

Psychology of Language Teaching

A Brief Review with Sample Studies

Farshad Ghasemi

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While you are experimenting, do not remain content with the surface of things. Don't become a mere recorder of facts, but try to penetrate the mystery of their origin.

Ivan Petrovich Pavlov
1849–1936

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PREFACE

I have always wondered about the role of psychological concepts and findings in exposing and explaining the true nature of our practices and actions. Also, how those concepts and theories dominate our world and enhance or reduce our true potentials in our endeavours. Therefore, this still unknown nature of humans' cognition and emotions deserve even more work and study to understand its true value and appreciate its illuminating nature. This book is the result of my academic work as well as my research on the psychological aspects of language teaching during my master's academic education.

The first section of the book includes key psychological concepts involved in language teaching by examining the related literature and prominent studies conducted by researchers. The second part of the book provides sample empirical studies on the covered key concepts to demonstrate the impact of these psychological concepts in language teaching contexts. These empirical studies include detailed research on the impact of hypnotic suggestion on learners' emotional intelligence and academic performance, the effect of the simplified tests on coordinating attitude of the students with learned helplessness, and a study on the aspects of teacher cognition and various contextual and professional factors influencing teachers' beliefs and practices. Finally, the book concludes with a summary of the presented concepts and studies in educational psychology and language teaching.

I should also mention that my work has been conducted at the Kharazmi University of Tehran. I hope this book could provide novice

researchers with an overall perspective to enhance their understanding of the role of educational psychology in language teaching and teacher professional development.

Consequently, I would like to thank Professor Borg for permitting his valuable work on teacher cognition to be reflected concisely in this book. Also, my deep-felt thanks are extended to Mohammad Tafakkor for making this project possible.

PART ONE

KEY PSYCHOLOGICAL CONCEPTS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

I. EMOTIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

This chapter will discuss the evolution of emotion and the influential aspects of emotional intelligence in guiding individuals' actions by considering the research which has investigated it as a determining factor affecting humans' behaviour.

1. Emotion

1.1. What are emotions?

Emotions are part of our everyday life, and they are critical and important parts of who we are and what we are capable of. For instance, a person's performance may be enhanced by the motivation aroused from his emotions or declined in challenges and risks for fear of incapacity, again, stimulated by his emotions. Lazarus (1991) considers the central role and significance of emotions in humans' life and specifically the psychological aspects of emotion, which are the core of individuals' learning.

To understand emotions, we may consider them as States and Traits. An emotion trait refers to a disposition or tendency of a person to react with emotion. On the other hand, an emotional state is a transient reaction to specific encounters with the environment, one that comes and goes depending on particular conditions. For the trait, we say someone is an angry person; for the state, we say someone is feeling or reacting with anger at a particular time and place. They are

interrelated concepts that influence each other. While states are stimulated in a specific situation, traits would reinforce this stimulation process. In other words, an emotional trait in a person possessing a specific personality characteristic would generate an emotional state or intensify it. As a result, a person with high stability would give rise to trait and recedes state, and instability in a person would stimulate state and recedes trait in importance (Lazarus, 1991).

The quest to know the nature of human emotions began by William James in 1884 in his celebrated essay in which he introduced emotions as perceptions of bodily changes. However, before him, there has been a keen interest and intellectual speculation subjected to emotions for centuries by others like Aristotle and the Stoics, who began developing complex accounts of their nature and value (Gardner, Metcalf, & Beebe-Center, 1937). So, theories about emotions stretch back as far as Stoics and ancient Greek who approached emotion as a balance between four senses of humour speculated by Hippocrates and the theory of moderation principle by Aristotle, who emphasized the balance in humans' emotions. These theories saw emotions as inferior or in conflict with both reason and rationality. During the enlightenment period, there was intellectual attention devoted to emotion in an attempt to understand its nature by philosophers such as Descartes, Spinoza, and Hume. For instance, Descartes provided an intricate taxonomy of emotions by describing their bodily causes, effects, and functions. Considering emotions from an evolutionary perspective, it was Darwin (1872) who initiated this approach in his book "Expression of Emotion in Man and Animals" by advocating that emotions are not simply irrational, but they actually serve an important purpose for us as humans. His theory helped researchers understand the functions of emotion and determine recent physical and neurobiological perspectives of emotions. The cumulative effect of these efforts is a dazzling range of answers to James' question. He advocated a physiological approach and argued that the essence of emotions is a physiological response that is secondary to the physiological phenomenon. This means that each emotion would stimulate a specific physiological and bodily function like raising the heart rate. Accordingly, James Lange, his student, supported this idea by considering the perception of bodily states as the emotion itself.

Then, Cannon (1939) contended that physiological response alone could not explain humans' emotional experience. He argued that

physiological responses are too slow and often imperceptible and proposed a simultaneous experience of both physiological responses as well as experience and subjective quality of emotion after subcortical brain activation of the input stimulus. Schachter and Singer (1962) proposed the two-factor theory of emotion, which states that the appraisal of physiological experience defines and determines the emotional experience. This means that physiological reaction contributed to emotional experience by facilitating a cognitive appraisal which helps to define the emotion itself. Hence, at the first stage, you perceive the stimulus and experience a physiological state; then, at the second stage, you interpret and evaluate your physiological state and experience emotion accordingly. The more recent cognitive theory was advocated originally by Lazarus, who maintained that cognitions and cognitive activities (judgment, evaluation, and thoughts) are necessary for emotions to occur. So, you cannot experience emotions unless you perceive, evaluate, and/or interpret them first.

Other theories have also looked at emotions from different perspectives; among them, you may notice a few especially popular ones that have characterized emotions as behavioural predispositions, biologically based solutions to fundamental life tasks, and culturally specific social constructions (Scarantino, 2005). As you go through these timeline theories of emotion, it gets clearer that you could spot some prominent factors involved in the construction of all theories, namely, physiological response and perception of the input stimulus. So, we may classify all factors involved in emotion as input perception, bodily changes, cognitive factors, behavioural predisposition, biological factors, and environmental issues. However, emotions could be triggered in the absence of a perceptible input or an ongoing action. In fact, humankind is simply hardwired for emotion. With his cognitive power and imagination, he may just pursue his predisposition or expectation and experience physiological response and emotional arousal (affective arousal) for an anticipated and preconceived situation or an upcoming event and action. This experience may be intentional and deliberate by the individual reflecting on a specific and predetermined activity like examination, or unintentionally by the unconscious attention toward the fixed and defined task. Consequently, these situations may or may not be the circumstances in which an emoter is currently disposed of, but he produces the

emotions according to the perceived requirement.

Furthermore, emotions are not constituted of a single phenomenon; they have multiple components that characterize their complex nature. First of all, emotions have a valence, which simply means that they can be positive or facilitative, negative or inhibitive, or neutral. The valence of emotion is believed to be important since, according to Cousins (1976), positive emotional states such as happiness (and laughter) will have therapeutic or prophylactic biochemical consequences in contrast to negative emotional states such as anger and anxiety. The positive emotions may go through a psychological route and, by producing a greater sense of self-efficacy or self-esteem, weaken the psychophysiological consequences of anger and anxiety or other negative emotional states (Lazarus, 1991).

The second components date back to the early writings of Darwin, who declared that emotions serve a certain purpose or function, and they are vital to our survival. We may utilize them to pursue our goals, and without them, we would encounter many problems pursuing and accomplishing our tasks and meaningful objectives in our lives.

1.2. Emotion, mood, feelings, affect, personality trait, cognition

It has been traditional in discussions of emotion to make a distinction among other types and related concepts of emotion and decide on similarities. Understanding the differences between emotion and these related concepts would contribute us to get a deeper perception of emotion, which is one of the main focuses of this book. Moods generally refer to the more long-lasting state and are described with broad terms such as happy, joyful, cheerful, carefree, apprehensive, excited, irritable, angry-hostile, or melancholy depressed. Unlike an emotion, the mood does not have an intentional or eliciting object and is more diffused. So, you may go to class excited for a while and in a good mood or exhausted with homework and bored with the class for no particular reason. However, according to Lazarus (1991), distinguishing emotions from moods on the basis of time span and duration by considering moods as more enduring may be often true, but some moods seem relatively brief and contextual, thus giving them an on-off character.

Furthermore, emotion is not feeling but sometimes used to refer to feelings by people (e.g., I am feeling sad). Specifically, feelings refer to

the subjective representation of the individuals' private and internal emotions experiencing them, but emotion also has a physiological response and behavioural component, which is expressed by people. Lazarus (1991) believes that it would be more precise to speak of feelings as sensory perception, as in feelings of pleasure and distaste rather than as emotion, and restrict the word feeling to the awareness of bodily sensations and regard the word emotion for occasions on which there has been an appraisal of harm or benefit.

Similarly, he correctly pointed out that it would be better to use the generic term emotion to refer to the subjective quality of emotional experience rather than using affect to refer to a single facet to stand for the whole. Therefore, affect is a broader and all-encompassing term that refers to general topics of emotion, feelings, and moods together.

We cannot also consider emotions as a personality trait since personality trait is stable individual differences across various situations and time; but, emotions are a more brief response to our external environment or internal thought or feelings. Finally, emotions are not our thought or cognitions. Although Lazarus stated that cognitions could give rise to emotions, they are something with distinct characteristics.

Cognitions do not have facial expressions as well as physiological arousal and changes that are accompanied by emotions. However, this doesn't mean that they are independent of each other or do not affect each other, but they corroborate and work together toward a common goal and purpose in a particular context. Since emotion and reason highly influence each other, it would be beneficial to discuss them in more detail, which may provide us with a better understanding of the function of these factors in a learning situation.

1.3. Reason and emotion

A careful analysis of the history of emotion theory reveals that, despite the existence of a significant association between emotion and cognition, there was a more common assumption that these constructs performed and functioned independently of each other. Damasio (1994), in his book, "Descartes' Error: Emotion, Reason, and the Human Brain", presented his personal reflections that were an attempt to answer his inquiry about the links between body and mind and reason and emotion.

I do know when I became convinced that the traditional views on the nature of rationality could not be correct. I had been advised early in life that sound decisions came from a cool head that emotions and reason did not mix any more than oil and water. I had grown up accustomed to thinking that the mechanisms of reason existed in a separate province of the mind, where emotions should not be allowed in to intrude, and when I thought of the brain behind that mind, I envisioned separate neural systems for reason and emotion. This was a widely held view of the relation between reason and emotion, in mental and neural terms. (1994, p. xi)

Emotions to Damasio act as a monitoring function, while cognitive processes continue, also, the experience of physiological perception. He provides a description of the connection between emotion and reasoning by stating that:

. . .emotion is the combination of a mental evaluative process, simple or complex, with dispositional responses to that process, mostly toward the body proper, resulting in an emotional body state, but also toward the brain itself (neurotransmitter nuclei in brain stem), resulting in additional mental changes. (1994)

Emotions may be considered as the first element affecting our reason and thought in interpreting situations, making a decision, and acting accordingly to demonstrate their dominance in our life. Therefore, they play a crucial role by facilitating or inhibiting our intellectual processes and imposing their power in controlling our mental and psychological activity projected in our performance. Accordingly, Segal (1997) rightly asked, is it possible that emotion affects thought more than thought affects emotion? Ellison (2001) declared that thought affects emotion, which in turn affects the physical self. Research has revealed that the centres of emotion continued to evolve right along with the neocortex and are now interwoven throughout the brain, wielding effect over brain functions. Furthermore, Goleman (1995) states that according to the brain-imaging technologies that attempt to envision a “map of the human heart,” emotional and rational parts of the brain do indeed depend on each other. In addition, we perceive and interpret everything in the situation through a sensory input like eyes, ears, and all of our senses which may be regarded as the input data. This

information is registered and received in the amygdala, a part of the brain most heavily involved in emotional memory, before sending messages to the neocortex (Segal, 1997). Also, according to Caine and Caine (1997), the brain links emotion, perception, and memory.

Segal (1997) considers intellect and emotion two halves of a whole that are synergistic resources; the absence of one makes the other incomplete and ineffectual. According to her, you can get an A on a test by utilizing intellect without emotion, but your success in life is declined without considering emotion. Although emotions may negatively affect a person's reason and performance, they also can motivate and positively reinforce individuals to accomplish and advance in their career or studies. Therefore, they may be facilitative, inhibitive, and neutral and affect our physical state.

In the educational context, we mostly deal with students' physical state, cognition, and emotions. Students bring with themselves the invisible emotions which may influence their learning the most, along with their visible physical state, which should be a teacher's centre of attention to understand their invisible part. This emotional state is always present in the learning situation formed by teachers' and learners' thoughts and actions in class, and the dominant mood in the class and their feelings toward the learning situation shape their emotions and personal motivation toward the learning processes. So, besides physical state and intellect, emotions are the dominant aspects present in the learning situation (See Ellison, 2001).

Emotions are part of our cognitive processes which interfere with our logical and intellectual processes during the various state in our life like learning, decision making, performing, interpreting, evaluating, etc. According to Hargreaves (1997), they are not an alternative to reason but an essential part of thinking, learning, and reason itself. Our personal or value judgments depend on our feelings. Emotional awareness brings our inner world into perspective and enables us to make good choices regarding our needs (Segal, 1997).

In short, we could regard emotions as an ability, if used effectively, donated to contribute or even empower a person and his cognitive processes to deal with various states like learning and problem-solving situations that demand not only our intellectual capacity but also emotional inspiration to accomplish them. So, according to the above research conducted on the connection between emotion and intellect, we may conclude that emotions are an additional capability that

combines with and assists cognition to enhance our understanding and inner perspective to cope effectively with demanding circumstances. By doing so, a person may be called an emotionally intelligent person who efficiently understands and leads his emotions along with and in the same direction or flow of his thought to recognize his capability in engaging different challenging situations in an attempt to realize his true capacity by stimulating his emotions. We now turn to emotional intelligence, as a critical aspect for humans' success, to review the previous research and understand its crucial role in our life and learning.

2. Emotional Intelligence

2.1. The nature of emotional intelligence

Throughout the history of psychology, research and theory on emotions have risen and receded (Goleman, 2003). Emotional intelligence is a dynamic construct influenced by diverse biological, psychological, and social factors. The field of emotional intelligence is a fairly new one, and there have been numerous research conducted in an attempt to understand its dynamic nature and expand it over the new areas of humans' life. Empirical studies investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and other aspects of our life like psychological and psychosocial factors were approved by several researchers which attest the significance of emotional intelligence and its remarkable contribution to the field of interpersonal relationships, success in work and personal life, psychological improvement, stress management, academic field, enhancing performance, and much more positive behavioural pattern. There have been many attempts to define this construct, and every endeavour has revealed a new perspective of this dynamic construct which has been subject to unparalleled interest. As a result, it can be defined in various ways, but basically, emotional intelligence is the "ability to accurately identify and understand one's own emotional reactions and those of others" (Cherniss & Adler, 2000).

Salovey and Mayer, who formally presented the term emotional intelligence in their academic article "Emotional Intelligence" in 1990, initially defined it as:

A form of 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 actions. (Salovey & Mayer, 1990)

In this definition, they considered emotional intelligence as a subset of social intelligence. Later, the revised definition of emotional intelligence by these authors led to the current characterization, which is being widely accepted. So, emotional intelligence was defined as:

The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions, and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997)

In this revision, Mayer and Salovey (1997) assumed that an emotionally intelligent person is capable of recognizing emotional information and performing abstract reasoning using this emotional information. However, this definition is restricted to personal emotions and perceptions and fails to incorporate emotions into the contextual and social perspectives, which comprise understanding others' emotions. This particular point was noticed and informed by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000), who concluded that emotional intelligence includes the ability to perceive, understand, appraise, and express emotion accurately and adaptively in order to access and generate feelings where they facilitate cognitive activities and, ultimately, the ability to regulate emotions in oneself and others.

After exposing to the work of Salovey and Mayer in the 1990s, Daniel Goleman attempted to provide a useful definition of the concept by specifically emphasizing achieving success, enhancing performance, utilizing social prosperity, and recognizing our emotions. Accordingly, he clarified emotional intelligence as:

The capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. (1998, p. 317)

Previously, he defined emotional intelligence as the ability to understand and handle your feelings to motivate yourself to get the job done by being creative and employing your potentials in sensing others' feelings to manage your relationship effectively (Goleman,

1997).

Reuven Bar-On (1997), another prominent researcher of the emotional intelligence construct and the originator of the term “Emotion Quotient”, used Gardner’s work to define emotional intelligence and emotion quotient within the context of personality theory. Thus, with a slightly different view, he defined emotional intelligence as:

An array of personal, emotional, non-cognitive, and social competencies, abilities and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures.
(1997, p. 4 & 14)

These three definitions were proposed by dominant characters in this area who primarily attempted to distinguish emotional intelligence from standard intelligence. In addition, lack of consensus may be connected to other major criticisms of the concept, like the problematic measures of the construct, the flexibility of this construct comparing with standard intelligence, unsubstantiated claims about the importance of emotional intelligence, and the similarity of emotional intelligence with personality theories. Because of the lack of consensus on a single definition, it would be wise to study and understand the meaning of emotional intelligence through these prominent characters in this field of inquiry. Therefore, their theories and ideas will be presented to acquire the basic and prominent perspectives and understanding of this construct.

2.2. Theoretical and historical perspectives

It was believed that intelligence per se was always connected with only intellect and cognition, which was called “g” for general intelligence. A person’s intelligence, born with a certain degree of it, could be assessed using short-answer tests (IQ tests). The assessed intelligence of a person was considered to be inherent and difficult to change. Intelligence quotients were developed and used during the initial part of the 20th century as the measures of intelligence, and French psychologist Alfred Binet pioneered the modern intelligence testing movement. A person’s IQ, investigated by modern studies, was connected to his/her potential for success in general (Wechsler, 1958) as well as to leadership success (Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986). However, researchers found that there are other psychological traits

that are predictive of success and in additional studies conducted on the importance of EQ and IQ, IQ accounted for only 4% to 25% of job success while as much as 90% of that success could be linked to emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998). Also, the validity of the general academic measure of IQ in predicting achievement was soon challenged for the lack of attention to the situational factors such as environment or cultural setting (Riggio, Murphy, & Pirozzolo, 2002).

Gardner's (1998) question, "were the IQ tests in this world to disappear, will it be impossible to identify a person as intelligent or otherwise?", led us to a new world of understanding which recognized not only the intellectual prowess but also other inherent abilities in an individual to evaluate his/her overall intelligence. Gardner asserted that interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence was as important as the type of intelligence that was typically measured by IQ tests (Gardner, 1983). According to Goleman (1995), the origin of the latest resurgence in interest in the subject goes back at least to Gardner's (1983) book "Frames of Mind", a work remarking that there must be more to people than traditional types of intelligence to explain their success in life. Other theorists began to assume that perhaps cognitive intelligence, as measured by IQ tests, did not comprise intelligence in its entirety, and, as a result, the existence of other distinct types of intelligence within one person conjectured.

However, emotional intelligence's roots can be traced to the beginning of the 20th century to Thorndike, who first regarded "non-intellective" elements to be equally important and identified it as "Social Intelligence". He was considered an influential psychologist in the areas of learning, education, and intelligence, as well as a pioneer in the scientific assessment of intelligence. He identified three bits of intelligence such as: mechanical, social, and abstract. He defined social intelligence as:

The ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls—to act wisely in human relations. (1920, p. 228)

Although the concept of social intelligence contributed to theories that insisted on recognizing other aptitudes in an individual, in itself, it was not successful or convincing. It definitely changed the way people perceived intelligence but failed to distinguish itself as a distinct form of intelligence. This inability to distinguish social intelligence as a distinct intellectual entity led to a declining interest in this theory. This

was followed by David Wechsler in 1940, the originator of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS), who referred to both non-intellective and intellective elements of intelligence and opined that:

The main question is whether non-intellective, that is affective and conative abilities, are admissible as factors of general intelligence. (My contention) has been that such factors are not only admissible but necessary. I have tried to show that in addition to intellective there are also definite non-intellective factors that determine intelligent behaviour. If the foregoing observations are correct, it follows that we cannot expect to measure total intelligence until our tests also include some measures of the non-intellective factors. (Wechsler, 1943)

Wechsler hypothesized that the non-intellective elements, which included affective, personal, and social factors, were essential for predicting one's ability to succeed in life (Wechsler, 1940). Later in the century, for the lack of consideration and research, interest in the notion of multiple intelligences (non-intellective factors) was revived by Howard Gardner in 1983. A Harvard-educated developmental psychologist and a strong critic of IQ tests, Gardner proposed a theory of multiple intelligences which dictated that:

Human beings are better thought of as possessing a number of relatively independent faculties, rather than as having a certain amount of intellectual horsepower (or IQ) that can be simply channeled in one or another direction. (1998)

Besides several latent abilities, including verbal, mathematical, musical, spatial, and movement-oriented, he divided personal intelligence into interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence. Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand and perceive the intentions, emotions, and desires of others; intrapersonal intelligence is the ability to understand and react to one's own feelings, which every human being possessed, maybe in varying degrees. These bits of intelligence were thought by Gardner to be as important as the type of intelligence typically measured by IQ tests (Gardner, 1983). In 1995, the eighth intelligence "naturalist" was added.

However, the word "Emotional Intelligence" itself was coined first and used in literary writing by Peter Salovey, a professor of psychology

from Yale University, and John Mayer, also a professor of psychology from the University of Hampshire, in 1990 (Cherniss, 2000), who was fascinated by findings of these prominent characters and took the research further by presenting the “Ability Model”. They considered emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability and thus as pure intelligence. Currently, the ability model proposed by Mayer and Salovey is the only ability model of emotional intelligence.

As mentioned before, among numerous current theories of emotional intelligence, the three that have produced the most interest are those of prominent characters in this field, namely, Bar-On (1997), Mayer and Salovey (1997), and Goleman (1998). According to Goleman (2003), all three theories seek to develop an understanding of how individuals recognize, understand, apply, and manage emotions in order to predict and improve individual effectiveness.

2.3. The Evolution of emotional intelligence theory

Salovey and Mayer: An ability model of emotional intelligence

The ability model of emotional intelligence developed by Mayer and Salovey over a series of articles in the 1990s is an intelligence model framed on the work of the IQ model, only dealing with emotions instead of cognition, and it is considered theoretically well-clarified. (Mayer & Salovey, 1993, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). They believe that their model focuses on how emotions contribute to intelligence, thought, and cognition, and, also, how emotional reasoning contributes to decisions and actions in everyday life (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Their revised framework was presented in 1997, resulting in a Four-Branch Model of emotional intelligence. The revised ability-based model presents emotional intelligence as having four branches that lay emphasis on emotional perception, assimilation, understanding, and management and ranges from the most basic psychological processes (i.e., identifying and using emotions) to higher-level mechanisms (i.e., understanding and managing emotions).

More specifically, basic psychological processes comprise perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion on the first branch and more complex psychologically integrated processes which require reflective regulation of emotions on the last branch. Each branch is divided into four abilities for a total of 16 emotional intelligence abilities. These abilities are then classified into early developing abilities and abilities that take longer to develop. The following table (Table 1)

presents a concise form of the four-branch model based on the Mayer and Salovey (1997) diagram.

Table 1. Components of Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence

| Emotional Intelligence | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Emotional perception | Emotions are perceived and expressed Emotions are sensed and influence our cognition |
| Emotional integration | Thoughts promote emotional, intellectual, and personal growth |
| Emotional understanding | Emotional signals are understood along with their implications |
| Emotional management | Management encourages openness to feelings |

The first branch, “Perception, Appraisal, and Expression of Emotion Ability”, is to be aware of and express your emotions and emotional needs accurately to others. Emotional perception also includes the ability to distinguish and discriminate between accurate and inaccurate or honest versus dishonest expressions of emotion. The second branch, “Emotional Integration; Emotional Facilitation of Thinking Ability”, is to distinguish among the different emotions being felt and identify those influencing thought processes. Also, emotions prioritize thinking by directing attention to important information, and emotional states differentially encourage specific problem approaches, such as when happiness facilitates inductive reasoning and creativity.

The third branch, “Emotional Understanding; Employing Emotional Knowledge Ability”, is to understand complex emotions such as feeling two emotions at once and recognising transitions from one to the other. In addition, it is the ability to interpret the meanings that emotions convey regarding relationships, such as that sadness often accompanies a loss. The fourth branch, “Emotional Management; Reflective Regulation of Emotions Ability”, is to connect or disconnect from an emotion depending on its usefulness in a given situation, and reflectively monitors emotions in relation to oneself and others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Finally, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso’s Emotional Intelligence Test

(the MSCEIT – the ability measure of emotional intelligence) is a complete test in that it meets several of the standard criteria for a new intelligence such as:

- ❖ It is operationalized as a set of abilities.
- ❖ It is objective in that the answers on the test are either right or wrong as determined by expert scoring and consensus.
- ❖ Its scores correlate with existing intelligence while accounting for the unique variance.
- ❖ Scores increase with age.
- ❖ It can classify each respondent within the range of E.I.Q. scores.
- ❖ It can be used in a multitude of settings and situations, including corporate, educational, clinical, correctional, research, and preventative settings (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

Bar-On: A mixed model of emotional intelligence

Bar-On, the director of the Institute of Applied Intelligences in Denmark and consultant for a variety of institutions and organizations in Israel, developed one of the first measures of emotional intelligence and used the term “Emotion Quotient”. He extended the work of Salovey and Mayer, framing the idea of emotional intelligence in terms of well-being and behaviour (Bar-On, 1997). Therefore, ability models regard emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability and, thus, as pure intelligence, but mixed models of emotional intelligence combine mental ability with personality characteristics such as optimism and well-being (Mayer, 2001).

Bar-On’s model encompasses both social and emotional factors when developing and measuring emotional intelligence and offers a broader perspective on emotional intelligence than Salovey and Mayer. He asserts that the incorporation of emotional and social competencies determines how well we can manage ourselves, interact and relate with others, and manage the daily challenges of life. The assumption of the Bar-On model is that high levels of social and emotional functioning will lead to high levels of psychological wellbeing (Bar-On, 2010).

Bar-On’s model of emotional intelligence concerns the potential for performance and success rather than performance or success itself and is considered process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented (Bar-On,

2002). It focuses on a multi-factorial array of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators, including the ability to be aware of, understand, and express oneself and relate to others; the ability to deal with strong emotions; and the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of a social or personal nature (Bar-On, 1997).

In his model, Bar-On identifies five components and the latent capability of emotional intelligence, and within these components are sub-components or 15 conceptual constructs in the operationalization of this model, which all pertain to five specific dimensions of emotional and social intelligence:

- ❖ ***Intrapersonal:*** *Emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, and independence.*
- ❖ ***Interpersonal:*** *Interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, and empathy.*
- ❖ ***Adaptability:*** *Problem-solving, reality testing, flexibility.*
- ❖ ***Stress Management:*** *Stress tolerance and impulse control.*
- ❖ ***General Mood:*** *Happiness and optimism. (2002, p. 3)*

Six steps were followed to develop the Bar-On model of emotional and social intelligence.

- ❖ Identifying and grouping relevant competencies that impact on human effectiveness.
- ❖ Defining the competencies and skills clusters.
- ❖ Constructing an experimental assessment tool, which initially consisted of over a thousand items.
- ❖ Cutting down the items to 15 scales and 133 items in the EQ-i.
- ❖ Creating norms for the EQ-i on 3 831 adults in the USA.
- ❖ Conducting further validation studies on EQ-i worldwide (Bar-On, 2007).

In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person's general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one's potential to succeed in life (Bar-On, 2002). It seems that he regards his model as a broader construct of emotional intelligence and called it "emotional and social intelligence". In short, Bar-On developed the EQ-i (Emotional Quotient Inventory), which is a self-report tool consisting of 133 items

and uses a five-point response scale to measure five meta-factors for individuals of sixteen years of age and over in dealing with environmental demands and pressures.

Goleman: A mixed model of emotional intelligence

The second mixed model of emotional intelligence has been proposed by Daniel Goleman, a psychologist and science writer who has previously written on brain and behaviour research for the New York Times, within a somewhat different conception. Goleman, inspired by the findings of Salovey and Mayer in the 1990s, conducted his own research in the field and eventually wrote “Emotional Intelligence” (1995), a prominent book that sensationalized the topic, and

Popularized Emotional intelligence, and made new and extraordinary claims about its importance, including that it is as powerful and at times more powerful than IQ. (1995, p. 34)

Whereas Reuven Bar-On’s model based on the context of personality theory, emphasizing the co-dependence of the ability aspects of emotional intelligence with personality traits and their application to personal well-being, Daniel Goleman’s mixed model emphasized performance, integrating an individual’s abilities and personality with applying their corresponding effects on performance in the workplace (Goleman, 2001).

Goleman’s (1995, 1998) mixed model conceptualizes the emotional intelligence framework and outlines five competencies that are associated with emotional intelligence, this being self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social awareness (empathy), and social skills (relationship management). He discusses each competency in detail (1995) as presented in the following table (Table 2).

However, independent reviews of Goleman’s (1995, 1998) popular writings have shown that his claims are unsubstantiated and lack empirical support and evidence (Mayer et al., 2000). Several measurement tools have been developed based on Goleman’s model of emotional intelligence and its corresponding competencies, namely,

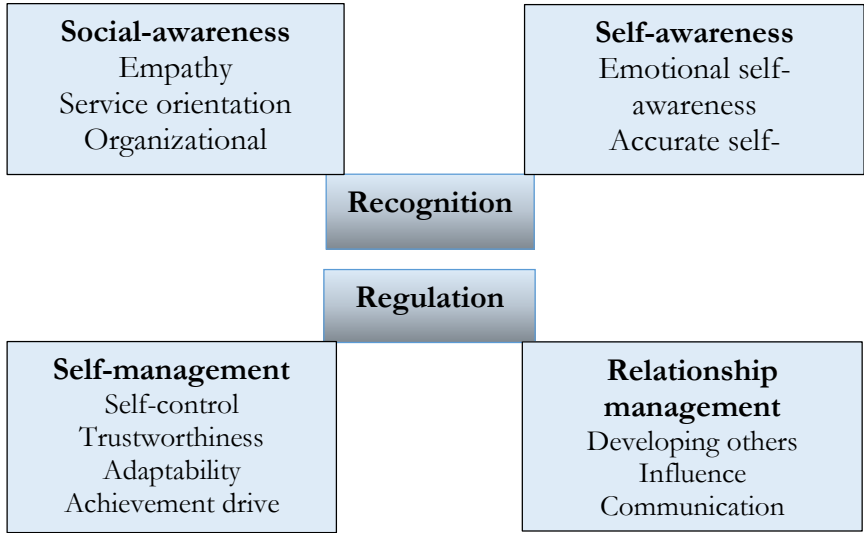
- ❖ Emotional Competency Inventory (Boyatzis, 1994).
- ❖ Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (Bradberry, Greaves, Emmerling, et al., 2003).

- ❖ Work Profile Questionnaire - Emotional Intelligence Version (Performance Assessment Network, 2000).

Table 2. Goleman's (1998) Mixed Model Competencies

| Competency | Explanation |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Self-awareness | Knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources, and intuitions. |
| Emotional management | It enables the individual to manage his own internal states, impulses, and controls. |
| Self-regulation | Involves self-monitoring, which allows the individual to adjust his behaviour according to external, situational factors. The element of self-regulation includes aspects such as trustworthiness, self-control, conscientiousness, adaptability, and innovation. |
| Self-motivation | The control of emotional tendencies that facilitate reaching one's goals. |
| Social awareness | An awareness of other people's feelings. |
| Social skills | Adeptness at handling interpersonal relationships |

Goleman's competence model has undergone a number of revisions since it was first developed. The last revision of the model was made on the basis of statistical analysis conducted by Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (2000) and five clusters were integrated into the four dimensions which still form the basis of the model as represented in the following figure (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Goleman's (2001) Emotional Intelligence Competencies

2.4. The development of research on emotional intelligence

Many constructs and factors have been found to influence or have a direct or indirect correlation with emotional intelligence, both contributive, facilitating the performance of an individual, and inhibitive or having a negative effect on individuals' performance. We will consider some of the dominant factors studied in recent research.

Age

There have been many studies certifying the contributive effect of age in improving emotional intelligence. For instance, Kafetsios (2004) studied 239 adults aged between 19-66 years and found that older participants scored higher on three out of four branches of emotional intelligence (e.g., facilitation, understanding, and management) which supports the view that emotional intelligence develops with age. Also, Van Rooy, Alonso, and Viswesvaran (2005) compared different groups' scores on a test of emotional intelligence with their age. Results indicated that emotional intelligence scores tended to increase with age. However, there have been studies that consider emotional intelligence independent of age. For instance, Tyagi (2004) measured emotional intelligence and its relation with age among secondary school teachers and found that the level of emotional intelligence is

low and independent of age. Likewise, Jacques (2009) had reported that age did not predict emotional intelligence among a sample of 221 college students.

Gender

Sex has also demonstrated a significant relationship with emotional intelligence. In a study conducted by Brackett, Warner, and Bosco (2005), assessing an ability measure of 86 heterosexual couples' emotional intelligence found out that female partners were significantly higher on their emotional intelligence scores than male partners. Similarly, Austin, Evans, Gold water, and Potter (2005) assessed their feelings about a communications skills course component of 156 first-year medical students who have been completed measures of emotional intelligence and physician empathy and found out females scored significantly higher than males on emotional intelligence.

However, a study by Depape, Hakim-Larson, et al. (2006) examined gender as a predictor of emotional intelligence in a diverse sample of 126 undergraduate participants and observed that gender was not a significant predictor of emotional intelligence contrary to their expectations. Another study on sex differences in emotional intelligence conducted by Carr (2009) among medical schools students ($N = 177$) indicated that male candidates had higher emotional intelligence scores than females.

Socio-economic status

The relationship between emotional intelligence and socio-economic status was studied by Namdar, Sahebihagh, et al. (2008) and reported a significant relationship between emotional intelligence score and students' satisfaction with their family socioeconomic status among nursing students. In addition, in a study by Mohanty and Devi (2010), the role of good education and occupation of parents in the interpersonal relationship of adolescents and their ability in establishing and maintaining a mutually satisfying relationship has been approved.

Academic achievement

In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on emotional intelligence, a large number of which have focused on the

relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement, language learning, and language proficiency. Research evidence demonstrating the predictive effects of emotional intelligence on academic achievement is growing enormously.

It has been reported that children with high emotional intelligence are more confident and better learners with high self-esteem and few behavioural problems. Also, they are more optimistic and happier and handle their emotions better (Ghosh, 2003; Gill, 2003). A research carried out by Barchard (2003) to show the extent to which emotional intelligence, cognitive ability, and personality domain predicted academic achievement of undergraduate psychology students using one-academic year scores as the criterion of assessment. The result indicated a strong association between cognitive ability and personality domain with academic achievement. Furthermore, Parker, Creque, Barnhart, et al. (2005) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement among 667 high school students who completed EQ-i: YV. After comparing students' academic records and data from EQ-i: YV at the end of the academic year, it was found that academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence.

However, in the study of Bastian, Burns, and Nettelback (2006) investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement on 246 predominantly first-year tertiary students, it was found that correlations between emotional intelligence and academic achievement were small and not statistically significant. According to Reilly (2005), in order to train students to understand emotion and increase their emotional intelligence in negotiation courses with traditional lectures, we can use role-plays and simulated exercises.

In this study, he described and analyzed one simulated exercise that has proven to be particularly effective in the classroom for teaching both the theory and practice of emotional intelligence; set forth the rudimentary components of a possible curriculum for emotions training, and concludes with reasons why law schools and other professional degree-granting programs can and should make training in emotions a curriculum staple.

This is one sample study that has supported emotional training in the curriculum in order to further empower teachers and even students to recognize their emotions and deal with them effectively. In addition,

this is also one of the prominent aims of the study to popularize the immense impact of emotion and emotional intelligence in learning situations. Now, we will turn to more cognitive aspects of language teaching by considering dissonance and cognition as the main themes of the next chapter.

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The scope and purpose of educational processes have been heavily modified under the influence of psychological breakthroughs and their developmental perspectives in recent decades. This book is an attempt to address some of the key psychological aspects in the literature classified into emotional, cognitive, and psychological perspectives with a particular concentration on language teaching. By presenting detailed empirical studies on the covered topics, I attempted to indicate the intertwined relationships of language and psychology in educational settings. The first study deals with the impact of teacher-directed hypnotic suggestion on students' emotional intelligence and their academic performance. The second study introduces simplified tests to coordinate the helpless attitudes of the students. In the last research, I examined the interaction effects of the contextual factors and teachers' professional profiles on their cognitive orientations with a specific focus on teachers' dissonance belief systems. Overall, this book provides an overview of the functions and influences of the psychological concepts in educational contexts, particularly language teaching.

