

THE EVALUATION OF WILLINGNESS TO RECEIVE STROKE: DETERMINING THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY FACTORS

Asma Ghandehari

English Department, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

ABSTRACT: *Emotional intelligence (EI) and personality traits are associated with satisfactory experiences by the learners, according to certain studies. In turn, the relationship between personality factors, emotional intelligence and willingness to receive stroke is also important. Therefore, present study aims to explore the relationship between willingness to receive stroke, emotional intelligence and personality traits. The study was conducted on 296 high school students from schools located in different areas of Mashhad. It was hypothesized that EI and personality traits would significantly predict the level of willingness to receive stroke. The relationship of emotional intelligence and personality traits with willingness to receive strokes was explored and tested both theoretically and empirically. Schutte's (1998) Self-report Emotional Intelligence (SSEIT), the Big Five Inventory (BFI), and Students' Stroke Scale (SSS) were used to assess emotional intelligence, personality traits and willingness to receive stroke among high school students. These postulates were examined by Statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) and structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques. The findings revealed that EI subscales were significant predictors of verbal and nonverbal strokes. Among the subscales, well-being positively and significantly predicted verbal stroke, while self-control negatively predicted non-verbal stroke. Further, Personality subscales were predictors of verbal strokes as well. Among the subscales, agreeableness and openness positively and significantly predicted verbal stroke, while neuroticism was a negative predictor. The findings suggest that emotional intelligence components are strong predictors of different components of stroke. Whereas, subscales of personality traits were found to be poor predictors of stroke components and only agreeableness and openness were found to positively and significantly predict verbal stroke.*

KEY WORDS: emotional intelligence, personality traits, willingness to receive stroke

INTRODUCTION

Learning as an effective process in person's development in life, affect the world of a person both privately and socially (Flood, 2003). Due to the rapid changes in the realm of science, information technology and communication, and also the emergence of new attitudes about social, political and cultural issues, there was a call for a fundamental change in instructional and educational system. In 21st century, researchers, teachers, and educators have highlighted the importance of some factors in learning.

In the first few decades of the century, the learning environment issues have been neglected. But In the recent fifty years, scholars using their experiences began to develop knowledge on the site therefore more and more efforts have been actively made to improve learning environments. The learning environment is of great importance for learners. They respond to good and poor learning environments by expressing positive and negative attitudes

respectively. A good learning environment by decreasing the stress level, makes concentration easier for students and it leads to logical thinking and also it is essential to meet not only the physical needs but also psychological needs of individuals during learning activities.

Emotions as an integral part of our daily lives, play a significant role in decision making, planning, networking, relationships (Goleman, 2003; 1999) as well as in creating a healthy working environment such as classrooms (Jordan, 2016; Heckman & Masteroy, 2004). The concept of emotional intelligence emerged due to the extended researches on the interaction of emotion and thought in the field of psychology in 1990s (Grewal & Salovey, 2006). EI is a set of skills, attitudes, abilities and competencies that determine the individual's behavior, reactions, state of mind, and communication style. These factors can directly affect the level of success, satisfaction, ability to connect to other people as well as the individual's ability to cope with stress, level of self-stream, and the perception of control and overall level of mental and emotional well-being (Sodhi, 2016). A number of studies have indicated that EI is about being aware of our emotions, understanding them, managing them or taking appropriate action, accordingly (Goleman, 2003; Goleman, 1999; Mayer & Salovey, 1999; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenious, 2001).

In an era where learners frequently feel disconnected from friends and teachers, teachers try to maintain a dynamic atmosphere. They are always analyzing and revising their methodologies to remain likeable and to enhance their teaching quality. To put differently, they are constantly trying to change and these ongoing efforts put a lot of strain on teachers as well as learners. Learners' laziness as well as unwillingness towards hard work and limited knowledge of teachers about the subject and also lack of skills in recognizing students' needs are the reasons why they are not successful in this regard. To come up with this it seems becoming familiar with individual differences can help teachers to create an atmosphere that requires students flow. When students feel a sense of belonging in a respectful environment, they are more likely to focus on their academic work. Satisfaction and psychological well-being can be characterized as indicators of good mental functioning (Argyle, 1987).

Cognitive factors are predictors of learning in general and thus it is clear that they are influential in language learning in particular. Yet, there is a urgent need for more research on the role of emotions in learning as Goetz, T., Preckel, F., Pekrun, R., & Nathan C. Hall., stated that "Despite burgeoning research interest in the role of affect in psychological development, emotions experienced in the academic domain has until recently remained a largely unexplored field of psychological research" (2007, p. 3). Besides emotional intelligence, one of the most influential factors in learning is personality.

Despite ample studies, researches in the field of personality and emotional intelligence and their relationship, in order to shed light on the impact of these two factors on other factors such as stroke, further studies are apparently required. To the best of our knowledge it seems that the relationship between learner's personality traits and stroke and also the relationship between their emotional intelligence and stroke have not been examined to date. Hence, based on the gaps in the previous studies and limited numbers of research studies in which stroke has been under study in the field of language learning and also the growing interest in the concept of stroke, current research was an empirical endeavor aimed to investigate the relationship between EI and each personality trait and to willingness to receive stroke in classroom situation.

Since it can be assumed that the response to the stroke depends on the person's personality and EI, this study attempts to seek the relationship. Therefore, the present study addresses the following questions:

1. Does emotional intelligence significantly predict stroke?
2. Does personality type predict the willingness to receive stroke?

LITERATURE REVIEW

A number of researchers claimed that learning is an emotional activity. According to Riemer (2003), EI is effective in improving learning potentials of foreign language acquisition. Meng and Wang (2006) also argued that positive emotions can facilitate language learning and it also improves language performance. In the same vein, López (2011) asserted that demotivation that happened as a result of anger or fear that can put language acquisition in danger can be solved by cultivating emotions. She also maintains that being able to make use of emotions, increases self-esteem and empathy which significantly contributes to learners' attitudes and motivation can facilitate language learning. MacIntyre (2002, p.45) stated that emotions "just might be the fundamental basis of motivation, one deserving far greater attention in the language learning domain". Two factors that have great influence on second language learning achievement are motivation for and attitudes towards second language (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013).

Over the years, people whether in the Western or Eastern world, witnessed the tremendous alternation of teaching quality. Teaching in classrooms instead of being focused on students learning has shifted to improve the quality and standard of teaching (Biggs & Tang, 2007). Therefore, with such shifts, introducing a more interactive classroom environment that can fulfill the students' needs, is as essential as being in line with the progress in education. Understanding such needs requires a more in-depth knowledge of the emotions and feelings of students and what makes them satisfied, happy and have the motivation to learn and vice versa. Hence, in line with creating a better learning environment, establishing a creative classroom environment, focusing on teamwork, critical thinking and problem solving have been emphasized (Biggs & Tang, 2007).

Emotional Intelligence

When the term emotional intelligence was introduced for the very first time in 1990, it has become a buzzword in psychology and has been used in so many fields including education, management studies, and artificial intelligence. Darwin's work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and second adaptation seems to be the earliest roots of emotional intelligence (Bar-on, 2006). Although, In the 1900s, intelligence definitions put an emphasis on the cognitive aspects such as memory and problem-solving, there were researchers who tried to recognize the importance of the non-cognitive aspects. As an illustration, in 1920, the term social intelligence was used to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people by Thorndike. Similarly, in 1940 Wechsler described the influence of non-intellective factors on intelligent behavior, and further argued that our models of intelligence would not be complete until we can provide adequate description of these factors (Bar-on, 2006).

The term emotional intelligence, as a set of interrelated abilities, was coined and defined first by Salovey and Mayer (1990). They described EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and other

feelings and emotions, discriminate among them and use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). Other investigators also believed EI is a mixture of different traits as happiness, self-esteem, optimism, and self-management rather than being concerned as the specific ability of a person (Bar-On, 2004, Boyatzis & Sala, 2004, Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Goleman (1998) defined an "emotional competence" as a "learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work." Developing emotional intelligence can make individuals more productive and successful at what they do, and by promoting their understanding and relationships help others become more productive and successful too.

There are several distinctive models to measure EI. Generally EI models conceptualize the concept from the perspective of ability or mixed models. The first ability model which considers emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability was generated by Salovey and Mayer (1990). Two other famous models which take into account a combination of mental abilities with other constructs such as personality characteristics are that put forth by Bar-on (1997) within the context of personality theory which is process-oriented and theory of performance proposed by Goleman (1988).

Despite the completeness of the aforementioned theories of emotional intelligence, none is used in scientific research studies. Those that can be utilized in reality are the Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS) and the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT). The former is in the form of a self-report to see how people are aware of emotions in both themselves and others. The latter which is used in this study is a 33 item self-report measure of emotional intelligence developed by Schutte and colleagues (1998).

Personality Traits and EI

There is plenty of research on personality traits that explains its impact on human behaviors in different situations. The theory of personality traits claims that the way people interact with different situations and their environment varies tremendously. From a management perspective, the theory of personality traits provides valuable information about an individual's personality pertaining to what is the best method of communicating with them and what types of jobs and tasks they are most suitable for (Imran, 2017). Over the past century, a prominent approach for personality descriptions was the five factors (FF) approach. In this field, the five-factor model (FFM) of personality is a conceptualization of personality comprising behavioral, emotional and cognitive patterns which comprehensively covers the five major traits that define human personality across cultures: Neuroticism (N), the tendency to experience negative emotions such as anxiety and depression; Extraversion (E), the tendency to be sociable, warm, active, assertive, cheerful, and in search of stimulation; Openness to Experience (O), the tendency to be imaginative, creative, unconventional, emotionally and artistically sensitive; Agreeableness (A), the dimension of interpersonal relations, characterized by altruism, trust, modesty, and cooperativeness; and Conscientiousness (C), a tendency to be organized, strong-willed, persistent, reliable, and a follower of rules and ethical principles (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005).

It has been proposed that EI Models presented by theorist have been closely attached with personality theory (Bar-On, 2005; Goleman, 1995). The components and sub-components of these two scales show a higher degree of overlap with each other. Many studies investigated the tie between EI and personality traits as EI is considered as a pivotal factor since one by

understanding and controlling emotions can construct his personality. Brackett and Mayer (2003) identified that there is a significant correlation between EI and neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness, but slight correlation with openness to experience. In the same vein Sala (2002) found that EI is significantly related to extraversion, openness to experience and conscientiousness. The same was reported by (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Saklofske, Eustin & Minski, 2003; Athota, O'Conner, and Jackson, 2009; Wolfradt, Felfe, and Koster, 2001; Myleen, L., Michael, R., & William, F. (2009) which evaluate the relationship between EI and personality trait components.

Stroke

The concept of stroke as one of the components of transactional analysis was presented by Berne (1988). He introduced six components of transactional analysis: ego states, transactions, life scenario, life positions, time structures, and strokes. The research used in this study is based on stroke, the most basic concept of transactional analysis.

Berne (1988), defined "Stroking" as a general term for intimate physical contact and a fundamental unit of social action which may be utilized to imply the recognition of another's presence. As he further mentioned a stroke is a verbal or non-verbal unit of recognition. In fact sending and receiving strokes constitutes a transaction, which is the unit of social intercourse. To simply clarify the notion of Transactional Analysis he stated that it is a method to study interactions between individuals.

Strokes are classified into different types: verbal or non-verbal, positive or negative, conditional or unconditional (Stewart & Joines, 1987; Solomon, 2003). Saying 'Hi' and smiling, frowning, shaking hands are instances of verbal and non-verbal strokes. The positive strokes are pleasant and receivers feel good while in negative strokes receivers experience discomfort and hurt. An unconditional stroke is given for being and conditional ones for what people do what they accomplish. Stewart and Joines (1987) believed that receiving negative stroke is better than receiving no stroke and in this regard Newell and Jeffery (2002) asserted that better performance are the result of receiving stroke and recognition from their teachers. There exist not hefty literature on stroke in language teaching to date, and only a few studies which has been conducted in Ferdowsi University of Mashhad (Iran) showed interests to the role of giving and receiving stroke in classroom context. For instance, Pishghadam and Khajavy (2014) designed and validated a measure of student stroke to examine the relationship between this construct and motivation, coming up with a positive correlation between them. Another study conducted by Irajzad, Pishghadam, and Shahriari (2017) worth considering as well. They analyzed the strokes received by high school students in language courses (Persian, Arabic, and English) in Iran. The results indicated that teachers provide different types of strokes to students in these language courses. They mainly attributed their findings to the types of habitus they form in their career.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

A sample of 296 male and female students, their age ranged from 13 to 50, were asked to take part in this quantitative study. Socioeconomic dispersion was ensured through selecting learners from among high schools located in different areas (high, middle and low) in Mashhad,

Iran for the purpose of designing the EFL learners' sensory stroke scale (SSS) and confirming its content and construct validity. All participants spoke Persian as their mother tongue. Convenience sampling was employed to recruit participants and their participation was completely voluntary. Prior to the study, the participants were ensured that all of the obtained information would be kept confidential and only used for the purpose of the present research.

Instruments

For eliciting data, three questionnaires were used to record and tally the required information. The measures included the Schutte (1998) Self-report Emotional Intelligence (SSEIT), the Big Five Inventory (BFI), and Students' Stroke Scale (SSS).

SSEIT measures general Emotional Intelligence using four sub-scales of perception, appraisal and expression of emotions, understanding and analyzing emotions, emotional management, and emotional facilities of thinking. The SSEIT is structured based on the EQ model developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990). It consists of 33 items anchoring on five point Likert format, with 1 representing strong disagreement and 5 representing strong agreement (Schutte et al, 1998). High scores correspond to a high level of emotional intelligence. The internal consistency reliability of this scale as reported by Khosrojauid (2002) in Iran was quite good ($r = .81$). The instrument enjoyed a fair level of internal consistency reliability with...

The Big Five Inventory (BFI) as the second instrument was used to capture the personality traits of the respondents. The BFI developed by John and Srivastava (1999) to examine the big five dimensions of personality consists of 44 items on Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. Each trait is assessed by eight to ten items. Participants are asked to rate each item using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 as strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree, based on how they feel the item describes them. Rammstedt (2007) reported the reliability of this scale as 0.61. Anisi, Majdiyan, GohariKamel and Joshanloo (2012) commented on the validity and reliability ($r = .83$) of the Persian version of this questionnaire.

The Student Stroke Scale developed by Pishghadam and Khajavy (2014) was utilized to assess the strokes students receive within classrooms. Since the main focus of the present study was on assessing students' stroke preference, the items and their corresponding factors were described one by one. The scale consists of 18 items which requires students to respond to the items on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 corresponding to strongly disagree and 5 representing strong agreement. The four factors were named Verbal, Non-verbal, Valuing, and Classroom activities. Verbal stroke is the label for the first factor which consists of 6 items. Items 5 and 6 refer to naming, which can be an important component of recognition (Churches & Terry, 2007). Items 7, 8, and 14 refer to encouraging, blaming, and complimenting, which show the amount of teacher's attention to his/her students, and item 18 deals with asking questions. The second factor is called Non-verbal stroke, which refers to the types of non-verbal recognition, teachers give in the class. This factor consists of 4 items; the third Factor which is known as Valuing comprises 4 items. And the last factor is called Classroom activities consisting of 4 items. All these items focus on classroom activities and tasks, including doing homework, exercise, participating in class discussions, and asking questions. It is fair to say that all these factors were somehow consistent with the stroke theory (Stewart & Joines, 1987).

Cronbach's alpha calculated for this sample was .88. This assured the researchers that they can proceed with data gathering to assess the students' stroke.

Procedure

All the scales were distributed among students who were willing to answer the questionnaires under school permission. As the students' native language is Persian, all the scales were in Persian to make sure that the students understand and rate the items correctly. All questionnaires were administered in one session and the researcher was present at the site for giving instructions. The students were given ample time to answer the items of the questionnaires.

In order to address the first and second research question, descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation), inferential statistics such as multiple regressions (to study prediction level) and Pearson's correlation coefficient test (to study the relationship between variables) were used. For this purpose, all the required calculations were performed by SPSS 23 software. Finally, to confirm the validity of the newly-developed scale of willingness to receive stroke, Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used by utilizing Amos software.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and reliability were calculated for stroke and personality subscales. Table 1 summarizes the results of descriptive statistics for stroke and personality subscales.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Stroke and Personality Subscales

	α	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Extinct	.69	19.00	36.00	27.8900	3.13112
Agreeableness	.72	19.00	39.00	30.2733	3.71816
Conscious	.74	17.00	42.00	28.5867	4.02615
Neuroticism	.68	13.00	33.00	22.7967	3.88832
Openness	.75	26.00	49.00	37.3667	4.52923
Verbal	.66	10.00	30.00	22.9700	3.88580
Nonverbal	.75	7.00	20.00	15.1933	2.50670
Valuing	.78	6.00	20.00	15.1467	2.71719
Class Activities	.85	4.00	20.00	15.1300	2.99829
Well-Being	.75	23.00	65.00	49.2433	6.49189
Self-control	.68	19.00	63.00	32.3433	4.77088
Sociability	.70	19.00	83.00	40.9700	6.10409
Emotionality	.71	6.00	30.00	21.9967	3.83654
Total EI	.76	64.00	170.00	121.836	14.24546

Then, the validity of the newly developed scale of willingness to receive stroke was examined through Confirmatory Factor Analysis. To check the model fit, goodness of fit indices were taken into account. In this study, χ^2/df , CFI, TLI, and RMSEA were checked. χ^2/df should be less than 3, CFI and TLI should be above .90, and RMSEA less than .08. One item was removed due to very low factor loading. The final model showed good fit to the data (see Figure 1). All

goodness of fit indices were within the acceptable range: $\chi^2/df = 2.78$, CFI = .91, TLI= .93, and RMSEA = .07.

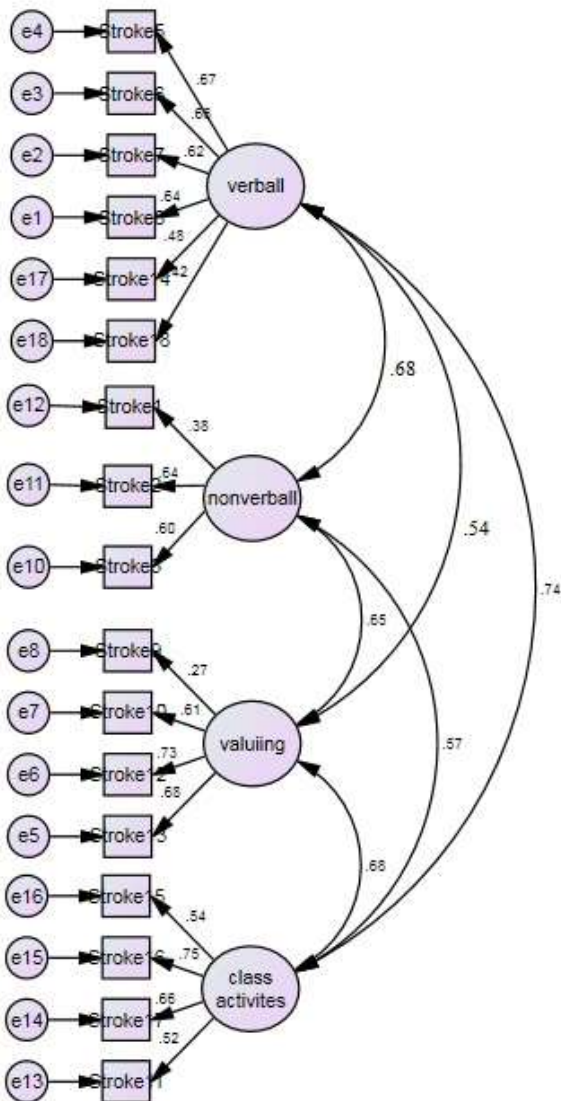


Figure 1. Confirmatory factor analysis of willingness to receive stroke scale

Following this the correlation between stroke with EI and personality traits was examined. The results can be seen in Table 2. As this Table indicates, verbal stroke is positively correlated with all EI subscales. Moreover, verbal stroke is positively correlated with openness and negatively related to neuroticism.

Table 2

Correlation between Stroke with EI and Personality Traits

	verbal	Non-verbal	Valuing	Class activities
1-Well-being	.30**	.11*	.21**	.28**
2-self-control	.11*	-.08	.14*	.16**
3-sociability	.25**	.11*	.19**	.22**
4-Emotionality	.24**	.03	.19**	.27**
5-Extraersion	.02	.11*	.05	.07
6-Agreeableness	-.08	.13*	.10	.01
7-Conscientiousness	-.06	.11*	.06	.12*
8-Neuroticism	-.17**	-.07	.04	.01
9-Openness	.12*	.06	.14*	.09

Non-verbal stroke is positively related to well-being, sociability, extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Valuing is positively related to all EQ subscales, and openness. Finally, class activities were positively related to all EQ subscales and conscientiousness.

Multiple regressions were used to examine the predictability of stroke subscales by EI and personality. The results were summarized in table 3. First, EI subscales as predictors of stroke subscales were examined. Results can be seen in Table 3. As Table 3 indicates, EI subscales were significant predictors of verbal stroke ($F = 8.62, p < .05$). They accounted for 10.5% of the variance in verbal stroke. Among the subscales, only well-being ($\beta = .31, p < .05$) positively and significantly predicted verbal stroke.

EI subscales were significant predictors of non-verbal stroke ($F = 4.18, p < .05$). They accounted for 5.4% of the variance in non-verbal stroke. Among the subscales, well-being ($\beta = .28, p < .05$) positively and significantly predicted verbal stroke, while self-control negatively predicted non-verbal stroke ($\beta = -.19, p < .05$).

EI subscales were significant predictors of valuing stroke ($F = 4.17, p < .05$). They accounted for 5.4% of the variance in valuing stroke. Among the subscales, only well-being ($\beta = .17, p < .05$) positively and significantly predicted valuing stroke.

EI subscales were significant predictors of class activities ($F = 7.25, p < .05$). They accounted for 9% of the variance in class activities. Among the subscales, only well-being ($\beta = .17, p < .05$) positively and significantly predicted class activities.

Table 3: *Relation between EI Subscales and Stroke*

Factor	Predictor	B	F
Verbal	Well-being	.31**	8.62***
	self-control	-.07	R ² = .105
	sociability	.11	
	Emotionality	.04	
Non-verbal	Well-being	.28**	4.18**
	self-control	-.19**	R ² = .054
	sociability	.10	
	Emotionality	-.16	
Valuing	Well-being	.17*	4.17**
	self-control	.03	R ² = .054
	sociability	.10	
	Emotionality	.03	
Class activities	Well-being	.18*	7.25**
	self-control	.01	R ² = .090
	sociability	.06	
	Emotionality	.10	

Then, personality subscales as predictors of stroke subscales were examined. Results can be seen in Table 4. As Table 4 indicates, personality subscales were significant predictors of verbal stroke ($F = 3.65, p < .05$). They accounted for 5.9% of the variance in verbal stroke. Among the subscales, agreeableness ($\beta = .12, p < .05$) and openness ($\beta = .15, p < .05$) positively and significantly predicted verbal stroke, while neuroticism ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$) was a negative predictor. As Table 4 indicates, personality subscales were not significant predictors of non-verbal stroke ($F = 2.13, p > .05$). As Table 4 indicates, personality subscales were significant predictors of valuing stroke ($F = 2.71, p < .05$). They accounted for 4.4% of the variance in valuing stroke. Among the subscales, openness ($\beta = .14, p < .05$) positively and significantly predicted verbal stroke. Finally, personality subscales were not significant predictors of class activities ($F = 1.92, p > .05$).

Table 4

Relation between Personality Traits and Stroke

Factor	Predictor	B	F
Verbal	Extraversion	.01	3.65**
	Agreeableness	.12*	R ² = .059
	Conscientiousness	.01	
	Neuroticism	-.16**	
	Openness	.15*	
Non-verbal	Extraversion	.08	2.13
	Agreeableness	.09	R ² = .035
	Conscientiousness	.05	
	Neuroticism	-.08	
	Openness	.01	
Valuing	Extraversion	.07	2.71**
	Agreeableness	.11	R ² = .044
	Conscientiousness	-.09	
	Neuroticism	.05	
	Openness	.14*	
Class activities	Extraversion	-.07	1.92
	Agreeableness	.01	R ² = .031
	Conscientiousness	-.11	
	Neuroticism	.01	
	Openness	.11	

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Since Emotional Intelligence is a determinant factor of our performance, physical capacity and even our relationships and the way we act in our daily life is affected by our personality type; this study sought the relationship between these constructs and stroke. While no other study was found to have embarked on a similar endeavor, this study tried to first delve into the association between emotional intelligence and stroke and then to investigate this relationship between personality and stroke. To better understand these relationships, the most predictive combinations of these variables were highlighted.

With respect to the first question of the study, as the results indicated, the researchers may conclude that emotional intelligence components are related to stroke, that is the highest scores in emotional intelligence were in association with high scores in different components of stroke. Almost all constructs of emotional intelligence, well-being, self-control, sociability, and emotionality were related to all four parts of stroke. It seems that emotional intelligence components are strong predictors of different components of stroke. According to the results obtained from this research, the factor with the highest positive relationship with stroke was well-being. This means that the higher levels of personal well-being mentioned by Berrocal and Ruiz (2008) show less social anxiety and depression and greater use of coping strategies for problem solving. EI offered a new perspective in the study of emotions, which provides useful information for solving everyday problems. Following this approach, the managing our emotions is considered as a vital step for health and psychological well-being.

In a study by Elfenbein and Ambady (2002), the ability to perceive emotions in others' facial expressions and pick up subtle signals about people's emotions predicted peer ratings of how valuable these people were to their organization. Students with high EI can recognize their own emotions, develop positive attitudes towards others, and feel they are competent to help each other. Therefore, it is fair to say that they are more eager to receive stroke.

The term social skills which is in self-esteem and personal confidence covers a wide variety of skills and competencies. By improving ones social skills, being easy to talk to, being a good listener, being sharing and trustworthy, you also become more charismatic and attractive to others. The findings of this study illustrated that sociability as one of EI components is a good predictor of willingness to receive verbal stroke. The possible explanation for the result may be connected with the findings of the study conducted by Ogundokun and Adeyemo (2010) who stated that high level of sociability may assist students in seeking help from teachers and/or peers which shows their willingness to receive stroke. Furthermore, giving verbal stroke by a teacher, as the findings illustrate can help an individual reflect on patterns of behavior and become self-confident in his abilities and capabilities. Students feel a sense of belonging in a respectful environment and they are free to focus on their academic work.

As defined by Mayer and Salovey (1990), Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to accurately perceive and express emotions, assimilate emotions into thoughts, understand emotions, and regulate emotions in the self and others. According to this definition those with high emotional intelligence understand their emotions and they don't let their feelings rule them. They know their strengths and weaknesses, and they work on these areas so they can

perform better, they are willing to defer immediate results for long-term success. They are highly productive, love challenges, and are effective in whatever they do. They are not afraid of change. They understand that it is a necessary part of life to change so they may receive any kind of stroke eagerly. They're not perfectionists. This justifies if the teacher gives stroke either verbally or non-verbally on their mistakes, they know that they can learn from their mistakes. They feel good about their lives and don't let critics or toxic people affect that. Our brain is naturally structured to focus on the negative elements. Positive occurrences of stroke allows children to build optimism in a realistic way and teaches them to focus on the things that they do well.

The findings of the study are in line with Gates' (2000) results who believed that providing the classrooms with emotions enables both student and instructor to manage feelings and provides useful methods to address difficulties that could lead to better success. Also Brackett and Salovey (2004), Marquez P., Gil-Olarte M.R.P., Brackett M. (2006), Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D.R., Sitarenios, G. (2003), and Williford (2000) and Pishghadam (2009) especially believed that EI is related to academic achievement. Emotions affect how and what individuals learn. Lacking awareness toward emotions raise an individual's stress level and dealing with stress make learning a challenging (Medina, 2008).

The second research question was investigating the predictability of personality type stroke. When the relationship between stroke and personality measures including the five-factor-model was examined, its subscales were found to be poor predictors of stroke components and only agreeableness and openness were found to positively and significantly predict verbal stroke and neuroticism was a negative predictor.

These results are similar to those obtained in other studies (Fontana & Abousaarie, 1993). Neurotic people generally tend to experience negative feeling such as anxiety, anger, or depression and they respond emotionally to events that would not affect most people. Having these characteristics, these people infer ordinary situations threatening, and minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult. Hence, it can justifiably explain why there is a negative correlation between this type and willingness to receive verbal stroke. Agreeable people, according to Thompson (2008), are perceived as kind, sympathetic, cooperative, warm and considerate. Agreeable people can get along with others better. They are considerate, friendly, generous, helpful, and willing to compromise their interests with others. They also have an optimistic view of human nature. They believe people are basically honest, decent, and trustworthy. This can justify why they trust their teacher and receive verbal stroke. Moreover since these types of people are better liked, stroking is an important skill to master.

Openness is reflected in people who are intellectually curious, appreciative of art, and sensitive to beauty. They tend to be more aware of their feelings, think and act in individualistic and nonconforming ways. All these features imply that students who are open receive and value positive stroke.

However, although

h research findings indicated the importance of emotional intelligence in expanding our possibilities for personal impact, it was focused on the willingness of students in receiving stroke, this study should have considered the attitude of teachers in giving stroke. There are

some methodological limitations of the study like sample size, and the kind of instrument that is used. Therefore, to have a solid understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence, personality and stroke, the replication of this study with a large sample is needed. Besides, studies with a longitudinal design using different ways of gathering information like observation can shed more light on giving and receiving stroke. In spite of these limitation, this study provides a valuable heuristic to optimize teaching and learning as well as to guide future research in this issue.

References

- Anisi, J., Majdiyan, M., Joshanloo, M., & Ghoharikamel, Z. (2001). Validity and Reliability of NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) on University Students. *Behavioral Sciences*, 5(4) 17-18.
- Argyle, M., & Crossland, J. (1987). The dimensions of positive emotions. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 26(2), 127-137.
- Athota, V. S., O'Connor, P. J., & Jackson, C. (2009). The role of emotional intelligence and personality in moral reasoning. In R. E. Hicks (ed.), *Personality and individual differences*.
- Bar-On, R. (1997). *The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), Technical manual*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (2004). The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): Rationale, description, and summary of psychometric properties. In Glenn Geher (Ed.), *Measuring emotional intelligence*.
- Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI) 1. *Psicothema*, 18(Suplemento), 13-25.
- Berne (1988). *Games people play*. New York: Grove Press.
- Biggs, J., & Tang, C. (2007). Setting the stage for effective teaching. *Teaching for quality learning at university*, 31-59.
- Boyatzis, R.E., and Sala, F. (2004). Assessing emotional intelligence competencies. In G. Geher (ed.), *The Measurement of Emotional Intelligence*, Hauppauge, NY: Novas Science Publishers.
- Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and social psychology bulletin*, 29(9), 1147-1158.
- Cano-García, F. J., Padilla-Muñoz, E. M., & Carrasco-Ortiz, M. Á. (2005). Personality and contextual variables in teacher burnout. *Personality and Individual differences*, 38(4), 929-940.
- Churches, R. & Terry, R. (2007). *NLP for Teachers, How to be a highly effective teacher*. UK: Crown House publishing.
- Fernández-Berrocal, P. & Ruiz, D. (2008). Emotional Intelligence in Education. *Electronic Journal in Educational Psychology*, 6(2), 421-436.
- Elfenbein, H. A., & Ambady, N. (2002). On the universality and cultural specificity of emotion recognition: a meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, 128(2), 203.
- Fontana, D., & Abouserie, R. (1993). Stress levels, gender and personality factors in teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 63, 261–270.
- Flood, J., Lapp, D., Squire, J. R., & Jensen, J. M. (2003). *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Publishers, 10 Industrial Ave., Mahwah, NJ 07430-2262.

- Gates, G. S. (2000). The socialization of feelings in undergraduate education: A study of emotional management. *College Student Journal*, 34(4).
- Goleman, Daniel. (1995). Emotional intelligence. New York: Bantam.
- Goleman, Daniel. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam/Doubleday/Dell.
- Goleman, D. Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership, realizing the power of emotional intelligence*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Goleman, D. (2003). *Healing emotions: Conversations with the Dalai Lama on mindfulness, emotions, and health*. Shambhala publications.
- Grewal, D. D., & Salovey, P. (2006). Benefits of emotional intelligence. *A life worth living: Contributions to positive psychology*, 104-119.
- Hadfield, J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2013). *Motivating learning*. Harlow: Pearson.
- Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of educational research*, 77(1), 81-112.
- Heckman, J. J., Stixrud, J., & Urzua, S. (2006). The effects of cognitive and noncognitive abilities on labor market outcomes and social behavior. *Journal of Labor economics*, 24(3), 411-482.
- Hosseini, S. (2016). *EFL teachers' perceptions of stroke and their application in class: A qualitative study* (M.A. thesis). Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran.
- Irajzad, A. (2015). *Stroke analysis of English, Persian and Arabic teachers in the context of Iranian schools* (M.A. thesis). Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran.
- Irajzad, F., Pishghadam, R., & Shahriari, H. (2017). Examining the Stroking Behavior of English, Persian, and Arabic School Teachers in Iran: A Mixed-methods Study. *International Journal of Instruction*, 10(1), 219-236.
- John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big-Five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research*, (pp.102–138). New York: Guilford Press.
- KhosroJavid, M. (2002). *Investigation of validity and reliability of Schutt questionnaire of emotional intelligence*, (Master's thesis), Tarbiat Moalem University of Tehran, Iran. [In Persian]
- Lopes, P.N., Salovey, P., Cote, S., & Beers, M. (2005). Emotion regulation ability and the quality of social interaction.
- McCrae, R. R., & Terracciano, A. (2005). Universal features of personality traits from the observer's perspective: data from 50 cultures. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 88(3), 547.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (2002). Motivation, anxiety and emotion in second language acquisition. *Individual differences and instructed language learning*, 2, 45-68.
- MacIntyre, P. D., MacKinnon, S. P., & Clément, R. (2009). The baby, the bathwater, and the future of language learning motivation research. *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, 43-65.
- Marquez P., Gil-Olarte M.R.P., Brackett M. (2006). Relating emotional intelligence to social competence and academic achievement in high school students. *Psicothema*, 18(1) 118-123.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R., & Sitarenios, G. (2001). Emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D.R., Sitarenios, G. (2003). "Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0". *Emotion*, 3 97–105.

- Medina, J. (2008). *Brain rules*. Pear Press: Seattle, Washington.
- Myleen, L., Michael, R., & William, F. (2009). A study of personality preferences and emotional intelligence. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*.
- Newell, S., & Jeffery, D. (2002). *Behavior management in classroom: A transactional analysis approach*. Routledge.
- Ogundokun, M. O., & Adeyemo, D. A. (2010). Emotional intelligence and academic achievement: The moderating influence of age, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *The African Symposium: An online journal of the African Educational Research Network*, 10(2), 127-141.
- Petrides, K. V., Frederickson, N., & Furnham, A. (2004). The role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and deviant behavior at school. *Personality and individual differences*, 36(2), 277-293.
- Piderit, S. K. (2000). Rethinking resistance and recognizing ambivalence: A multidimensional view of attitudes toward an organizational change. *Academy of management review*, 25(4), 783-794.
- Pishghadam R. (2009). A quantitative analysis of the relationship between emotional intelligence and foreign language learning. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 6(1):31–41.
- Pishghadam, R. & Khajavi Gh. (2014). Development and validation of the Student Stroke Scale and examining its relation with academic motivation, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad.
- Rammstedt, B. (2007). Measuring personality in one minute or less: A 10-item short version of the Big Five Inventory in English and German. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 41 203–212.
- Riemer, M. J. (2003). Integrating emotional intelligence into engineering education. *World Transactions on Engineering and Technology Education*, 2(2), 189-194.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition and personality*, 9(3), 185-211.
- Saklofske, D. H., Austin, E. J., & Minski, P. S. (2003). Factor structure and validity of a trait emotional intelligence measure. *Personality and Individual differences*, 34(4), 707-721.
- Sala, F. (2002). *Emotional Competence Inventory: Technical Manual*. Boston: the Hay Group.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and individual differences*, 25(2), 167-177.
- Sodhi, R. (2016). Emotional Intelligence as Predictor of Mental Health among Normal and Chronic Disease Group. *The International Journal of Indian Psychology*, 129-140.
- Solomon, C. (2003). Transactional analysis theory: The basics. *Transactional Analysis Journal*, 33(1), 15-22.
- Stewart, I. and Joines, V. (1987) *TA Today*. Nottingham: Life Space Publication.
- Thompson, H.L., & Petrosko, J.M. (2008). Managerial recruitment: The influence of personality and ideal candidate characteristics. *Journal of Management Development*, 27(6), 631-648.
- Ur, P. (1996). *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Van der Zee, K., Thijs, M., & Schakel, L. (2002). The relationship of emotional intelligence with academic intelligence and the Big Five. *European journal of personality*, 16(2), 103-125.

- Williford H. (2000). The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement in Eleventh Graders. Retrieved at 20, November, 2010 from: <http://www.nadasisland.com>.
- Wolfrad, U., Felfe, J., & Koster, T. (2001). Self-perceived emotional intelligence and creative personality. *Imagination, cognition, and personality*.
- Zare, P., & Riasati, M. J. (2012). The relationship between language learning anxiety, self-esteem, and academic level among Iranian EFL learners. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 20(1), 219-225.