis (continue)

		t-test for Equality of Means					
							95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Emotional Intelligence	Equal variances assumed	-,917	112	,361	-2,854	3,114	-9,023	3,315
	Equal variances not assumed	-,882	77,554	,381	-2,854	3,237	-9,298	3,590
Life Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	-,451	112	,653	-,543	1,203	-2,927	1,841
	Equal variances not assumed	-,444	99,528	,658	-,543	1,222	-2,967	1,881

Independent Samples Test

Table 11 Correlations among monthly wage and life satisfaction level

		Current Salary	Life Satisfaction
Current Salary	Pearson Correlation	1	,106
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,261
	N	114	114
Life Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	,106	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,261	
	N	114	114

Tablo 12 ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Emotional Intelligence	**Between Groups**	517,594	4	129,398	,462	,763
	Within Groups	30508,661	109	279,896		
	Total	31026,25	113			

			4			
Life Satisfaction	**Between Groups**	218,194	4	54,548	1,355	,254
	Within Groups	4388,727	109	40,264		
	Total	4606,921	113			

Table 13 ANOVA (Individuals' mother's educational level)

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Emotional Intelligence	**Between Groups**	359,778	5	71,956	,253	,937
	Within Groups	30666,476	108	283,949		
	Total	31026,254	113			
Life Satisfaction	**Between Groups**	98,375	5	19,675	,471	,797
	Within Groups	4508,546	108	41,746		
	Total	4606,921	113			

Table 14 ANOVA (Individuals' father's educational level)

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Emotional Intelligence	**Between Groups**	399,603	5	79,921	,282	,922
	Within Groups	30626,651	108	283,580		
	Total	31026,254	113			
Life Satisfaction	**Between Groups**	114,671	5	22,934	,551	,737
	Within Groups	4492,250	108	41,595		
	Total	4606,921	113			