

Sjöberg, L. (2008). Emotional intelligence and life adjustment. In J. C. Cassady & M. A. Eissa (Eds.), *Emotional Intelligence: Perspectives on Educational & Positive Psychology* (pp. 169-184). New York: Peter Lang Publishing.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LIFE ADJUSTMENT

Lennart Sjöberg

Center for Risk Research
Stockholm School of Economics
Sweden
and
Department of Psychology
Norwegian University of Science and Technology
Trondheim
Norway

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LIFE ADJUSTMENT.^a

Lennart Sjöberg^b

Abstract

Emotional intelligence was hypothesized to be a factor in successful life adjustment, among them the successful achievement of a well-balanced life with little interference between work and family and leisure. Data from a sample of 153 respondents who were roughly representative of the population were obtained, including measurement of emotional intelligence, life/work balance and other indices of adjustment and social/psychological skills, and salary. EI was measured by both questionnaire items (trait EI) and a task of identifying emotions in social problem episodes as described in vignettes (performance EI). Balance was measured both in terms of family/leisure interfering with work and *vice versa*. Both interference dimensions correlated strongly with emotional intelligence in the hypothesized direction. Emotional intelligence was positively related to salary both for men and women, and at different levels of educational achievement. Other indices of social skill were also related to EI. On the other hand, those high in EI tended to be less concerned with economic success.

Key words: Emotional intelligence, life/work balance, economic success

^a Work supported by a grant from The Swedish Research Council.

^b Dr. Elisabeth Engelberg gave valuable comments on this work.

Emotional intelligence (EI) has been defined as the ability to perceive, understand, and manage emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1989-1990), and is assumed to be related to the ability of self-regulation (Martinez-Pons, 1999-2000). It has been suggested that EI is a factor of paramount importance in adjustment to life in general, and to work and work performance in particular (Goleman, 1995, 1998). The concept has spread quickly in the popular press and among human resource consultants.

Emotional intelligence and adjustment

The popular accounts by Goleman have later been found to be questionable (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). Yet, there have been studies giving some support to a relationship between EI and life success (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004; Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Martinez-Pons, 1999-2000). Following these earlier work, there is a continuing interest in exploring EI and various aspects of life adjustment. Some examples will be mentioned here. Vadnais found a strong relationship between EI and marital satisfaction (Vadnais, 2005). Empathy, a core aspect of EI, was related to success as a leader in a study by Kellett et al. (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006). High EI has been found to be associated with a low level of social interaction anxiety (Summerfeldt, Kloosterman, Antony, & Parker, 2006). Chapman and Hayslip found a measure of EI to have incremental validity beyond the Five Factor Model in predicting loneliness (Chapman & Hayslip, 2005). Yoo, Matsumoto, and LeRoux reported that the ability to recognize emotions (an important aspect of EI) was related to intercultural adjustment (Yoo, Matsumoto, & LeRoux, 2006). Ghorbani and Watsin (Ghorbani & Watson, 2006) also found incremental validity of EI, in a study of Iranian managers. Velasco et al. found further evidence for the validity of EI with regard to life adjustment, in a study of Psychology students (Velasco, Fernandez, Paez, & Campos, 2006). Engelberg and Sjöberg (Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2004b) found low EI to be associated with loneliness and excessive use of the Internet.

Hence, there is increasing evidence for the importance of EI but there is still a need for more research oriented towards the validation of the claims made for emotional intelligence as important in both occupational and settings and family or leisure life. Much of the empirical work on EI that is reported is concerned with college students, presumably because such data are easy and cheap to obtain. In the present paper, a more varied and representative sample of participants were approached.

Measurement of EI

Several ways of measuring EI have been devised (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Roberts & Schulze, 2005; Sjöberg, 2001a, 2001b). One approach is the use of questionnaire items measuring such dimensions as alexithymia, empathy, and self-actualization. This methodology was applied in our previous studies of EI where it was found that it was psychometrically feasible and gave promising results with regard to validity beyond what could be obtained with the usual Five Factor Model dimensions (McCrae & Costa, 1987; Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Sjöberg, 2001b). This approach will here be called the trait approach to measuring EI.

Meyer, Caruso, and Salovey have devised another major approach to EI, called here the performance approach (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999). The MSCEIT test of EI is based on their approach. EI is measured by means of judgment tasks, where test takers are instructed to

judge emotions expressed in e.g. music or art samples, or in social episodes. The “correct” response is usually scored by means of a consensual key established based on norm data or data in an experimental group. In other words, the modal response is scored as “correct”. The reliabilities of this type of measurement have been somewhat problematic to establish but most often they are acceptable, even if lower than for usual ability tests of the corresponding length. Sjöberg found, in two studies of applicants to college (Sjöberg, 2001a, 2001b), some convergence of trait and performance measures of EI. In a third study, with anonymous participants, much stronger convergence was found (Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2005)

When trait and performance measures are compared, some degree of convergence is usually found but it is frequently only of modest strength (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, in press). The reasons for the lack of strong convergence are as of yet not well known. More generally, people show some ability to judge their own cognitive abilities and personality scores, but less than perfect (Furnham & Dissou, 2007). Low or modest convergence makes it desirable to include both trait and performance measures of EI in a validation study such as the present one.

Trait EI is usually based on self-report scales, and such scales are subject to biases, e.g. due to social desirability. Yet, correcting for social desirability bias has not greatly improved the convergence of trait and performance measures (Sjöberg, 2001b). When it comes to self-reports of other types of performance, it is well known that the relationship is weak with actual performance, but still significant (Arvey & Murphy, 1998; Heneman, 1974). Various biases create a common tendency to over-estimate one’s performance, and the tendency is especially pronounced for people with a low level of actual performance (Hoffman, Nathan, & Holden, 1991).

It is also possible that the modest level of convergence of performance and trait approaches is caused by the fact that performance measures sample contents that are more restricted. Such measures are strictly confined to the identification and management of emotions, while trait measures typically deal with emotional and social skills across a wide range of behaviors. Social intelligence was a topic of some importance in early psychometric work, but interest waned when it was found to be highly correlated with verbal intelligence (Kihlstrom & Cantor, 2000; Weis & Süß, 2007). Yet, trait measures of EI sample social skills beyond the ability to identify and manage emotions in oneself and others. Trait measures should therefore not be expected to be strongly related to EI performance scales, and may yet be of importance for understanding life adjustment.

The present study operationalized EI in two ways. First, a number of personality dimensions had earlier been found to form a super-factor which could be interpreted as EI (Sjöberg, 2001a, 2001b) and showed convergence with performance EI and some other personality dimensions, as well as incremental validity beyond what could be obtained by means of the Five Factor Model. These dimensions were measured in the present study as well. Second, performance EI was measured by means of a shortened version of a social episodes test. This test had been used in previous work (Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2004c; Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2006) It is one aspect of the broad sample of performance measures used in the MSCEIT. Practical considerations made it impossible to incorporate more and different performance measures in the present survey design.

Purpose

The purpose of the present study was to assess the validity of the EI construct on a relatively wide array of criteria, and to do so in a reasonably representative sample of the population rather than in convenience samples. The study also used a design, which guaranteed anonymity to respondents and made it less likely that they would give tactical responses. The general considerations behind our choices of criteria will now be discussed.

Method

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was quite extensive, 34 pages in A4 format, and 750 questions. It opened up with some questions about general political attitudes (not reported here), followed by questions about economic status. Then followed items intended to measure psychophobia, 10 problem episodes involving 2 actors and 10 emotion judgments for each, the main questionnaire items needed to measure EI and creativity, questions about work motivation and life/work balance, 22 job risk items (not reported here), and 24 items measuring reactions to failure and frustrations. Finally, a number of questions concerning background data and evaluation of the questionnaire were included, and space was provided for comments on the study. All items are available on the web site <http://www.dynami-it.com/institute> (adjustment study).

The items were presented in random order. They were judged on a four-point response scale with the items "agree absolutely", "agree to some extent", "disagree to some extent" and "disagree absolutely".

Time to complete the questionnaire was 60 minutes (median), varying between 30 and 240 minutes. The quality of the design and questionnaire was rated on 9 scales, overall positively, by the participants, who found it clear and easy to follow (about 90%), meaningful (71%) and interesting (63%). Few had become worried about its risks (6%), but also few had become interested in getting more information about its topics (19%). Most respondents did not feel that the questionnaire was designed to influence their responses in some specific direction (65%).

Criteria related to EI

Several criteria were measured in order to validate the EI concept in as broad a manner as possible.

Background data. It was hypothesized that EI would be higher for women than for men (Barrett, Lane, Sechrest, & Schwartz, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000), and positively correlated with educational level. Age was hypothesized to be negatively related to EI, just as it is to other indices of achievement and performance, even if older people often can compensate well in certain tasks for a decline in basic neural efficiency (Baltes, Dittman-Kohli, & Kliegl, 1984).

Personality and attitude constructs. EI should be related to a number of personality constructs, either because it is a precursor of successful achievement or because it is itself caused by a high level of functionality, which is implied by some other personality factor. It was therefore hypothesized that EI would be positively related to self-esteem and to persistence in the face of failure, and that it would be negatively related to a tendency to shun from the inner psychological world, here called psychophobia. It should be positively related to creativity.

Work related criteria. One major life adjustment aspect is the balance, or lack thereof, of work and life outside work, i.e. family and leisure (Lobel, 1991; Lobel & St.Clair, 1992). A balanced life is held to be highly desirable, but may not be easy to achieve in times of stress and burnout, great demands on time from e.g. commuting to work and leaving and fetching children at the day-care center, etc. It is common to hear complaints about time stress and difficulties in achieving the good life one strives for, and the issue is in focus in current debate (Crompton & Lyonette, 2006). It should be noted that few men or women in Sweden are full-time homemakers and that consequently there are great time restrictions on their lives in the case that they have formed families and have children.

These problems of balance are partly due to structural conditions beyond the control of the individual, at least under restrictions that may be very hard for him or her to remove. Life in a big city involves much commuting time for most of its workforce, for example. But some of the problems may well be assumed to reside in the individuals themselves. Hence, it is reasonable to assume that high EI people cope more successfully with the conflicts arising from modern work and family life (Heiliger & Hingstman, 2000).

High EI should bring tangible rewards in the job context. In particular, we expect those high in EI to achieve more and to get a higher salary, at a given level of education and for men and women separately. People with a high EI should also be better adjusted in work life and value their jobs more positively. Work motivation should also be positively related to EI, and so should job satisfaction.

The successfully adjusted, high EI person should have been able to find and keep a job, which motivates him or her and which he or she finds satisfying. Hence, it is hypothesized that EI is positively related to work motivation and job satisfaction. On the other hand, the high EI person should be less likely to give very high priority to economic values (Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2006; Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2007).

Summing up, EI was hypothesized to relate positively to Level of education, Self esteem, Persistence in the face of failure, Creativity, Life/work balance, Salary level, Work motivation, and Job satisfaction. EI was also expected to be related to gender, women being higher in EI than men are. Furthermore, EI was hypothesized to be negatively related to age, younger people being higher in EI, Psychophobia, and Giving priority to economic values.

Scale construction. Reliabilities were estimated by means of Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951). The empathy (Hogan, 1969) scale of Mehrabian and Epstein (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1970) was used (present alpha=0.80, 33 items), as well as the Jones and Crandall scale of self-actualization (Jones & Crandall, 1986) (present alpha=0.67, 15 items). Furthermore the alexithymia scale of Bagby, Parker & Taylor (Bagby, Parker, & Taylor, 1994) was employed here (present alpha=0.84, 20 items), measuring ability to identify and describe feelings, as

well as a tendency to shun away from emotional dimensions in thought and social relations (Parker, Taylor, & Bagby, 2001; Sjöberg, 2001b) These are concepts close to EI, and EI and alexithymia have been found to be strongly (negatively) related (Parker et al., 2001; Sjöberg, 2001b). Roger and Najarian (Roger & Najarian, 1989) described a set of items measuring four aspects of emotion control; we used those measuring emotional inhibition (alpha=0.73, 15 items). Nineteen of the items of the scale of Machiavellianism (Christie & Geis, 1970), and 6 additional items written for the present study, were used (present alpha including the new items=0.73). This scale measures a cynical and manipulative attitude and has been found to be a negative indicator of EI (Sjöberg, 2001b).

Several scales were taken from current research in our unit: a belief that one is needed at the workplace (4 items, alpha = 0.84), mental energy and work motivation (Sjöberg & Lind, 1994), 11 items with an alpha=0.92, creativity (23 items and alpha=0.78), social indifference (14 items, alpha=0.82), aggression (0.61, 4 items), emotional inhibition (0.65, 4 items), and social isolation (0.60, 4 items). A self-esteem scale (0.79, 8 items) was included. Two separate scales measured Life/work balance: work interfering with leisure/family (0.91, 11 items) and leisure/family interfering with work (0.88, 6 items). Psychophobia was measured with 14 items, and an alpha of 0.78. Persistence in the face of failure was measured with 24 items and an alpha of 0.86. Job satisfaction was measured with two questions, which were pooled for the analysis. The Crowne-Marlowe scale of social desirability (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) was also used, 32 items with an alpha of 0.79.

The 10 indices mentioned above were standardized to z-score format and then pooled (averages) after appropriate reversals for each individual to a final score measuring self-report EI, which had an alpha of 0.89. The intercorrelations of the indices are given in Table 1. The factor structure of the table strongly supports the hypothesis of a unidimensional structure. The first component accounted for 52 % of the total variance, and the second and following components were small.

Table 1. Intercorrelations of the indices used to in the trait scale of EI. Scales have been reversed when needed in order to yield a score in the direction of high EI.

	Alexithymia	Social indifference	Fatalism	Self actualization	Machiavellianism	Empathy	Emotion control	Emotional inhibition	Social isolation	
Alexithymia	1.00									
Social indifference	0.71	1.00								
Fatalism	0.58	0.54	1.00							
Self actualization	0.67	0.67	0.39	1.00						
Machiavellianism	0.64	0.65	0.54	0.48	1.00					
Empathy	0.42	0.61	0.26	0.40	0.50	1.00				
Emotion control	0.62	0.70	0.32	0.53	0.42	0.51	1.00			
Emotional inhibition	0.23	0.30	0.10	0.32	0.08	0.33	0.45	1.00		
Social isolation	0.45	0.51	0.19	0.47	0.31	0.22	0.39	0.02	1.00	
Aggression	0.36	0.45	0.39	0.25	0.41	0.25	0.30	0.07	0.12	1.00

There were 10 vignettes describing social problem episodes, each to be judged on 10 emotion scales for each actor, in all 20 judgments for each vignette. They were subjected to consensual scoring, i.e. the modal responses in the whole group were first determined, and used to construct the scoring key. A score was then obtained for each respondent and vignette, varying from 0 to 20. The ten vignettes were then treated as items, and an alpha of 0.96 was obtained. The total score, the average of the ten vignettes, was used as a performance measure of EI.

Participants. The questionnaire was sent to 196 persons; 153 (78%) had responded after two reminders. The respondents were persons who had earlier taken part in our survey research and then indicated that they were willing to participate in yet another study. It is our experience from earlier research that such a group resembles the general population, as far as can be ascertained, quite well. Ninety-four of the respondents were men (61.4%), 59 women; 17% were singles. Age varied from 22 to 77 years, median 49. Many, 77.1%, had children of their own. College education was reported by 32%, about 14% higher than in the population. Grade school or the equivalent was reported by 23.6%, the others were in between in educational level, which was hence quite varying. Four groups dominated orientation of education beyond grade school: health (17%), humanistic subjects (22%), technology (13%) and trade/economics (18%). The proportion of respondents employed full or part time was 63.4%, 10.5% were retired and only 2.6% unemployed. The proportion of full-time students was only 3.3%. Only 20.3% lived in one of the four largest cities in the country, the rest were

spread over rural areas or small towns. Median salary was 18,700 SEK/month³, varying between 7,600 and 80,000. The proportion that did not state their income was 13.1%. Daily commuting time to work (both trips summed) varied between 5 (or less) minutes and 150 minutes, median 30 minutes.

Summing up, the group was roughly representative of the population with one clear exception: the average level of education was too high. On the other hand, this variable is usually not of major importance and, in addition, we did have a special interest in respondents with a high level of education. It should be noted that the respondents varied very strongly in background data, and that very few were students.

Results

Two approaches to measuring EI. Performance and trait EI were correlated, $r = 0.26$, $p=0.001$. The social desirability scale correlated 0.32 with the EI questionnaire score ($p<0.0005$), non-significantly (-0.16) with performance EI. Partialling out social desirability from the relationship between the two EI measures did not change the correlation. A similar control for relationships to be reported below produced only very marginal changes.

Background data and EI. Women got a higher score than men in trait EI, $t(151) = 4.639$, $p<0.0005$. The size of the difference in SD units was very large, 0.72. Performance EI showed the same tendency but the difference was somewhat smaller but statistically significant, see Fig. 1.

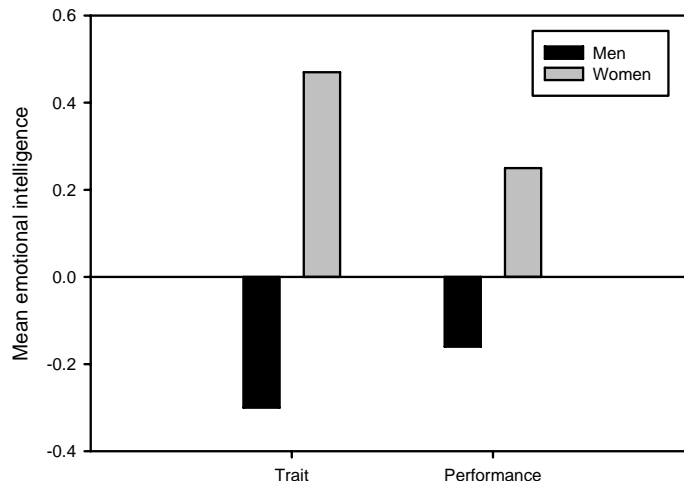


Figure 1. Gender differences in emotional intelligence, trait and performance. The scales are standardized to mean= 0, standard deviation = 1.

The respondents reported whether they lived alone or not. EI was significantly related to living as a single, see Fig. 3.

3. About 2,000 US \$.

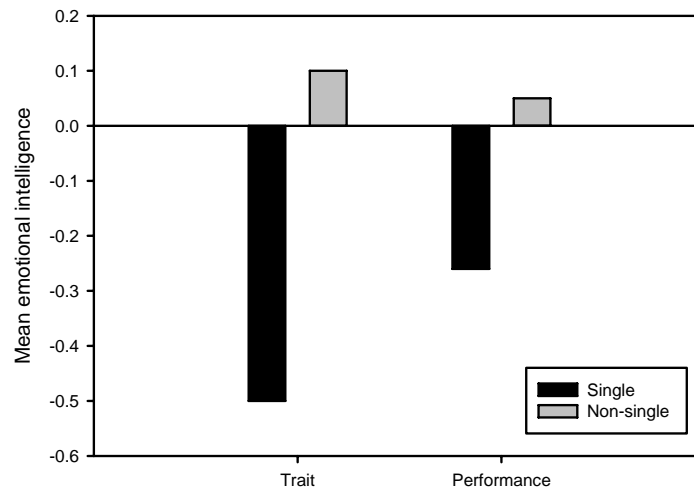


Figure 3. Differences in emotional intelligence between singles and non-singles. The scales are standardized to mean= 0, standard deviation = 1.

Educational level, scored in three categories, correlated 0.33 ($p < 0.0005$) and 0.20 ($p = 0.019$) with questionnaire and performance EI, respectively. Fig. 3 is a plot of trait EI (in z-score format) against educational level, for women and men separately. It is seen that the large gender difference existed at all educational levels.

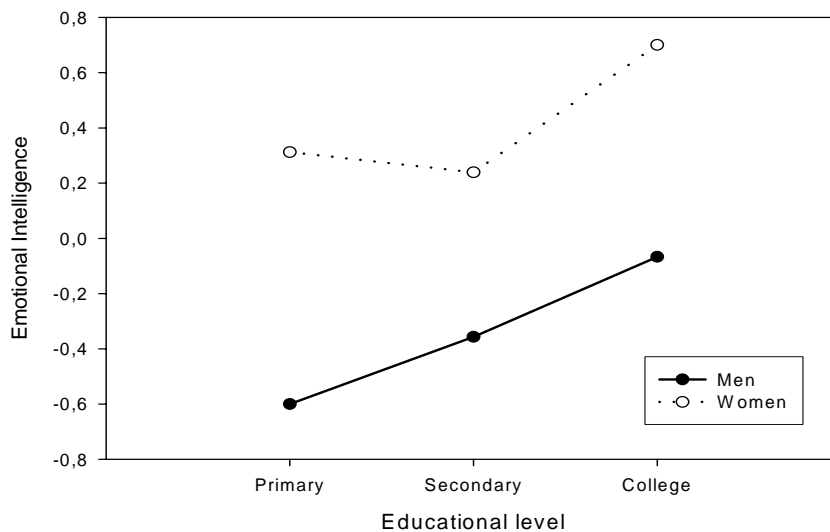


Fig. 3. Mean EI (trait) in z-score format against educational level for men and women separately.

The EI measures, in the same order, also correlated with age: -0.17 ($p = 0.036$) and -0.32 ($p < 0.0005$). Hence, the background data hypotheses were supported.

Personality and attitudes Correlations with personality and attitude scales are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Correlations between EI and personality/attitude variables.

	Trait EI	Performance EI
Self esteem	0.392***	0.079
Psychophobia	-0.694***	-0.256**
Persistence	0.207*	0.002
Creativity	0.523***	0.158*

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

The table shows the hypothesized relationships to hold, most clearly for trait EI but with the same tendencies for performance EI. It is interesting to note the strong correlations between trait EI and Psychophobia and Creativity.

Work related criteria. Relation with the work-related criteria is given in Table 3.

Table 3. Correlations between EI and work related criteria.

	Trait EI	Performance EI
Family/leisure disturbed by work	-0.586***	-0.244**
Work disturbed by family/leisure	-0.319***	-0.072
Work motivation	0.147	-0.156
Job satisfaction 1	-0.092	0.019
Job satisfaction 2	-0.012	-0.047
Salary	0.034	0.123

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

These results partly confirm the hypotheses. Life/work balance was clearly related to EI; see Fig. 4 for the most striking relationship ($r = 0.59$). On the other hand, neither work motivation, job satisfaction nor salaries were related to EI at this level⁴.

4. There were some indications of a positive relationship between EI and work motivation for men, and a negative for women. This finding should be followed up, and may reflect varying priorities of the genders between work and family/leisure.

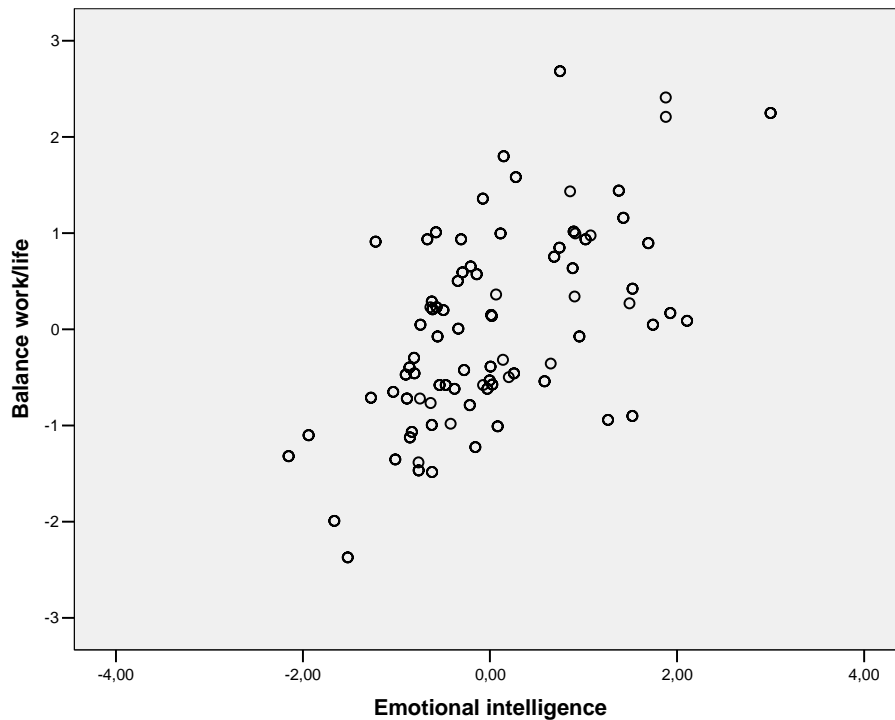


Fig. 4. Life/work balance (work interfering with leisure and family) plotted against trait EI.

Since women reported a lower salary than men did, and at the same time had a higher EI, an analysis considering gender would be more informative. A scrutiny of the data thus showed that performance EI did have incremental validity with regard to salary. (The same trend was found with trait EI, but weaker). In a regression analysis of salary, this EI measure was entered as an independent variable together with gender and level of education. The amount of explained variance (adjusted) was 0.184, and all three independent variables gave a significant addition to the model (EI weakest), see Table 4.

Table 4. Regression analysis with salary as dependent variable.

Effect	Standardized Coefficient	t	P(2 Tail)
Constant	0.000	4.784	0.000
Performance EI	0.180	2.092	0.039
Educational level	0.303	3.521	0.001
Gender	-0.323	-3.767	0.000

A major interest of the present study was the validity of the measures for the sub-group of respondents who had had a college education, see Fig. 5. It is seen that the salary increment was about 50% when EI increased from the lowest to the highest 20%.

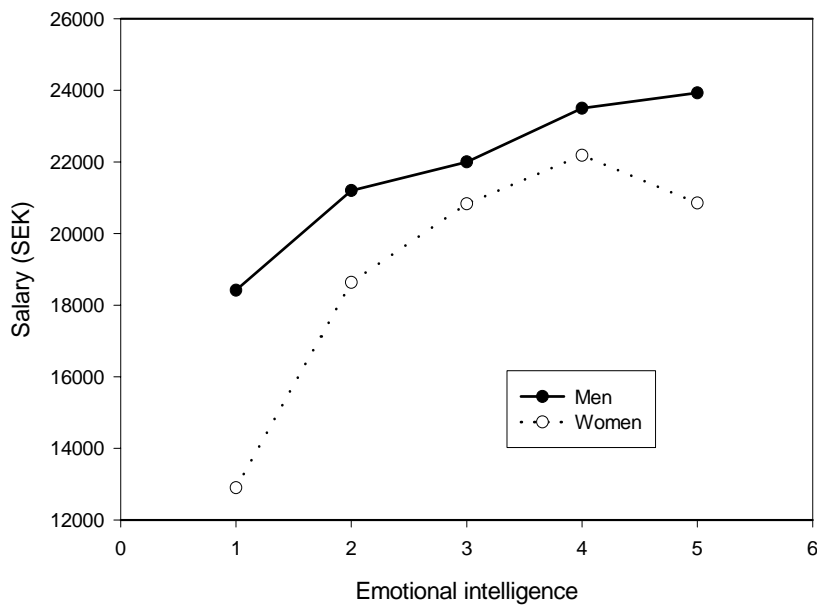
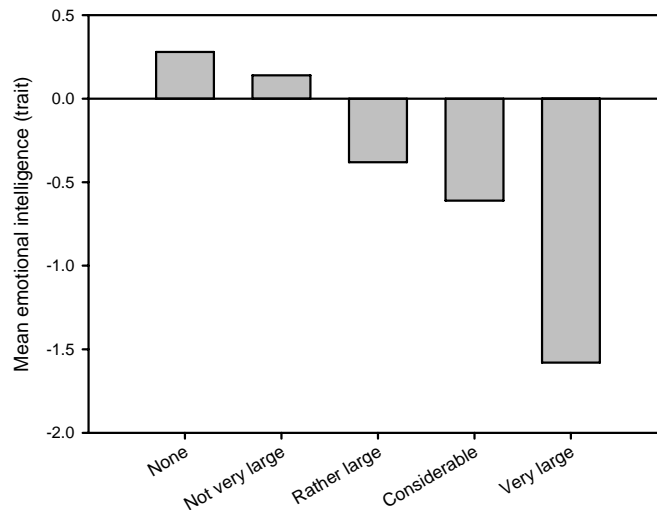


Fig. 5. Mean salary plotted against performance EI in 5 groups, each including 20% of the sample, for men and women. College educated respondents only.

Priority to economic values was measured by a question about the importance of economic aspects for vocational choice. It correlated -0.31 ($p < 0.0005$) with trait EI and -0.08 with performance EI (not significant). Fig. 6 shows the results for trait EI.



Figur 6. Mean EI as a function of the importance of economic factors for the choice of work.

A question about perceived economic success also gave a negative correlation with EI: -0.23 ($p=0.005$) and -0.18 ($p = 0.028$) for questionnaire and performance EI, respectively. Hence, there was clear support for the hypothesis that those with a high EI were less likely to see economic values as the most important ones.

Discussion

The hypothesized structure of the selected personality dimensions was supported by the results. A unidimensional structure was found, suggesting that trait EI emerges as a personality factor. EI could therefore be suggested as a sixth basic personality factor. Previous research has shown that trait EI has incremental validity beyond the Five Factor Model dimensions (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). It was also found that the two approaches to measuring EI converged significantly. In addition, they tended to show much the same correlations with other variables. It should be noted that the two EI measures sample very different types of behavior and are based on very different scoring philosophies.

Trait EI was throughout most strongly related to other variables, with the exception of salary level. Controlling for social desirability did not produce anything beyond marginal changes of the results. These results agree with other current work, e.g. that by Schutte et al. (Schutte, Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Bhullar, & Rooke, 2007) who found trait measures of EI to be related to health more strongly than performance measures. Further support for the trait approach is found in the study by Furnham and Petrides (Furnham & Petrides, 2003) of EI and happiness.

The present results support, in most respects, the EI construct, and its postulated relation to successful life adjustment. High EI was associated with a better balance of life and work and a

higher salary (especially for college-educated respondents)⁵. We further note that high EI was associated with better handling of failure and frustration, more creativity, less psychophobia, and higher self-esteem. Low EI was associated with loneliness.

With regard to demographics, especially women, highly educated people, and young people displayed high EI. EI was not associated with work motivation and job satisfaction, neither with making economics a high priority in life. On the contrary, high EI respondents downplayed economic values. Hence, the high EI people seemed to have skills that help them towards success in various spheres of life, both at work, and in achieving a balance of work and family/leisure. However, they had no one-sided priority of work, and hence did not show extreme values of work motivation. It is interesting to note that they still achieved higher salaries, on the average. It is possible that economic success is not always, or even often, positively related to a one-sided priority given to economic goals and work. These dynamics may function in different ways for men and women but a larger sample is desirable for investigating that possibility.

By way of summary, the present results support the notions that EI can be measured by both train and performance measures, and that EI is an important factor in life adjustment. The results agree well with previous research, which has used a number of different measurement approaches, and often convenience samples of college students.

The large gender difference in EI, favoring women, found in the present study calls for some comments. The difference agrees well with previous work (Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2004a; Petrides & Furnham, 2000). One cause of such findings could be that women react with stronger emotions than men under similar circumstances (Bradley, Codispoti, Sabatinelli, & Lang, 2001; Fujita, Diener, & Sandvik, 1991; Grossman & Wood, 1993) Engelberg and Sjöberg found that women had both a higher EI than men did, and a higher level of habitual affect intensity (Engelberg & Sjöberg, 2005) It is possible that women are more interested than men are in emotional and relationship problems and issues, and share those interests with other women. In this way, they develop skills and knowledge related to emotional life. Whatever the reason for the gender difference in EI, it is a very important fact to consider in many contexts, including the selection of personnel for high-level management jobs, where complaints about lacking emotional and social skills, and consequent failure, of executives are quite common (Greiner, Cummings, & Bhambri, 2003; Levinson, 1980).

⁵ . Some of this effect was due to low EI respondents reporting only part-time work. The sample was too small for a powerful analysis with these subjects deleted, but the tendency was the same. Part-time work can of course be a consequence of vocational failure - suggested by the present results - as well as the effect of many other factors.

References

- Arvey, R. D., & Murphy, K. R. (1998). Performance evaluation in work settings. *Annual Review of Psychology, 49*, 141-168.
- Bagby, R. M., Parker, J. D., & Taylor, G. J. (1994). The twenty item Toronto Alexithymia Scale -I. Item selection and cross-validation of the factor structure. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 38*, 23-32.
- Baltes, P. B., Dittman-Kohli, F., & Kliegl, R. (1984). New perspectives on the development of intelligence in adulthood: Toward a dual-process conception and a model of selective optimization with compensation. In P. B. Baltes & O. G. Brim (Eds.), *Life-span development and behavior* (pp. 33-76). New York: Academic Press.
- Bar-On, R., & Parker, J. D. A. (Eds.). (2000). *The handbook of emotional intelligence*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Barrett, L. F., Lane, R. D., Sechrest, L., & Schwartz, G. E. (2000). Sex differences in emotional awareness. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin, 26*, 1027-1035.
- Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, Discriminant, and Incremental Validity of Competing Measures of Emotional Intelligence. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin, 29*, 1147-1158.
- Brackett, M. A., Mayer, J. D., & Warner, R. M. (2004). Emotional intelligence and its relation to everyday behaviour. *Personality and Individual Differences, 36*, 1387-1402.
- Bradley, M. M., Codispoti, M., Sabatinelli, D., & Lang, P. J. (2001). Emotion and motivation II: Sex differences in picture processing. *Emotion, 1*, 300-319.
- Chapman, B. P., & Hayslip, B. (2005). Incremental validity of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 85*, 154-169.
- Christie, R., & Geis, F. L. (1970). *Studies in Machiavellianism*. New York: Academic Press.
- Ciarrochi, J. V., Chan, A. Y. C., & Caputi, P. (2000). A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. *Personality and Individual Differences, 28*, 539-561.
- Crompton, R., & Lyonette, C. (2006). Work-Life 'Balance' in Europe. *Acta Sociologica, 49*, 379-393.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika, 16*, 297-334.
- Crowne, D. P., & Marlowe, D. (1960). A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 24*, 349-354.
- Engelberg, E., & Sjöberg, L. (2004a). Emotional intelligence, affect intensity, and social adjustment. *Personality & Individual Differences, 37*, 533-542.
- Engelberg, E., & Sjöberg, L. (2004b). Internet use, social skills and adjustment. *CyberPsychology & Behavior, 7*, 41-48.
- Engelberg, E., & Sjöberg, L. (2004c). Internet use, social skills, and adjustment. *CyberPsychology & Behavior, 7*, 41-47.
- Engelberg, E., & Sjöberg, L. (2005). Emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills. In R. D. Roberts & R. Schulze (Eds.), *International handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 289-308). Cambridge MA: Hogrefe.
- Engelberg, E., & Sjöberg, L. (2006). Money attitudes and emotional intelligence. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*, 2027-2047.
- Engelberg, E., & Sjöberg, L. (2007). Money obsession, social adjustment, and economic risk perception. *Journal of Socio-Economics, 36*, 689-697.

- Fujita, F., Diener, E., & Sandvik, E. (1991). Gender differences in negative affect and well-being: The case of emotional intensity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *61*, 427-434.
- Furnham, A., & Dissou, G. (2007). The Relationship Between Self-Estimated and Test-Derived Scores of Personality and Intelligence. *Journal of Individual Differences*, *28*, 37-44.
- Furnham, A., & Petrides, K. V. (2003). Trait emotional intelligence and happiness. *Social Behavior & Personality*, *31*, 815-824.
- Ghorbani, N., & Watson, P. J. (2006). Relationships of experiential and reflective self-knowledge with trait meta-mood scale, constructive thinking inventory, and the five factors in Iranian managers. *Psychological Reports*, *98*, 253-260.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Greiner, L., Cummings, T., & Bhambri, A. (2003). When new CEOs succeed and fail: 4-D theory of strategic transformation. *Organizational Dynamics*, *32*, 1-16.
- Grossman, M., & Wood, W. (1993). Sex differences in intensity of emotional experience: A social role interpretation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *65*, 1010-1022.
- Heiliger, P. J., & Hingstman, L. (2000). Career preferences and the work-family balance in medicine: gender differences among medical specialists. *Social Science and Medicine*, *50*, 1235-1246.
- Heneman, H. G. (1974). Comparisons of self- and superior ratings of managerial performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *59*, 638-642.
- Hoffman, C. C., Nathan, B. R., & Holden, L. M. (1991). A comparison of validation criteria: Objective versus subjective performance measures and self- versus supervisor ratings. *Personnel Psychology*, *44*, 601-619.
- Hogan, R. (1969). Development of an empathy scale. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *33*, 307-316.
- Jones, A., & Crandall, R. (1986). Validation of a short index of self-actualization. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *12*, 63-73.
- Kellett, J. B., Humphrey, R. H., & Sleeth, R. G. (2006). Empathy and the emergence of task and relations leaders. *Leadership Quarterly*, *17*, 146-162.
- Kihlstrom, J. F., & Cantor, N. (2000). Social intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of intelligence* (pp. 380-395). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Levinson, H. (1980). Criteria for choosing chief executives. *Harvard Business Review*, 113-118.
- Lobel, L. A. (1991). Allocation of investment in work and family roles: Alternative theories and implications for research. *Academy of Management Review*, *16*, 507-521.
- Lobel, L. A., & St.Clair, L. (1992). Effects of family responsibilities, gender, and career identity salience on performance outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, *35*, 1057-1069.
- Martinez-Pons, M. (1999-2000). Emotional intelligence as a self-regulatory process: A social cognitive view. *Imagination, Cognition & Personality*, *19*, 331-350.
- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (2002). *Emotional intelligence: science and myth*. Boston, MA: MIT Press.
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, *27*, 267-298.

- Mayer, J. D., Roberts, R. D., & Barsade, S. G. (in press). Human Abilities: Emotional Intelligence. *Annual Review of Psychology*.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52, 81-90.
- Mehrabian, A., & Epstein, N. (1970). A measure of emotional empathy. *Journal of Personality*, 40, 525-543.
- Parker, J. D. A., Taylor, G. J., & Bagby, R. M. (2001). The relationship between emotional intelligence and alexithymia. *Personality & Individual Differences*, 30, 107-115.
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2000). Gender differences in measured and self-estimated trait emotional intelligence. *Sex Roles*, 42, 449-461.
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2001). Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies. *European Journal of Personality*, 15, 425-448.
- Petrides, K. V., Pita, R., & Kokkinaki, F. (2007). The location of trait emotional intelligence in personality factor space. *British Journal of Psychology*, 98, 273-289.
- Roberts, R. D., & Schulze, R. (Eds.). (2005). *International handbook of emotional intelligence*. Cambridge MA: Hogrefe.
- Roger, D., & Najarian, B. (1989). The construction and validation of a new scale for measuring emotion control. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 10, 845-853.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1989-1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9, 185-211.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Thorsteinsson, E. B., Bhullar, N., & Rooke, S. E. (2007). A meta-analytic investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and health. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42, 921-933.
- Sjöberg, L. (2001a). *Emotional intelligence measured in a highly competitive testing situation* (SSE/EFI Working Paper Series in Business Administration No. 2001:13). Stockholm: Stockholm School of Economics.
- Sjöberg, L. (2001b). Emotional intelligence: A psychometric analysis. *European Psychologist*, 6, 79-95.
- Sjöberg, L., & Lind, F. (1994). *Arbetsmotivation i en krisekonomi: En studie av prognosfaktorer. (Work motivation in a crisis economy: A study of prognostic variables)* (Studier i ekonomisk psykologi No. 121): Institutionen för ekonomisk psykologi, Handelshögskolan i Stockholm.
- Summerfeldt, L. J., Kloosterman, P. H., Antony, M. M., & Parker, J. D. A. (2006). Social anxiety, emotional intelligence, and interpersonal adjustment. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 28, 57-68.
- Vadnais, A. M. (2005). The relationship of emotional intelligence and marital satisfaction. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*, 66(1-B), 579.
- Weis, S., & Süß, H.-M. (2007). Reviving the search for social intelligence - A multitrait-multimethod study of its structure and construct validity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42, 3-14.
- Velasco, C., Fernandez, I., Paez, D., & Campos, M. (2006). Perceived emotional intelligence, alexithymia, coping and emotional regulation. *Psicothema*, 18, 89-94.
- Yoo, S. H., Matsumoto, D., & LeRoux, J. A. (2006). The influence of emotion recognition and emotion regulation on intercultural adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 30, 345-363.