

**Associations Between Emotional Intelligence, Personality Type, and Attitude  
Towards Seeking Psychological Assistance**

Gina Dailene MacBeth

Mount Saint Vincent University

A thesis submitted to the Department of Education

in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts in School Psychology

September, 2006

Copyright © 2006 by Gina Dailene MacBeth



Library and  
Archives Canada

Bibliothèque et  
Archives Canada

Published Heritage  
Branch

Direction du  
Patrimoine de l'édition

395 Wellington Street  
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4  
Canada

395, rue Wellington  
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4  
Canada

*Your file* *Votre référence*  
*ISBN: 978-0-494-34575-7*  
*Our file* *Notre référence*  
*ISBN: 978-0-494-34575-7*

**NOTICE:**

The author has granted a non-exclusive license allowing Library and Archives Canada to reproduce, publish, archive, preserve, conserve, communicate to the public by telecommunication or on the Internet, loan, distribute and sell theses worldwide, for commercial or non-commercial purposes, in microform, paper, electronic and/or any other formats.

The author retains copyright ownership and moral rights in this thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

**AVIS:**

L'auteur a accordé une licence non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque et Archives Canada de reproduire, publier, archiver, sauvegarder, conserver, transmettre au public par télécommunication ou par l'Internet, prêter, distribuer et vendre des thèses partout dans le monde, à des fins commerciales ou autres, sur support microforme, papier, électronique et/ou autres formats.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur et des droits moraux qui protègent cette thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

---

In compliance with the Canadian Privacy Act some supporting forms may have been removed from this thesis.

Conformément à la loi canadienne sur la protection de la vie privée, quelques formulaires secondaires ont été enlevés de cette thèse.

While these forms may be included in the document page count, their removal does not represent any loss of content from the thesis.

Bien que ces formulaires aient inclus dans la pagination, il n'y aura aucun contenu manquant.

  
**Canada**

## ABSTRACT

The primary goal of the study was to examine the relations between youth's emotional intelligence, personality type, and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance, in order to gain insight that may be valuable to assisting *at risk* youth. Youth in grades seven and nine ( $N=81$ ) were asked to complete the *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version*, the *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, the *Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help* scale, and a demographic questionnaire.

Multiple regression analyses revealed that neither emotional intelligence nor personality type predicted youth's attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. However, many significant correlations were found between variables. Specifically, sex differences were noted in personality type, as females had greater preference for the intuitive and feeling functions, while males preferred the sensing and thinking functions. As well, results demonstrated significant correlations between emotional intelligence variables and personality functions. In particular, extraversion was positively correlated with many facets of emotional intelligence, and feeling was significantly correlated with the interpersonal variable. As well, results of significant correlations lent support to the notion that both the *EQ-i:YV* and the *MBTI* measure what they purport to measure. Additionally, caveats of research and future directions were explored.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost I want to thank Dr. Daniel Lagace-Seguin for his limitless contributions to this endeavor. Your never-ending understanding, acceptance, encouragement, tolerance, and support during this process are immeasurable, and are permanently engraved in my memories. I feel truly blessed to have had the opportunity to work with an individual such as yourself, not only due to the vast insight you have provided me with, but because of your genuine care for others, your kind and patient nature, your infinite knowledge, and your ability to inspire others to be the best that they can be. The words “Thank you” seem simply insufficient.

To my thesis committee, Dave Kent and Dr. Michael Fitzgerald, thank you for the time and energy that you have invested in this process. Your suggestions have enabled me to expand my thinking, and have lent to opening new doors of knowledge. Your commitment to and consideration for this project has been much appreciated.

Further, this thesis would not have been possible if it were not for the contributions of the students, parents, and teachers of Montague Intermediate School. In particular, I would like to thank Kevin Stonefield and Marie Stevens for their unlimited assistance and enthusiastic support in making this happen. Thank you so much, not only for selflessly providing your time and services, but for going far above and beyond your call of duty. Finally, to the students in grades seven and nine, thank you for your willingness in participation, and for the zeal that was expressed, as it made my time at your school a joyful experience.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
TITLE PAGE	1
DEDICATION	i
ABSTRACT	2
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	3
TABLE OF CONTENTS	4
LIST OF TABLES	6
LIST OF FIGURES	7
LIST OF APPENDICES	8
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	
Overview	9
Emotional Intelligence	9
Personality	14
Emotional Intelligence and Personality	20
Attitude	22
Adolescents	26
Current Study	29
2. METHOD	
Participants	33
Procedures and Measures	33
Emotional Intelligence	34

Personality	36
Attitude	37
Statistical Analyses	37
3. RESULTS	
Preliminary Analyses	38
Data Screening	38
T-tests	38
Pearson Correlations.	39
Multiple Regression	41
4. DISCUSSION	
Demographic variables	47
Emotional Intelligence and Attitude Towards Seeking Psychological Assistance	47
Personality Type	50
Correlations	52
Attitude Towards Seeking Professional Psychological Assistance	52
Emotional Intelligence and Personality Type	54
Multiple Regression Analyses	64
School Psychology	65
Caveats, Future Directions, and Conclusion	69
REFERENCES	72
APPENDICES	83

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Independent Samples Test: T-test for Equality of Means	40
Table 2	Correlations between Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Assistance and Emotional Intelligence	42
Table 3	Correlations between Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Assistance and Personality Variables	43
Table 4	Correlations between Emotional Intelligence and Personality Variables	44
Table 5	Correlations between Emotional Intelligence Variables	45
Table 6	Correlations between Personality Variables	46

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	The Sixteen <i>MBTI</i> Personality Types	16
Figure 2	Hypotheses	30

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A	Participant Invitation Form	79
Appendix B	Participant Consent Form	80
Appendix C	Parent/Legal Guardian Invitation Form	81
Appendix D	Parent/Legal Guardian Consent Form	82
Appendix E	Demographics Questionnaire	83
Appendix F	Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Questionnaire	84

### *Overview*

Human beings are diverse and complicated. Life is a unique experience for every person as the result of different personality traits, emotions, and attitudes regarding the self and others. Learning how to understand, appreciate and respect oneself, as well as learning how to understand, appreciate, respect, and relate effectively with others are challenges inherent in the relationship process.

The fundamental goal of the current study was to investigate adolescent youth to determine the associations between personality type, level of emotional intelligence, and attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. This study builds on psychologists' knowledge about personality types and emotional intelligence, and contributes to the understanding of clients with differing personalities and degrees of emotional intelligence, thereby enabling psychologists to communicate with their clients more effectively.

The variables investigated in this study are emotional intelligence, personality type, and attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. Specifically, the study explored the personality types and level of emotional intelligence that predict adolescents' attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. The first major construct that will be discussed is emotional intelligence.

### *Emotional Intelligence*

There are numerous types of intelligences, such as verbal intelligence, which is commonly recognized as the ability to reason, understand, and be verbally expressive (Geher & Renstrom, 2004). Spatial intelligence, which can be described as comprehending how physical objects fit together (Geher & Renstrom, 2004) is another

common intelligence. Emotional intelligence, another type of aptitude, involves the comprehension of emotion. Emotion can be described in lay terms as “the affective aspect of consciousness” or “a state of feeling” (Merriam-Webster Incorporated, 2005). Human emotion is both an intricate and personal experience, and is believed to consist of six basic principles: “(1) emotion is information; (2) we can try to ignore emotion, but it doesn’t work; (3) we can try to hide emotions, but we are not as good at it as we think; (4) decisions must incorporate emotion to be effective; (5) emotions follow logical patterns; (6) emotional universals exist, but so do specifics” (Caruso & Salovey, 2004, p.9).

While there is agreement that emotion is a very real aspect of human behavior, in the past there was much apprehension regarding the validity of emotional intelligence. In particular, between 1900 and 1969, much of the scientific community resisted accepting emotional intelligence as a sound concept (Mayer, 2001). In the book *Emotional Intelligence: Science and Myth* (2002), Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts demonstrated this early resistance in a quote by S. Epstein: “The jury is still out as to whether or not there is a scientifically meaningful concept of emotional intelligence” (p.3). Much of the hesitation was believed to arise since emotion and intelligence have historically been considered as separate constructs (Schutte & Malouff, 1999). Within Western society, emotion and intelligence were understood as diametrically different notions (Damasio, 1994). Specifically, intelligence was originally considered only in relation to one’s brain, while emotion was perceived as an intuitive or instinctive component of an individual’s body (Schutte & Malouff, 1999). Furthermore, much of society often presented emotion in a less favorable light than intelligence, as emotion

was thought of as “irrational passions” while intelligence was perceived to be using a “high degree of reasonableness and rational thought” (Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2002, p.7).

Nonetheless, despite the skepticism surrounding the possibility of an emotional intelligence, the concept eventually surfaced. While the actual term emotional intelligence did not emerge until 1990 (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), evidence of similar concepts have been present for many decades. For example, between 1970 and 1989, the field of psychology evolved in exploring theories of cognition and affect or how emotions interact with thoughts (Mayer, 2001). This theory held that people with heightened levels of emotionality (such as depression), may experience higher levels of intelligence (i.e., depression may lead to an increase in accuracy and being realistic) (Mayer, 2001). As well, Gardner (1983) developed a theory of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence, which provided the framework for later research on emotional intelligence. While he did not explicitly use the term “emotional intelligence”, Gardner’s theory suggested the importance in both understanding one’s own emotions (intrapersonal), as well as the emotions, motivations, and intentions of others (interpersonal) (Schutte & Malouff, 1999). Thus, Gardner’s theory on “emotional intelligence” focused on an individual having an emotional aptitude in both intrapersonal and interpersonal relations (Weisinger, 1998).

From these and other ideas came the global definition of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence has been described as an aptitude for recognizing or comprehending new and challenging circumstances (Merriam-Webster, Incorporated, 2005). Scientifically, however, emotional intelligence is understood as a much more

complicated phenomenon. Salovey and Mayer (1990) originally defined emotional intelligence as, “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” (p.189). However, Mayer and Salovey chose to later readjust this definition as they were concerned that it did not deliver enough emphasis on the importance of reflecting on emotions (Taylor & Bagby, 2000). The definition then encompassed four basic elements that Mayer and Salovey believed were integral to the development of emotional intelligence (Weisinger, 1998).

The four abilities contribute to one’s overall emotional intelligence, and are described in hierarchical order, as each is thought to build on the previous capability (Weisinger, 1998). The four primary components of emotional intelligence are: “1) the perception, appraisal and expression of emotion; 2) emotional facilitation of thinking; 3) understanding and analyzing emotions, and employing emotional knowledge; and 4) reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Taylor & Bagby, 2000, p.45). Furthermore, recent research by Fitness (2001) suggests that emotional intelligence involves three main capabilities, including: (1) “the accurate perception and recognition of both our own and others’ emotions” (p.99); (2) “the ability to understand emotions, to know how they unfold, and to be able to reason about them” (p.101); and (3) being “able to effectively regulate and manage their own and others’ emotions” (p.101).

Mayer and Salovey’s research has profoundly assisted in the recognition of emotional intelligence as a sound construct in the scientific community. However, while it now appears to be accepted in the scientific community, the next challenge lies

in attaining agreement on the appropriate definition of the term (Geher & Renstrom, 2004). In the past, various theorists had differing opinions on what constituted the variable of emotional intelligence. However, there was unity amongst most researchers that: 1) emotional intelligence is an ability or competency; 2) individuals vary in their degree of the construct; 3) it is important in intrapersonal and interpersonal relations; and that 4) emotional intelligence develops with age (Geher & Renstrom, 2004). This agreement serves to demonstrate that Mayer and Salovey's research on emotional intelligence was essential in building the framework for future research.

In recent years, Daniel Goleman explored the concept of emotional intelligence. In 1995, Goleman published a book titled *Emotional Intelligence* which ignited an ever-greater increase in society's interest in the topic (Mayer, 2001). Goleman's model of emotional intelligence is likely one of the most well-known in the popular culture (Geher & Renstrom, 2004). Goleman opted to build on components of the model constructed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) through the inclusion of various areas, such as managing oneself, communicating with others, and social skills that are affected by how well an individual can comprehend and articulate feelings (Schutte & Malouff, 1999). Goleman postulated that emotional intelligence consists of five main domains: "(1) knowing one's emotions; (2) managing emotions; (3) motivating oneself; (4) recognizing emotions in others; 5) handling relationships" (1995, p.43). In addition to revising the theory of emotional intelligence, Goleman also viewed emotion slightly different than his fellow theorists. According to Goleman (1995), emotion refers to "a feeling and its distinctive thoughts, psychological and biological states, and range of propensities to act" (p. 289).

Along with emotional intelligence, there are various other components of an individual that influence interpersonal and intrapersonal relating and behavior. One such element is personality. As aforementioned, the current study examined the relations between personality type and emotional intelligence in the prediction of attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance.

### *Personality*

An individual's personality is thought to evolve from a complicated and diverse web of various factors, including biological functioning, environmental influences, unconscious mental tendencies, and conscious awareness gained through lived experiences (Funder, 1997). Given the complicated nature of personality, it is not surprising that it is one of the most fascinating and well researched topics. As it has been described, "the highest bliss on earth shall be the joys of personality!" (Read, Fordham, Adler, & McGuire, 1970, p.167). The intricate phenomenon of why people think, behave, and relate as they do is challenging to comprehend, and as a result has captured the attention of many researchers determined to extend the current knowledge base. Therefore, a multitude of personality theories have been developed, in order to attempt to offer insight and to assist with expanding knowledge about personality.

While various theories of personality are applicable to current psychological practices, the present study investigated personality through a psychoanalytic approach originally developed by Carl Jung. Carl Gustav Jung (1875-1961) understood personality as a function of trait differences, and developed a theory that differentiated individuals according to type. Jung's personality type theory was the foundation for research later conducted by Isabel Briggs Myers and Katherine Cook Briggs (Saunders,

1991). They developed an instrument that assesses an individual's personality type, with the core components based on Jung's concepts about personality (Myers & Myers, 1980). This tool, *the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* or *MBTI* (Myers, 1962), is used to evaluate an individual's natural predisposition and general tendencies (Barr & Barr, 1989), by examining various rudiments of behavior. The *MBTI* is one of the most popular personality assessment instruments (Kroegeer, Thuesen, & Rutledge, 2002).

According to Jung's theory, there are six basic elements of behavior which formulate an individual's personality type: introversion, extraversion, thinking, feeling, sensing, and intuition (Read, Fordham, Adler, & McGuire, 1971). Myers and Briggs contributed to Jung's theory by adding two supplementary functions, judging and perceiving, which they believed were an integral component in the development of one's personality type (Myers & Myers, 1980). The preferences for particular functions are thought to be ascribed as a result of both nature and nurture, including genetic and environmental influences, which determine how a person behaves, thinks, and perceives themselves (Jeffries, 1990). The *MBTI* serves to ascertain personality type by determining which grouping of the four dichotomies (extraversion/introversion, sensing/intuition, thinking/feeling, judging/perceiving) an individual most commonly utilizes on a regular basis. Jung and Myers believed that most individuals have an instinctive natural preference for one of each of the four dichotomies (Quenk, 1993). The consortium of functions, or "habits of mind" (Pearman, 2002, p.3) formulate sixteen different personality types, each of which possess uniquely distinctive traits (Barr & Barr, 1989). The sixteen types are outlined in Figure 1.

*Figure 1. The Sixteen MBTI Personality Types*

	<b>SENSORS</b>		<b>INTUITIVES</b>	
<b>INTROVERTS</b>	<b>ISTJ</b>	<b>ISFJ</b>	<b>INTJ</b>	<b>INFJ</b>
	<b>ISTP</b>	<b>ISFP</b>	<b>INTP</b>	<b>INFP</b>
<b>EXTRAVERTS</b>	<b>ESTP</b>	<b>ESFP</b>	<b>ENTP</b>	<b>ENFP</b>
	<b>ESTJ</b>	<b>ESFJ</b>	<b>ENTJ</b>	<b>ENFJ</b>
	<i>Thinking</i>	<i>Feeling</i>	<i>Thinking</i>	<i>Feeling</i>

The eight mental preferences that form these types represent various components of behavior. Introversion (*I*) and extraversion (*E*) are understood as an individual's main source of mental energy and stimulation (Kroeger et al., 2002), or preferred orientations to life (Read et al., 1971). These two preferences were thought by Jung to be the primary forms of mental functioning (Jeffries, 1990). Specifically, an introvert's tendency is said to be on their inner world of concepts and ideas (Myers & Myers, 1980), in which common characteristics include preferring internal reflection before projecting externally, or being perceived as thoughtful, quiet, and intimate (Pearman, 2002). Extraversion, on the other hand, is thought of as a mirror opposite, as the tendency is toward the outer world of people and things (Myers & Myers, 1980), with traits including desiring active interaction with others, and being perceived as participative with others and expressive of thought or feeling (Pearman, 2002).

Further, there are two methods of perceiving, by which people prefer to gather information: Sensing (*S*) and Intuition (*N*) (Read et al., 1971). Sensing individuals prefer information that can be obtained or verified through their five senses (Myers & Myers, 1980), (i.e., through what they see, hear, touch, taste, or smell.) They analyze information based on what they are able to realize by way of physical sensation (Barr & Barr, 1989) and are often referred to as people who are concrete, literal, or practical (Jeffries, 1990). An intuitive individual prefers instead to gather information via the unconscious, by indirect perception of ideas, associations, and creating possibilities (Myers & Myers, 1980). Intuitors are not as focused on the present as sensors, and instead create possibilities for the future (Barr & Barr, 1989). The intuitive personality is frequently referred to as imaginative, theoretical, and conceptual (Pearman, 2002).

Individuals also have a preferred strategy for judging, or making decisions, and it is either by Thinking (*T*) or Feeling (*F*) (Read et al., 1971). The individual who prefers thinking for decision-making uses an impersonal strategy and logical process for making decisions (Myers & Myers, 1980). Thinkers prefer to make decisions based on fact, truth, and fairness (Kroeger et al., 2002), and as a result can be quite objective, detached, and rational (Barr & Barr, 1989). Thinkers are often questioning, critical, and logical when trying to make a choice (Pearman, 2002). On the other hand, the individual who prefers to use feeling as their decision-making strategy, makes choices based on personal appreciation and subjective value (Myers & Myers, 1980). They are more likely to consider other people's feelings when making a decision, and prefer a harmonious resolution rather than one based on fairness (Kroeger et al., 2002). Feelers interpret data based on their own personal relationship with the information or on the personal value others have placed on it (Barr & Barr, 1989), and are often considered to be empathetic, accepting, and accommodating to others (Jeffries, 1990).

Finally, two additional functions were added to Jung's personality theory by Katherine C. Briggs, in order to complete the system of what is now the theory for the *MBTI* (Myers & Myers, 1980). Briggs included the Judging (*J*) and Perceiving (*P*) functions, as they determine how an individual prefers to orient themselves in the world, or in other words, manage their external world (Quenk, 1993). For the judging individual, preference is for managing the external world through organization, order, and closure (Jeffries, 1990). As opposed to behaving spontaneously, judges prefer to evaluate a situation and then plan how to proceed (Barr & Barr, 1989). Judges are usually conscientious of time, often don't like surprises, and like to complete projects

(Kroeger et al., 2002). The perceiver has a preference for adaptability, and does not need to rely on organization to get them through their day (Jeffries, 1990). Perceivers orient themselves flexibly and informally, and prefer to decide outcomes as they go along, rather than through planning ahead (Barr & Barr, 1989). Perceivers often enjoy exploring the unknown, and developing new suggestions or alternative methods for progressing (Kroeger et al., 2002).

In addition to supplementing Carl Jung's theory on type differences, the judging and perceiving functions serve another purpose besides signifying how an individual orients in the outer world. The J/P dichotomy describes what is known as *Type Dynamics*. Type Dynamics refers to the tendency for using selected functions in either an extraverted or introverted fashion (Pearman, 2002). Specifically, the perceiving function directs the extraversion of an individual's preference for S or N, while the judging function dictates the extraversion of the T and F preference (Myers & Myers, 1980). For example, if a type ends in *P*, (e.g. *ISFP*) this suggests that the individual's Perceiving preference (which in this case is Sensing) is extraverted, even though the individual is an introvert (*I*). Or, if a type ends in *J* (e.g. *ISFJ*), the Judging preference for Feeling is extraverted.

The process that a type uses most often is the *dominant* function, followed by that which is used secondarily, the *auxiliary* function (Quenk, 1993). The *tertiary* function is used even less frequently, and finally the *inferior* is the least commonly used function (Quenk, 1993). The dominant and auxiliary processes in a personality type are similar to the inclination for choosing one hand for writing over another: one hand is the main, used the majority of the time, while the other is considered the assistant as it

is used less frequently (Saunders, 1991). However, not everyone in society has a clear preference. Therefore, some individuals may be considerably balanced in their function choices, so their usage of dominant and auxiliary processes also tend to be somewhat balanced (Quenk, 1993).

### *Emotional Intelligence and Personality*

One goal of the current study was to explore the associations between emotional intelligence and personality type. These factors have been rarely examined together in previous research. While copious studies have assessed leadership independently with emotional intelligence (Caruso & Salovey, 2004), and personality type (Barr & Barr, 1989), the few that have looked at the variables conjointly focused specifically on leadership in a workplace setting. For example, a study conducted by Rollin, Brown, and Richmond (2004), assessed 265 leaders to determine how they perceived leadership and developed their emotional intelligence. It was concluded that leaders with different personality types developed their emotional intelligence in a different fashion. Specifically, leaders who possessed the *MBTI* N function and/or F function developed their leadership capabilities via training or solo development activities more frequently than individuals who possessed the S or T functions. As well, it was found that leaders who had the S function in their type had a greater tendency to describe emotional intelligence as reading others, while leaders with a preference for N described emotional intelligence as being able to relate effectively with other individuals. Furthermore, the authors reported that those leaders with the ENFJ type described emotional intelligence significantly differently than leaders with the INFJ type.

Additionally, studies by Johnson & Miller (2003) were conducted on two groups of 250 managers. The studies were conducted for employee development and to assess measurement validity. Various assessment measures were used in the research, along with the *MBTI* measure of personality and a tool which was formulated on Goleman's model of emotional intelligence. General findings across both studies demonstrated that results on the emotional intelligence scale correlated with the *MBTI* I/E scale. This specifically suggested that those managers who were high on the Social-Skills emotional intelligence scale were also high on the E scale of the *MBTI*. The researchers were not surprised with the outcome, because it was believed that a manager's heightened level of extraversion logically correlates with the proactive social behaviors associated with higher emotional intelligence.

Each of the studies was beneficial to the workplace setting, as they provided valuable information about, and for, those in management roles regarding various components of leadership. However, one study in particular explicitly set out to determine whether there was a relationship between personality type and emotional intelligence. In 2001, Higgs investigated 177 managers from the United Kingdom and determined that there was a significant relationship between participant profiles on Form G of the *MBTI* (Myers and McCaulley, 1998), and the Managerial self-assessment version of the Emotional Intelligence questionnaire (EIQ) (Dulewicz and Higgs, 1999). Among a largely male-dominated population, it was found that the *MBTI* E and N functions were positively correlated with emotional intelligence, while the I and S functions were negatively correlated with emotional intelligence (Higgs, 2001). More specifically, the study determined that extraversion had the most positive

correlations with rudiments of emotional intelligence, including motivation, influence, and intuitive decision making. Intuition also correlated positively with a large number of emotional intelligence components, such as influence, interpersonal sensitivity, and intuitive decision making (Higgs, 2001). Interestingly though, the F function was not found to be significantly positively related to emotional intelligence (as may be expected), however, it has been speculated that these results may have been influenced by the limited number of participants with predominant feeling functions in their typology (Higgs, 2001). Nonetheless, the Higgs (2001) research provided strong evidence that personality type and emotional intelligence are related.

Results from the four preceding studies are valuable as each one contributes to the theory that emotional intelligence and personality are related. The present study, however, went beyond the current research base by examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and personality type in a sample of adolescent youth, in order to seek specific relevance to the field of school psychology. As well, in addition to researching the relations between emotional intelligence and personality type in youth, the current study explored whether these two variables could predict youths' attitude towards seeking psychological assistance.

### *Attitude*

Empirically, the concept of attitude has been present for many decades. In the past, attitude was believed to contribute to the explanation for human action, as it was considered to be a predisposition in demeanor (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). This belief remained quite consistent until late in the 1960's, when it was suggested that it is possible that attitudes are probably only slightly, if not completely unassociated with

behavior (Wicker, 1969). The idea that attitude and behavior were unrelated provided the impetus for research on attitude in recent decades. Attitude became perceived as having an influence on a psychological object, it was believed to contain both cognitive and affective components, and was regarded as only one of many variables which influence human behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) also postulated that in order to understand attitude, an individual's outlook towards behavior needed to be evaluated, rather than one's feelings toward the target from which the ensuing behavior results (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Prominent in recent literature is the definition of attitude that refers to "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p.1).

Evidently, it has been increasingly challenging over the years to define the core aspects of attitude, so the conglomeration of beliefs about attitude may be somewhat daunting to comprehend. Therefore, the difficulty with defining the descriptive characteristics of attitude lead to an ever-increasing need for attitude assessment measures. Attitudes are not immediately visible entities, and therefore must be described through tangible measurement (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). However, in addition to the wide array of definitions of attitude, the vast variety of attitude measures further complicates the conflict on attitude theory, particularly since attitude is such a difficult variable to measure (Zimbardo, Ebbesen & Maslach, 1977). Part of this diversity comes from the fact that humans can have attitudes regarding endless issues.

While many forms of assessment are available, the current study utilized a form of attitude assessment called *Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological*

*Help: Shortened Form* (Fischer & Farina, 1995). This assessment measures an individual's attitudes toward and perceptions of seeking psychological assistance, and it consists of ten items, revised from the original twenty-nine item scale (Fischer & Farina, 1995). The purpose for selecting this scale for the current study was due to the fact that it is a valid measure for assessing an individual's attitude towards seeking psychological assistance and, therefore, directly assesses the criterion variable.

Previous research on attitudes toward seeking professional psychological assistance is quite eclectic. For example, a study on 262 Arab Muslim female undergraduate university students from Israel, Jordan, and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) was conducted to determine if there was an association between nationality and attitude towards seeking assistance (Al-Krenawi, Graham, Dean, & Eltaiba, 2004). Statistically significant results indicated that nationality was not a factor that influenced the student's attitude toward seeking psychological help. However, it was determined that year of study, marital status, and age, were all significantly correlated with positive attitudes toward seeking help. Thus, this research lends support to the notion that there are variables which influence an individual's likelihood for seeking psychological assistance.

Another study, in which 813 college students in the United States were investigated, determined the likelihood that students had of seeking counseling and treatment for substance abuse difficulties (Yu, Evans, & Perfetti, 2003). The attitude towards seeking assistance was also assessed in relation to the student's educational background and understanding of alcohol related issues (Yu et al., 2003). It was determined that those who had the most severe alcohol problems were the least likely to

seek professional counseling. Also, it was found that females were slightly more likely than males to seek help for their alcohol problem. Furthermore, it was reported that those students with the greatest alcohol education background were the most likely to seek assistance. These results coincide with previous studies by suggesting that females have a more positive attitude towards seeking assistance, and are more likely to seek professional assistance than males. As well, it indicates the importance of educating youth and young adults on the pressures that are prevalent in their life. Finally, results suggest the importance of assisting those individuals with the greatest need in combating their resistance toward seeking professional help.

One study in particular relates to the current research as it assessed the help-seeking attitudes of youth grades one to twelve. In Israel, a study was conducted on 1415 students to analyze their attitudes toward seeking help (Tishby et al., 2001). Specific issues that were addressed included factors relating to help seeking, preferred helping agents, and whether certain groups would be more or less likely to refrain from seeking assistance. It was found that, in general, the participants were willing to seek assistance for emotional or physical difficulties, with females being more likely to seek assistance than males. The preferred helping agents overall were family and friends, thus, the students were not likely to seek professional help. One main reason for this refusal was that many of the students expressed concern that the information they shared with the school counselor would not be kept confidential. This evidence lends support to the notion that confidentiality issues must be enforced in counseling sessions, so to encourage students to trust their counselors. Additionally, results showed that younger adolescents were more likely to seek assistance from their parents rather

than a professional, older adolescents would likely seek more assistance from peers and less from parents, and adolescents in the middle grades were less likely to seek assistance from anyone. This is exceptionally unfortunate, as it was also the individuals in the middle grades that reported greater amounts of distress and depression.

The preceding research demonstrates that further research is necessary on the perceptions adolescents have towards seeking professional assistance, and their likelihood for using the service when in need. In the current study these issues were explored, to assist with unraveling the complicated associations between those variables that may predict attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance. Thus, the current study was innovative in its approach, as it evaluated emotional intelligence, personality type, and attitude towards seeking psychological assistance conjointly. As a result of linking these variables, not only was valuable information attained, but the door was opened to a new area for future researchers to explore, lending to a novel step for future theory.

### *Adolescents*

The sample of interest for the current study was adolescents due to the ever-increasing concern in society about portions of this population that are *at risk*. Adolescents *at risk* for a wide-ranging set of emotional, psychological, behavioral, or other problems have been the focus of educational systems, mental health services, government, and popular media. Particularly in the past two decades, the notion of adolescent's being *at risk* has been presented as a common occurrence (McWhirter, McWhirter, McWhirter, & McWhirter, 2004). As a result, immense discussion has evolved about appropriately defining the term. Many definitions regarding what

constitutes being *at risk* have been proposed (Manning & Baruth, 1995), however, given the complicated nature of the issue, researchers have been challenged with achieving agreement about the term. As Fitzgerald (1998) has described, “recent research has continued to seek greater definition, delineation, and accuracy in the use of the widely applied term, ‘at risk’” (p.13).

For the current study, the definition of *at risk* adolescents was based on a proposition by McWhirter et al. (2004). Therefore, “*at risk* denotes a set of presumed cause-effect dynamics that place an individual child or adolescent in danger of future negative outcomes. *At risk* refers to a situation that is not necessarily current (although we sometimes use the term in that sense, too) but that can be anticipated in the absence of intervention” (p.6). Biological and environmental factors, such as challenges within the family unit or in peer relationships, medical difficulties, demographic, and economic challenges can all add to youth being *at risk*, and could contribute to critical consequences in terms of attachment, socialization, early learning, and positive self concept (McWhirter, McWhirter, McWhirter, & McWhirter, 1998). Furthermore, there are an infinite number of signs that can assist with recognizing youth as being *at risk*. Some include quitting school, which can affect future educational advancement and employment opportunities, engaging in sexual activity at a young age which can result in early parenthood or sexually transmitted diseases, and partaking in criminal behavior or substance abuse, each of which can affect goal attainment (Manning & Baruth, 1995). Thus, there are many factors in society which the youth system is particularly vulnerable to being influenced.

Consequently then, there is the potential for all children and adolescents to be at some degree of risk along a continuum, regardless of age, emotional states, or familial/social background (Capuzzi & Gross, 1996). As Walker (1991) explained, “every student is at risk for some reason. We cannot wait until a student is labeled as such to intervene; rather, we must plan for the success of all students” (p.112). In fact, one of the greatest challenges with identifying *at risk* youth, is the fact that it is not possible, nor appropriate to definitively classify an individual as being *at risk* because of contributing factors, when in reality it can happen to anyone (Manning & Baruth, 1995). As cited in Manning and Baruth, (1995), “at-risk youth cannot be stereotyped by color, age, economic level, or family situation” (National Catholic Education Association, 1993, p.4). Hence, one of the greatest difficulties with describing youth as *at risk* is while individuals may present with associative features that could seemingly contribute to problems in the future, everyone has the ability to react to situations differently. Thus, just as there are a variety of elements that can contribute to being *at risk*, there are also a conglomeration of factors which can contribute to a different reaction to the same experience. Frieman (2001) has identified a number of factors that can influence a youths’ behavior when faced with a risk situation. Aspects include how another individual in the youth’s life perceives and reacts to their particular situation, as well as personal issues such as the individual’s “age, developmental level, intelligence, personality, and individual resilience” (Frieman, 2001, p.6).

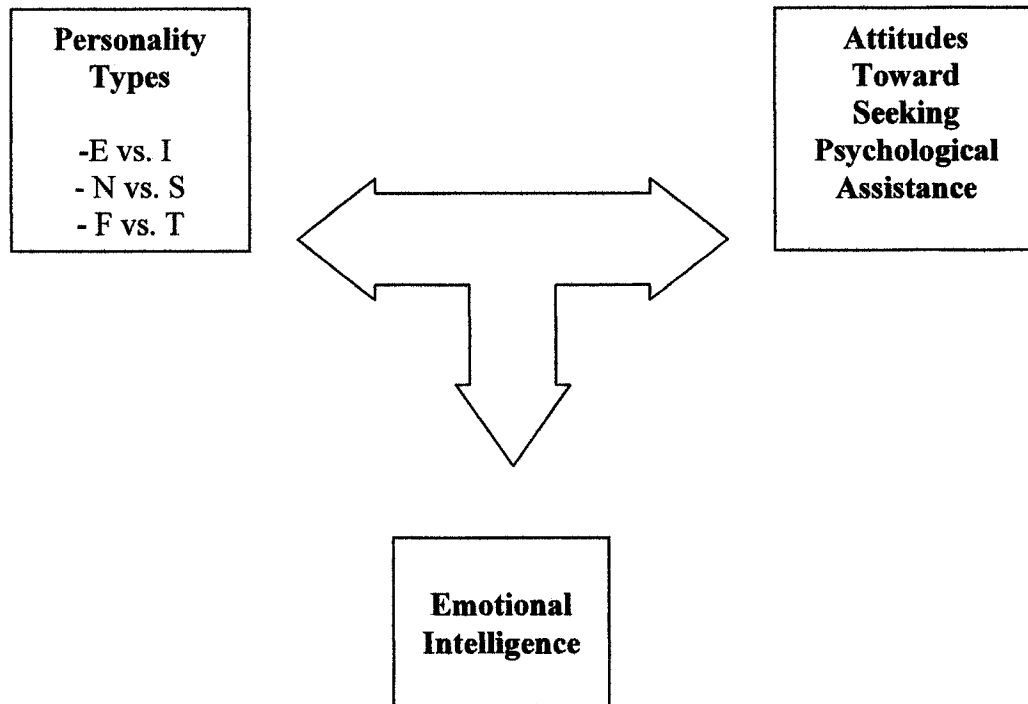
Therefore, given the challenge with predicting which individuals are *at risk*, the degree of seriousness of possible emotional, psychological, and behavioral problems, as well as the alleged increase in numbers of *at risk* youth in today’s society, the current

study contributed to the current knowledge about *at risk* youth by investigating adolescents. Specifically, the current study explored if there was a relation between those adolescents who choose to or choose not to seek psychological assistance when in the face of distress, and associated factors (i.e., emotional intelligence, personality type, and attitude towards seeking psychological assistance) that may contribute to their desire to seek psychological assistance.

### *Current Study*

The purpose of the current study was to examine the associations between emotional intelligence, personality type, and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance and to determine if attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance can be predicted by emotional intelligence and personality type. This study offers a new knowledge to the field of school psychology, as well as to the general population. The results contribute to contemporary research through the expansion of knowledge about the relations between personality, emotional intelligence, and attitudes toward seeking assistance.

Broadly, it was hypothesized that individuals with the same personality type will possess similar degrees of emotional intelligence (refer to Figure 2). Specifically, it was hypothesized that, in accordance with results found in two studies by Higgs (2001) and Johnson and Miller (2003), individuals with a preference for the extraversion function will be more likely to possess a higher level of emotional intelligence than individuals with a preference for the introverted function. Further, it was predicted in the current study that individuals with a preference for intuition will also have a higher degree of emotional intelligence than individuals with a preference for sensing, as was

*Figure 2. Hypotheses*

---

*Note.* E=Extravert; I=Introvert; N= Intuitive; S=Sensor; F=Feeler; T=Thinker

found in the Higgs (2001) study. However, unlike results from the Higgs (2001) research, the current study proposed an exploratory hypothesis that individuals with a preference for the feeling function will have a higher degree of emotional intelligence than individuals with a preference for thinking. This was predicted because traditionally F's are believed to be more emotionally in tune, empathetic, and capable of relating with others than are T's (Pearman, 2002).

Additionally, in regards to the attitude variable, the current study predicted that adolescents with certain personality types, as well as adolescents with certain degrees of emotional intelligence, will be more likely than other types to seek psychological assistance. Drawing on results found in both Yu et al.'s (2003) and Tishby et al.'s (2001) research, the current study postulated that females will have a more positive attitude toward seeking psychological assistance than will males. Moreover, the current study hypothesized that individuals with higher degrees of emotional intelligence would be more likely to have a positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. Also the current study predicted that individuals with a preference for the E, N, and F functions will have a more positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance than those with a preference for I, S, or T.

Taken together, the current study predicted that those adolescents who have a preference for E, N, and F, and have a higher degree of emotional intelligence, will be more likely to have a positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. On the contrary then, it was hypothesized that adolescents with a preference for I, S, and T, and have lower levels of emotional intelligence, will be least likely to have a positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance.

Thus, it was predicted that both personality type and emotional intelligence would explain the variance in attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance. It is important to note that due to the current study's correlational nature, the findings are bidirectional. For example, if individuals with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to seek psychological assistance, this could also potentially suggest that an individual who seeks more psychological assistance may also have a higher emotional intelligence.

The current study could assist school psychologists in learning how to deal more effectively with individuals who possess certain traits, in order to make the counseling experience for the client as positive and comfortable as possible. By comprehending the attitudes about psychological assistance that are possessed by certain individuals with varying personalities and levels of emotional intelligence, psychologists could assist with identifying *at risk* adolescents who may not seek their assistance. As well, to assist the school team's productivity, school psychologists could offer information workshops regarding the intricacies of personality type and emotional intelligence. Providing information workshops would be beneficial on various levels. First, it could promote greater understanding of differences, thereby encouraging acceptance and cohesiveness in the school team as a unit. This cohesiveness and acceptance could contribute to a more positive school culture. Secondly, by understanding the various personality types and variations in emotional intelligence, the teacher-student relationship could benefit. Teaching strategies could be formulated in order to appeal to the strengths of particular types. Finally, the comprehension of

differences could reflect also on the parent-teacher relationship, facilitating more positive interactions between teacher and parent.

By investigating adolescents in the current study, insight is attained about the likelihood of, and desire for, adolescents to seek psychological services, as well as information about predictor variables that may contribute to an increase in seeking psychological services. Moreover, this study provides some important information that may contribute to potential future research on *at risk* youth. Specifically, this study may be beneficial to researchers who are investigating interventions that could be valuable to and appropriate for adolescents, so that future program development and implementation could take place.

## Method

### *Participants*

The participants in the study were 84 adolescent youth, 40 males and 44 females. The participants were selected from Montague Intermediate School in Prince Edward Island, with 21 males and 20 females from grade seven, in addition to 19 males and 24 females from grade nine. The majority of the participants were Caucasian and derived from a middle-class community.

### *Procedures and Measures*

Once approval to conduct research was obtained from the Mount Saint Vincent University Research Ethics Board, the Prince Edward Island School Board was contacted for approval to seek participants from within their region. The Montague Intermediate School was also contacted in order to obtain permission for seeking participants from the institution. Invitations for voluntary participation were sent out to

one hundred and forty students (Appendix A), along with a consent form (Appendix B) to be completed by those students who wished to participate. Once potential participants consented in writing to participate, they were provided with a letter for their parent/legal guardian to invite them to permit their son/daughter to participate in the current study (Appendix C), as well as a parent/legal guardian consent form (Appendix D). When all required consent forms were returned, four testing session times were arranged over a two day period, with approval of the principal and teachers from Montague Intermediate School. For data consistency purposes, each testing session consisted of students from the same grade level, so as to promote valid and reliable results. Upon entry, the participants were provided with a demographic information questionnaire (Appendix E), testing booklets and instrument instructions, and were asked to complete three measures consecutively. Participants were informed that they were not required to write their names on the administration booklets, as all of the information they were providing was confidential. The examiner and teacher remained in the class with the students during all administrations, and once measures were completed, the students' were provided with an unmarked envelope in which they were required to deposit all of their measures.

*Emotional intelligence.* The current study utilized the *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)*, youth version (*EQ-i:YV*) to assess emotional intelligence (Bar-On & Parker, 2003). The *EQ-i*, which was created by Reuven Bar-On and published in 1997, is said to be the “most comprehensive self-report measure of EI available” (Ciarrochi, Chan, Caputi, Roberts, 2001, p.37). As well, the *EQ-i* was the first emotional intelligence assessment tool ever to be provided to clinicians and

researchers by a psychological test publisher, and the first to be reviewed in the *Buros Mental Measurement Yearbook* in 1999 (Bar-On, 2004).

The *EQ-i* assesses ten main concepts, including self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, empathy, interpersonal relationships, stress tolerance, impulse control, reality testing, flexibility, and problem-solving (Bar-On, 2004). As well, the *EQ-i* examines five correlates of emotionally intelligent behavior: independence, social responsibility, self-actualization, optimism, and happiness (Bar-On, 2004). The *EQ-i:YV* assesses youth aged seven to eighteen, and in addition to analyzing their emotional and social functioning, it also evaluates social and emotional intelligence (Bar-On & Parker, 2003). The *EQ-i:YV* contains sixty items across seven scales (Bar-On, 2004), and the dimensions measured include: Total EQ (interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptability, and stress management), General Mood, Positive Impression, and the Inconsistency Index, which assesses the consistence in item responses (Bar-On & Parker, 2003). The items on the scale are responded to in a five-point Likert type fashion, by selecting 1) very seldom true of me, 2) seldom true of me, 3) often true of me, 4) very often true of me, or ?) for an omitted item.

The standardization sample included 9172 children and adolescents (aged seven to eighteen) attending regular school classes within the United States and Canada (Plake, Impara, & Spies, 2003). The psychometric properties of the *EQ-i:YV* were found to be acceptable across domains (Ciarrochi et al., 2001). Internal reliability was adequate, with Cronbach alpha scores of .65 to .90 for domain scales, with the majority within the .80 range (Plake et al., 2003). The test-retest reliability, over a three week period, was moderate to high, ranging from .77 to .89 (Plake et al., 2003). These

psychometrics lend support to the *EQ-i:YV*'s efficiency as an emotional intelligence assessment tool for children and adolescents. The *Bar-On EQ-i:YV* is not in the public domain, therefore, can not be included in this report.

*Personality.* The *MBTI* (Myers, 1962) was used in the current study to measure personality. This tool measures an individual's natural predisposition (Barr & Barr, 1989), by evaluating various rudiments of behavior. The *MBTI* is one of the most popular personality assessment instruments (Kroeger et al., 2002). There are eight basic elements of behavior which formulate an individual's personality type: introversion, extraversion, thinking, feeling, sensing, intuition (Read et al., 1971), and judging and perceiving (Myers & Myers, 1980). The *MBTI* serves to ascertain personality type by determining which grouping of the four dichotomies (extraversion/introversion, thinking/feeling, sensing/intuition, judging/perceiving) an individual most commonly utilizes on a regular basis. The consortium of functions formulate sixteen different personality types, each of which possess uniquely distinctive traits (Barr & Barr, 1989). Form M of the *MBTI* is a ninety-three item scale, with a forced choice two option response. The standardization of the scale is based on a National random sample of 3009 adults. Psychometric properties of the scale are adequate, with evidence for both adequate reliability and validity (Plake & Impara, 2001). The test-retest reliability of respondents demonstrating the same four preferences after a four week period ranged from 55% to 80%, with a mean score of 65% (Plake & Impara, 2001). Further, according to the *MBTI*'s Item Response Theory, which investigates the reliability of the actual trait being measured, there was more than 90% agreement by respondents that the preference determined by the scale was, in fact, their most appropriate fit (Plake &

Impara, 2001). As well, it was found that participants agreed 78% of the time with their results of all four functions combined (Plake & Impara, 2001). Thus, this suggests that the *MBTI* demonstrates reliability and validity as an adequate personality measure. The *MBTI- Form M* is not public domain, therefore, can not be included in this report.

*Attitude.* The current study used an attitude assessment scale called the *Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help: Shortened Form* or the *ATSPPH* (Fischer & Farina, 1995) (Appendix F). This scale measures an individual's attitude towards and perceptions of seeking psychological assistance in the face of adversity, and it consists of ten items (Fischer & Farina, 1995). This scale has been revised from the original twenty-nine item scale in order to provide a more rapid assessment process. An example of an item on the scale is "I would want to get psychological help if I were worried or upset for a long period of time" (Fischer & Farina, 1995, p.369). The responses involve a Likert type scale, with the alternatives: "agree, partly agree, partly disagree, and disagree" (Fischer & Farina, 1995, p.369). The revised scale is believed to possess the same adequate psychometric properties as the original scale, with a correlation score of .87 (Fischer & Farina, 1995). The internal consistency of the items on the scale had a Cronbach alpha score of .84 (Fischer & Farina, 1995). The test-retest correlation score found by Fischer and Farina was .82, with a one month long period in between testing sessions (1995). Thus, evidence suggests that it is a valid measure for assessing an individual's attitude towards seeking psychological assistance.

#### *Statistical Analyses*

All assumptions concerning correlational and regression analyses were checked prior to conducting major analyses. Once assumptions had been checked, preliminary

analyses were conducted to determine if there were sex effects on the predictor and criterion variables. As well, simple correlations were conducted, to analyze the relations between 1) emotional intelligence and personality type, 2) emotional intelligence and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance, and 3) personality type and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance. Finally, multiple regression was utilized to determine the importance emotional intelligence and personality type had on predicting youths' attitude towards seeking psychological assistance.

### Results

The primary goal of the study was to examine the associations between emotional intelligence, personality type, and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance. The results section is presented as follows. First, preliminary analyses are presented by examining data screening processes and the equality of means between male and female participants through use of *t-tests*. Next, correlations between emotional intelligence, personality type, and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance is presented, followed by the multiple regression analyses, which examine the prediction of attitude towards seeking psychological assistance from emotional intelligence and personality type.

#### *Preliminary Analyses*

*Data Screening.* All data were examined for outliers, linearity and homogeneity of variance. Since no assumptions were violated, there was no need to transform the data.

*T-tests.* T-tests were conducted to analyze the equality of means between male and female participants. This preliminary analyses was performed to determine if there

were sex differences with respect to the predictor and criterion variables. The results for the statistically significant t-tests are presented in Table 1. Overall, results suggest that males are significantly higher than females on the Sensing ( $t(df)=2.78(df)=81.99$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and Thinking ( $t(df)=2.87(df)=80.12$ ,  $p<.05$ ) variables, while females are significantly higher than males on the Intuition ( $t(df)=-2.77(df)=81.99$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and Feeling ( $t(df)=-2.79(df)=79.81$ ,  $p<.05$ ) variables. T-tests were also conducted to determine if there were grade based differences with respect to the predictor and criterion variables. These results were non-significant suggesting that students did not differ on their emotional intelligence, personality constructs, or attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance based on their grade level.

*Pearson Correlations.* Pearson correlations were conducted to determine the extent to which variables were associated with each other. Specific analyses included investigation of relations between 1) emotional intelligence and personality type, 2) emotional intelligence and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance, and 3) personality type and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance. Correlation results are presented in Tables 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

Overall thirty-six significant correlations were found. For example, the Bar-On Total EQ was found to be positively correlated with General Mood ( $r=.64$ ,  $p<.001$ ), which suggests that the higher the participants degree of emotional intelligence, the higher their general mood<sup>1</sup>. As well, the Bar-On Total EQ was also positively correlated with the *MBTI* preference for E ( $r=.23$ ,  $p<.05$ ), which suggests the higher the participants degree of emotional intelligence, the higher their level of extraversion.

---

<sup>1</sup> It is important to note that all correlations indicate bidirectionality.

Table 1

*Independent Samples Test: T-test for Equality of Means*

Variables	Means		Significance
	Males	Females	
<b>Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Assistance</b>			
Attitude Total Score	14.70	15.43	.51
Attitude Average	1.46	1.54	.49
<b>Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory, Youth Version</b>			
Bar-On Total EQ	99.73	101.20	.71
Intrapersonal	101.78	101.09	.85
Interpersonal	99.55	104.82	.21
Stress Management	96.33	101.09	.14
Adaptability	101.10	96.80	.27
General Mood	96.78	100.91	.28
<b>Myers-Briggs Type Indicator</b>			
Extraversion	12.80	14.41	.13
Introversion	8.23	6.57	.12
Sensing	12.78	10.14	.01*
Intuition	13.20	15.80	.01*
Thinking	11.65	8.73	.01*
Feeling	12.40	15.23	.01*
Judging	7.60	7.57	.98
Perceiving	14.40	14.39	.99

\*p&lt;.05

Moreover, the *MBTI* T and F preferences were negatively correlated ( $r = -.99, p < .001$ ), which suggests the higher an individual's preference for thinking, the lower their preference for feeling.

*Multiple Regression.* Multiple regression analyses were used to predict youths' attitude towards seeking psychological assistance from emotional intelligence and personality type. Four analyses were completed and results were not significant. Specifically, when analyzing the relations between the Bar-On Total EQ, the *MBTI* personality functions (i.e., E/I, S/N, T/F, J/P), and the total score for the *ATSPPH*, results were not significant [ $F(9, 83) = 1.27, p > .05$ ], suggesting that neither the Bar-On Total EQ nor *MBTI* personality type predict attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. Furthermore, when investigating the relations between each of the *Bar-On EQ-i:YV* predictor variables (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability, and general mood) and the *MBTI* personality functions, with the total score for the *ATSPPH*, results were not significant [ $F(13, 83) = 1.38, p > .05$ ]. This suggests that neither of the independent components of the *Bar-On EQ-i:YV*, nor the *MBTI* personality functions, predicted participants attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. Analyses solely of the *Bar-On EQ-i:YV* predictor variables with the total score for the *ATSPPH* also proved not to be significant [ $F(5, 83) = 1.14, p > .05$ ], which signifies that the *Bar-On EQ-i:YV* variables do not predict an individual's attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. Finally, exclusive investigation of the *MBTI* personality functions with the total score for the *ATSPPH* was not significant [ $F(8, 83) = 1.44, p > .05$ ], suggesting that personality functions do not predict attitude towards seeking psychological assistance.

Table 2

*Correlations between Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Assistance  
and Emotional Intelligence*

	Attitude Total Score	Attitude Mean
<u>Variables</u>		
Bar-On Total EQ	- .00	- .01
Intrapersonal	.15	.14
Interpersonal	- .08	- .08
Stress Management	- .11	- .12
Adaptability	.01	.01
General Mood	- .11	- .11

\*\*p<.01

\* p<.05

Table 3

*Correlations between Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Assistance  
and Personality Variables*

	Attitude Total Score	Attitude Mean
<u>Variables</u>		
Extraversion	.07	.07
Introversion	-.06	-.07
Sensing	-.13	-.13
Intuition	.14	.13
Thinking	-.11	-.10
Feeling	.10	.10
Judging	.13	.13
Perceiving	-.14	-.14

\*\*p<.01

\* p<.05

Table 4

*Correlations between Emotional Intelligence and Personality Variables*

	Bar-On Total	Intrapersonal	Interpersonal	Stress Management	Adaptability	General Mood
<u>Variables</u>						
Extraversion	.23*	.30*	.17	.14	.06	.26*
Introversion	-.23*	-.30**	-.18	-.14	-.06	-.27*
Sensing	-.03	.08	-.16	-.09	.03	.06
Intuition	.05	-.06	.17	.10	-.01	-.06
Thinking	-.11	-.06	-.25*	-.09	.04	.01
Feeling	.12	.07	.26*	.09	-.03	-.01
Judging	-.12	-.14	-.15	-.13	.08	-.13
Perceiving	.12	.15	.15	.13	-.07	.13

\*\*p<.01

\* p<.05

Table 5

*Correlations between Emotional Intelligence Variables*

	Bar-On Total	Intrapersonal	Interpersonal	Stress Management	Adaptability	General Mood
<u>Variables</u>						
Bar-On Total	1	.74**	.77**	.65*	.81**	.64**
Intrapersonal	.74**	1	.37**	.28*	.43**	.39**
Interpersonal	.77**	.37**	1	.37**	.61**	.68**
Stress Management	.65**	.28*	.37**	1	.37**	.40**
Adaptability	.81**	.43**	.61**	.37**	1	.45**
General Mood	.64**	.39**	.68**	.40**	.45**	1

\*\*p&lt;.01

\* p&lt;.05

Table 6

*Correlations between Personality Variables*

	Extraversion	Introversion	Sensing	Intuition	Thinking	Feeling	Judging	Perceiving
<u>Variables</u>								
Extraversion	1	-1*	-.03	.03	.09	-.09	-.35**	.35**
Introversion	-1*	1	.04	-.04	-.08	.09	.36**	-.36**
Sensing	-.03	.04	1	-1*	.51**	-.50**	.14	-.14
Intuition	.03	-.04	-1**	1	-.50**	.49**	-.15	.15
Thinking	.09	-.08	.51**	-.50**	1	-1**	-.17	-.17
Feeling	-.09	.09	-.50**	.50**	-1**	1	-.16	.16
Judging	-.35**	.36**	.14	-.15	.17	-.16	1	-1**
Perceiving	.35**	-.36**	-.14	.15	-.17	.16	-1**	1

\*\*p<.01

\* p<.05

## Discussion

The primary goal of this thesis was to investigate the associations between emotional intelligence, personality type, and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance. Additionally, it was examined whether emotional intelligence and personality types predict attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. In this vein, the discussion will begin with a focus on demographics and Pearson correlations. Following these discussions are explanations of the more complex multiple regression analyses. Finally, speculations regarding links to school psychology, caveats, future directions, and conclusions are provided.

### *Demographic Variables*

*Emotional intelligence and attitude towards seeking psychological assistance.* Contrary to the original hypothesis, no significant sex differences were apparent when analyzing for emotional intelligence or attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance. While females appeared to have a slightly more positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance than males, as well as presented a somewhat higher degree of emotional intelligence (according to group averages), the results were not statistically significant. Nonetheless, it is valuable to speculate about the statistically non significant findings. It can be inferred that sex is not a defining factor in determining attitude towards seeking psychological assistance or degree of emotional intelligence. Therefore, since both attitude towards seeking psychological assistance and emotional intelligence were not sex specific, this suggests both males and females are statistically similar with respect to their levels of emotional intelligence and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance.

Further, it can be implied that males and females can have equally high or low levels of emotional intelligence, as well as possess equally positive or negative attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance. In all, degree of emotional intelligence or attitude towards seeking psychological assistance was not determined by sex in the current study.

Therefore, in consideration of help-seeking attitudes, findings in the current study may suggest that in a school setting males and females have comparable attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance, and so are equally likely to seek psychological assistance. However, this is not consistent with what has been found in previous research. Numerous studies have indicated that females are more willing than males to seek psychological assistance, and have a more positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance (Fischer & Turner, 1970; Gloria, Hird, & Navarro, 2001; Kligfeld & Hoffman, 1979; Price & McNeill, 1992; Puig, 1979; Sanchez & Atkinson, 1983; Tishby et al., 2001; Yu et al., 2003). As a result of these past findings, the suggestions that come from the current study are novel, in that they suggest the sex boundaries in regards to attitude towards seeking psychological assistance are less distinct. In addition, it may be speculated that not only are the sex boundaries becoming less obvious, but given the young age of the participants tested, the attitudes may be becoming more positive the more progressive the generation.

Considering the non-significant findings regarding sex differences and levels of emotional intelligence in the current study it can be inferred that within the population tested, males and females are similar with respect to their levels of

emotional intelligence. Not only does this non-significant sex discrepancy offer insight into the population tested, but it is also valuable to the existing body of research on sex differences and emotional intelligence. In fact, there is competing evidence around the concept of sex differences and emotional intelligence (Stys & Brown, 2004). For example, when analyzing the normative sample of the *Bar-On EQ-i: YV*, Bar-On and Parker (2000) indicated that females scored significantly higher than males on the Total EQ, Intrapersonal, and Interpersonal scales, while males scored significantly higher on the Adaptability scale (the Stress Management scale presented no significant sex differences). Additionally, other studies have indicated that females score significantly higher than males on levels of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003), findings that are not cohesive with what was found in the current study.

However, similar to the results in the current study, research by Roothman, Kirsten, & Wissing (2003) suggests that there are no significant sex differences in degrees of emotional intelligence. Additionally, Goleman (1998) has postulated that no significant sex differences on overall levels of emotional intelligence exist, even though there does appear to be a difference in specific emotional intelligence strengths and weaknesses. Finally, research conducted by Brackett and Mayer (2003) indicated that while females did score significantly higher than males on levels of emotional intelligence when assessed by a performance measure like the *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test*, there were no significant sex differences when assessed by a self-report measure such as the *Bar-On Emotional*

*Quotient Inventory.* Considering this contradictory evidence, two theoretical directions on sex differences in emotional intelligence were suggested, namely: 1) sex differences are only present when emotional intelligence is described in a cognitive manner, or 2) sex differences may be present but with self-report measures, such as the *Bar-On EQ-i:YV*, over-estimation of one's own emotional intelligence is possible (Stys & Brown, 2004).

Considering the discrepant research, further investigation of sex differences in levels of emotional intelligence is warranted. Consequently, the findings in the current study are valuable in that they add to the existing, yet diverse knowledge base on sex differences in emotional intelligence, but they are particularly interesting since the focus is on youth. Due to that most research on emotional intelligence is based on the examination of adults, there is a necessity for researching the emotional intelligence of youth (Harrod & Scheer, 2005). Therefore, the findings from the current study are unique in that they provide insight into a population that has not often been studied, specifically in regards to emotional intelligence and sex differences. Nevertheless, the question of what may be the predictive component of youths' attitude towards seeking psychological assistance and level of emotional intelligence still remains. This leads to the next variable under examination in the current study, personality type.

*Personality type.* Novel information was obtained in the investigation of the relations between sex differences and personality variables. Specifically, males were significantly higher than females on both the S and T variables. Further, females were significantly higher than males on the N and F variables. Given these

statistically significant findings, this suggests that male youth are more likely to prefer gathering and interpreting information through their five senses, as well as prefer a thinking mode for decision making. Additionally, results suggest that female youth prefer to interpret information via their intuition, and make decisions based on feeling. While modest amounts of research have been published on sex differences within the *MBTI* personality types (Kelley, 1997), evidence has prevailed to suggest a predominantly female preference for the F function, and a male preference for the T function (Capretz, 2002; Hammer, 2003; Jeffries, 1990; Myers-Briggs & McCaulley, 1985; Seegmiller & Epperson, 1987). Therefore, results in this study lend support to the current knowledge base, as female youth preferred making decisions based on their feeling, while male youth preferred a thinking decision-making strategy.

On the other hand, the current findings which demonstrate a significant sex difference in the N and S functions, has not been vastly replicated. While one study which investigated the individual differences of 112 Chinese university students in Hong Kong, demonstrated a male preference for the S function (Sharp, 2004), recent research suggests that it is only the T/F dimension which demonstrates a significant sex bias in the general population (Hughes, 1994). Therefore, the findings in the current study, which offer insight into the female preference for N and male preference for S, are unique in that they deliver an innovative perspective on the information-gathering preferences of youth. However, given that limited research supports the significant sex differences in the S/N dichotomy, further investigation of youths' preference for these dichotomies is warranted. As described

by Stokes (1987), "the interface of gender and type is a rich field to explore" (p. 43). Deeper analyses of the sex differences in youth would prove valuable, as it may contribute to a better understanding of the methods by which youth gather and interpret information. Consequently, unraveling the methods by which youth perceive information is integral to the comprehension of factors that influence a youth's behavior when faced with a risk situation (Frieman, 2001). Thus, insight attained from investigating these dichotomies may shed greater light on the challenges of youth *at risk*, and provide information on predicting and eradicating factors that may lead to *at risk* behavior.

### *Correlations*

*Attitude towards seeking psychological assistance.* The current study hypothesized that adolescents with certain personality types, as well as adolescents with certain degrees of emotional intelligence, would have a more positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. Specifically, it was postulated that individuals with higher degrees of emotional intelligence would be more likely to have a positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. Additionally, it was predicted that individuals with a preference for the E, N, and F personality functions would have a more positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance than those with a preference for I, S, or T. However, findings from the correlational analyses were not significant, suggesting that attitude towards seeking psychological assistance is not related to either personality type or level of emotional intelligence. This implies that in a school setting, for example, those adolescents who do not have a positive attitude towards seeking psychological

assistance can not be predicted by analyzing either their personality type or level of emotional intelligence. Therefore, speculation remains regarding the predictive factors for specific help-seeking attitudes in youth. Interestingly, research conducted by Tishby et al. (2001) found that it was adolescents in the middle grades (similar to the grade level of participants in the current study), who were the least likely age group to seek assistance from anyone when experiencing distress. Thus, might the difficulty in determining the predictive factors for help-seeking attitudes in the current study be partially a result of the age group tested, and their suggested (Tishby et al., 2001) resistance as a population of seeking psychological assistance? As well, in research conducted by Yu et al. (2003) it was found that those students who had the most significant difficulties were also those least likely to seek professional counseling assistance. This research by Yu et al. (2003) relates to Tishby et al.'s (2001) research as the youth in the middle grades who were least likely to seek assistance were also noted as having the greatest difficulty with distress and depression. Thus, these studies bring into question why this age group appears most resistant to seeking assistance, particularly when they seem to be experiencing the greatest distress. Therefore, given the questions that surround these issues, and considering the findings in the current study, it appears increasingly important that further investigation of the help-seeking attitudes of this age group be explored in future research.

Furthermore, it can be postulated that even though certain individuals may not seek professional assistance when they're experiencing distress, this does not necessarily negate the notion that they may be open to receiving it if offered to

them. Therefore, since the current findings suggest that it is not possible to identify by personality type or level of emotional intelligence those individuals who have a positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance, it appears progressively important that the services of school psychologists be made more readily available to all students.

*Emotional intelligence and personality type.* Various findings from the correlational analyses provided support for the predicted hypothesis in the current study. It was hypothesized that individuals with the same personality type would possess similar degrees of emotional intelligence. Specifically, in accordance with results from two studies by Higgs (2001) and Johnson and Miller (2003), it was predicted that individuals with a preference for the E function would be more likely to possess a higher level of emotional intelligence than individuals with a preference for the I function. Results from the correlation analyses supported these hypotheses. Specifically, Total EQ was found to be significantly positively correlated with E, and significantly negatively correlated with I. This suggests that the higher an individuals' degree of emotional intelligence, the greater their level of extraversion, and the lower their level of introversion. These results also correlate with findings from a study by Rothmann, Scholtz, Sipsma, and Sipsma (2002). Specifically, the personality types and emotional intelligence of 71 students in a Postgraduate Diploma in Management program were investigated. The authors found that emotional intelligence, as determined by the *Bar-On EQ-i*, was significantly correlated with the *MBTI* preferences for E, N, F, and P (Rothmann et al., 2002). Not only does the current research support the notion that the greater an

individual's preference to extravert, the higher their degree of emotional intelligence, but it also provides valuable information about the sample being examined. Particularly, it can be inferred that youth whose primary source of mental energy comes from the external world of other people, are more adept in relating to other people, comprehending oneself and others, being able to adapt to change, and effectively managing their own emotions (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Consequently then, it could be suggested that youth with higher degrees of extraversion and, relationally, higher degrees of emotional intelligence, are likely to be less *at risk* than youth with lower levels of extraversion and emotional intelligence. This connection can be made due to the increased exposure extraverted individuals with high degrees of emotional intelligence have with external surroundings, situations, and people, as well as the heightened abilities they are believed to have for understanding themselves and others (Goleman, 1995). Furthermore, it has been suggested that those individuals with higher emotional intelligence and higher levels of E are more likely to be drawn to their external environment, so as a result would be better able than an individual who prefers I to develop and refine their coping skills within their environment (Armstrong, 2002). Therefore, from this it can be suggested that youth are less likely to be *at risk* the more extraverted and emotionally intelligent they are, given that they are more cognizant of themselves and others around them.

Moreover, other intriguing correlations between emotional intelligence and personality variables were present. The intrapersonal and general mood variables were found to be significantly positively correlated with the personality function E,

and significantly negatively correlated with I. This implies that the higher an individual's level of extraversion (and the lower their level of introversion), the greater their capacity for understanding and expressing feelings. As well, these results suggest that the higher an individual's level of extraversion, the greater their overall ability for being optimistic and positive. This is consistent with research conducted by Armstrong (2002), in which the *Bar-On EQ-i* measures for Intrapersonal EQ and General Mood were positively correlated with E in 34 MBA students and 23 working professionals. Thus, support is lent to the notion that extraversion in youth is positively correlated with intrapersonal abilities and general mood.

Additionally, an interesting correlation was noted between individuals' abilities for interpersonal relating and the T/F variables. Specifically, the interpersonal variable was found to be significantly positively correlated with F, and significantly negatively correlated with T. These findings suggest that the higher an individuals' capacity for understanding others and relating with people, the greater their likelihood for taking a feeling approach when decision-making, and the lower their likelihood for adopting a thinking stance when decision-making. In fact, these findings coincide with the hypothesis proposed for the current study. It was hypothesized that individuals with a preference for the F function would have a higher degree of emotional intelligence than individuals with a preference for T, since feelers traditionally are believed to be more emotionally in tune, empathetic, and capable of relating with others than thinkers (Pearman, 2002). Since results of the current study did not explicitly link the feeling function with the overall

measure of emotional intelligence (i.e., Bar-On Total EQ), it may appear as if the hypothesis was unsubstantiated. However, since the interpersonal variable is a component of overall emotional intelligence, and assesses an individual's ability for understanding others and relating with people, it is quite comparable to the assumption of the proposed hypothesis.

Conversely, the current study predicted that individuals with a preference for the N function would have a higher degree of emotional intelligence than individuals with a preference for S, similar to what was found in the Higgs (2001) study. However, results of this particular analysis in the current study were not statistically significant, which implies that intuitive individuals did not have a higher degree of emotional intelligence than sensing individuals. Interestingly, other researchers who also speculated that a significant relationship would exist between the S/N dichotomy and level of emotional intelligence, found non significant results. For example, in Armstrong's (2002) study, a relationship was predicted, but findings suggested an "absence of any particular pattern" (p. 20) between the S/N functions and level of emotional intelligence. Therefore, since no significant relationship was found, it appears necessary to investigate why a relationship did not exist between the variables. While a larger sample size in the current study may have provided greater insight into the connection between the S/N variables and emotional intelligence, investigation of the dichotomy illustrates that independently, the functions assess only an individual's means for gathering information. Thus, without also considering an individual's means for making decisions (i.e., the T/F functions) about the information gathered, there is not enough information to

adequately allow for making predictions about emotional intelligence (Armstrong, 2002).

Nonetheless, various other significant findings regarding emotional intelligence were obtained in the current study. Correlational analyses support that the Bar-On Total EQ was significantly positively correlated with the following variables: intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability, and general mood. This suggests that the higher an individual's degree of emotional intelligence, the higher their intrapersonal and interpersonal abilities, adaptability and stress management capabilities, and general mood. These findings were not surprising given that the purpose of the Total EQ, as described by Bar-On and Parker (2000) is to give "a general indication of how emotionally and socially intelligent the respondent is in general" (p.19), while the individual scales are components which measure specific aspects of emotional intelligence (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). So, it is a likely assumption that an individual with an overall low level of emotional intelligence will also be lower on specific aspects of emotional intelligence.

Moreover, the *Bar-On EQ-i:YV* intrapersonal variable was significantly positively correlated with interpersonal abilities, stress management, adaptability, and general mood. This suggests the higher an individual's ability for understanding and expressing feelings, the higher their ability for understanding others and relating with people, managing and controlling emotions, managing change and solving problems, and for being positive and optimistic (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). As well, the *Bar-On EQ-i:YV* interpersonal variable was significantly positively

correlated with intrapersonal abilities, stress management, adaptability, and general mood. This suggests that the higher an individual's ability for understanding others and relating with people, the greater their ability to understand and express feelings, manage and control emotions, manage change and solve problems, and be optimistic and positive (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). In relation to the sample investigated in the current study, it can be suggested that youth with a better understanding of themselves and others, will ultimately be happier, and better equipped in dealing with their emotions and life stresses. In fact, plentiful research signifies that competence in emotional intelligence is a better predictor of success than many other factors. For example, research by Tucker, Sojka, Barone, and McCarthy (2000) indicates that being emotionally intelligent with intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies may be more important to life success than logical or linguistic intelligence. Additionally, research by Cooper (1998) suggests that the greater an individual's capacity for managing emotions effectively, the greater their likelihood for trust, loyalty, and commitment, which as a result can "account for greater productivity gains, innovations, and individual, team, and organizational accomplishments" (p.2). In relation to youth *at risk*, from these findings it can be suggested that despite the factors youth encounter which may contribute to them being considered *at risk*, their ultimate success is more closely linked to degrees of emotional intelligence. Thus, the higher their intrapersonal/interpersonal abilities, capacity for adaptability and stress management, and overall general mood, the more likely they will be able to surpass negative situational factors, behaviors, and individuals. As a result, by "beating the odds" stacked against them, it can be

suggested that the emotionally intelligent *at risk* youth may have a greater chance of attaining success, than those *at risk* youth with lower levels of emotional intelligence.

Furthermore, results from the current study indicated that stress management, adaptability, and general mood were all significantly positively correlated with each other. Implications of these findings can be understood from a multi-directional point-of-view. Specifically, analyses can be interpreted in numerous ways: 1) the higher an individual's ability for managing and controlling their emotions, the better their ability for managing change and solving problems, and the greater their capacity for being optimistic and positive; 2) the higher an individual's ability for being optimistic and positive, the greater their ability for managing and controlling emotions and for managing change and solving problems; or 3) the greater an individual's ability for managing change and solving problems, the higher their capacity for managing and controlling emotions, and the higher their ability for being optimistic and positive. Interestingly, the significant correlations between these aspects of emotional intelligence lends further support to the notion that the individual components of emotional intelligence on the *Bar-On EQ-i:YV* are inter-related, and it is quite possible that developing a strength in one area will contribute to development in another. Moreover, these findings give promise to youth *at risk* as it suggests that the more an individual strives to be positive, optimistic, and hopeful during challenging times, the more adept they will become in solving future problems and coping with stress. Similarly, research conducted by Trinidad (2003) suggested that when analyzing a group of sixth-

graders by levels of emotional intelligence, youth with lower levels of emotional intelligence were more likely to anticipate smoking in the future, as they said they would find it hard to refuse offers. This research lends support to the findings in the current study, as it signifies that youth with higher levels of emotional intelligence will be more adept in coping with stressful situations, solving future problems appropriately, and retaining a positive stance when faced with challenges, regardless of being in an *at risk* situation.

Overall, the multitude of correlations within the variables of the *Bar-On EQ-i:YV* lends support to the instruments reliability. Similar to previous research (Rothmann, Scholtz, Sipsma, & Sipsma, 2002), findings in the current study suggest that the sub-scales provide an accurate depiction of the components which encapsulate emotional intelligence. Therefore, these correlational results indicate that emotional intelligence is composed of various components. Often when an individual possesses one component, such as having a high capacity for social and emotional functioning, more often than not, they will also have a greater ability for one or more of the other components, such as the ability to understand others and relate with people (Bar-On, 1997).

Statistically significant correlations between personality functions also offer support to the reliability of the *MBTI*. All opposing functions were significantly negatively correlated. Specifically, I and E were significantly negatively correlated, which suggests that the higher an individual is rated on the introversion scale, the lower they are rated on the extraversion scale. As well, S and N were significantly negatively correlated, implying that the higher an individual is rated as sensing, the

lower they are rated as intuitive. Likewise, T and F were significantly negatively correlated, which infers that the higher an individual is rated on the thinking scale, the lower they are rated on the feeling scale. Finally, J and P were significantly negatively correlated, suggesting the higher an individual was rated as judging, the lower they were rated perceiving. Therefore, these findings provide some support for the psychometric stability of the *MBTI*, as has been demonstrated in past research (Myers & McCaulley, 1998; Plake & Impara, 2001).

Other significant correlations between personality variables offered interesting insight. Results indicated that extraversion was significantly positively correlated with perceiving, and significantly negatively correlated with judging. Also, introversion was significantly positively correlated with judging, and significantly negatively correlated with perceiving. These findings suggest that the higher an individual is on the extraversion scale the higher they will also be on the perceiving scale, while the higher an individual is on the introversion scale, the higher they will be on the judging scale. Therefore, from these results it can be inferred that the more a youth's preferred source of mental energy is external, the more likely they are to also manage their external world in an information-gathering fashion (Pearman, 2002). Further, the more a youth relies on introversion as their primary source of mental energy, the more likely they are also to manage their external world through a decision-making fashion (Pearman, 2002). The rationale behind these significant correlations can be understood by investigating the definitions for each of the functions. For example, the extraverted personality is described as someone who orients towards the outer world, expresses thoughts

openly, initiates with others, and is energetic, active, and freely participative (Myers & McCaulley, 1998). Consequently then, the perceiver links with the extraverted personality in their dual desire for openness, spontaneity, new experience, and freedom (Myers & McCaulley, 1998). Introverts, on the other hand, are known for their reflective nature, preference for intimacy and calm interactions, and tendency towards succinct conversation (Pearman, 2002). Introversion correlates with the judging preference, in that judges prefer order, structure, and organization, and are known to be methodical. Thus, the similarities across these type definitions offer insight into the correlations between extraversion and perceiving, and introversion with judging.

Additionally, significant correlations were noted between the two information gathering and decision-making dichotomies. Particularly, sensing was significantly positively correlated with thinking and significantly negatively correlated with feeling. Consequently, intuition was significantly positively correlated with feeling and significantly negatively correlated with thinking. From these results it can be inferred that the more a youth prefers gathering information through their five senses, the more likely they are also to prefer basing their decisions on thinking, rather than feeling (Pearman, 2002). Investigating these functions conjointly, it can be suggested that it is the logical and definitive trait which the sensing and thinking function share, that the youth who selected these functions have a preference for. On the contrary then, results suggest that the more a youth prefers to gather information about the world via their intuition, the more likely they are also to prefer basing their decisions on their feelings, rather than rationale thinking

(Pearman, 2002). By analyzing these functions together, it can be proposed that those youth whose preferences were for these functions conjointly, prefer to rationalize with their “gut” feelings.

#### *Multiple Regression Analyses*

Exploratory hypotheses were presented to determine if attitude towards seeking psychological assistance could be predicted by personality type and emotional intelligence. By employing multiple regression analyses, it was determined that attitude towards seeking psychological assistance could not be predicted by personality type and emotional intelligence in this study. Since the study predicted globally that adolescents with certain personality types and with certain degrees of emotional intelligence would have a more positive attitude towards seeking psychological assistance, the hypothesis was unsubstantiated. While the hypotheses for the multiple regression analyses were not supported, the non-significant results between predictor and criterion variables are particularly important, as it permits speculation that neither personality type, nor level of emotional intelligence can predict youths’ attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. These findings are of poignant interest, as it calls into question the reasons why personality type and emotional intelligence did not predict youths’ attitude towards seeking psychological assistance. Might methodological issues in the current study such as the small sample size of participants, age-appropriateness of testing instruments, or the one-time data collection technique have contributed to the non-significant results? Or is it simply not possible to predict youths’ attitude towards seeking psychological assistance based on their degree of emotional

intelligence or personality type? Instead, could it be determined by something else such as one's environment? For example, might a negative stigma about seeking psychological assistance within society prevent an individual from holding a positive attitude towards seeking assistance, for fear of being ostracized?

Furthermore, considering that peer influence increases significantly from childhood to adolescence, and has been suggested to peak in approximately grade nine (Berndt, 1979), might the impact of peer influence had an effect on the help-seeking attitudes of the youth examined? As well, in consideration of the developmental issues youth often encounter in this life stage, such as, self definition, expression, and positive social interactions (Quinn, 1999), might lack of development of certain aptitudes had an effect on the attitudes of the population examined? Thus, future research is necessary, not only to investigate these issues further, but in order to look outside of these domains to determine what, if anything, can predict youths' attitude towards seeking psychological assistance.

### *School Psychology*

In addition to building on the existing knowledge base of research on youth, information obtained from the current study is particularly valuable to school psychologists, due to their integral involvement with *at risk* youth. As described by LeCapitaine (2000), "school psychologists are quintessential in the treatment of high risk students...the school psychologist is the person in the best position to diagnose and to coordinate and provide, treatment for the high-risk student" (p.1). It is further explained that the reason for the school psychologists particular importance in the betterment of youth *at risk* is that they possess

a rich background in diagnosis, remediation, consultation, resources coordination, networking, and other assets central to reducing high-risk behavior, and, can involve the whole community, a factor vital to the promotion of resiliency and the declination of high-risk behaviors for all students (LeCapitaine, 2000, p.1).

The current study is valuable to the field of school psychology, as it provides a novel approach to examining the youth population, since research on the relations between personality type, emotional intelligence, and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance has not been vastly replicated. The information attained in the current study on differences in youth is useful, not only for expanding knowledge on youth in general, but it is potentially valuable for school psychologists when dealing with *at risk* youth. For example, school psychologists are often involved in the remediation process of students at risk for academic and social difficulties. So, the information learned about human differences could be assistive in the remediation process by aiding the school psychologist with interacting more effectively with the students they encounter. Consequently, as a result this could promote a greater likelihood for the students' success with their academic or social difficulties. In fact, research has demonstrated that positive relationships and being able to effectively coordinate academic and social goals, are integral to youths' school success (Wentzel, 1991).

Moreover, understanding the student's personality type, by use of an instrument such as the *MBTI*, may deliver valuable information to the school psychologist about the student during the initial rapport building process of therapy.

Without yet having had adequate time to become acquainted with the student, by being aware of their personality type the school psychologist may be able to gain some insight into how the student prefers to obtain their mental energy, their preferred information gathering strategy, decision-making strategy, and their preference for orienting to the external world (Pearman, 2002). This information could then potentially be used by the school psychologist in determining how to adapt their interaction style so as to be the most appropriate and effective for the student.

Additionally, the role of a school psychologist encompasses more than what they are traditionally known for (i.e., counseling, psycho-educational assessments, and behavioral modification) (Sattler, 2001), since they are also involved in assisting schools, families, and other outside agencies with direct/indirect service delivery (LaCapitaine, 2000). Therefore, considering their concentrated involvement with teachers, guidance counselors, student support workers, and parents, the school psychologist may be able to transfer the personality type information into recommendations for school and home. For example, suggesting teaching techniques which consider the student's preferred information gathering function, may be a useful recommendation for the classroom. Or, recommending conflict-handling methods which reflect the student's preference for obtaining mental energy, may be useful for parents to implement at home.

Furthermore, developing an understanding of the student's emotional intelligence, and particular areas of strengths and weakness, may benefit the school psychologist in assisting the student with their emotional needs. By comprehending

a student's emotional profile, through utilization of a tool such as the *Bar-On EQ-i:YV* during the preliminary phase of consultation, the school psychologist may be able to gain a deeper understanding of the factors that could be relating to the social/emotional difficulties the student is experiencing. As well, research suggests that youth with emotional and behavioral disturbances often experience difficulty academically (Violato & Andrews, 2003). However, when these students receive assistance with formulating and sustaining positive relationships, from someone such as a school psychologist, improvement with the social, emotional, and academic difficulties is probable (Violato & Andrews, 2003). Therefore, obtaining information about the student's emotional intelligence can be valuable not only to the school psychologist, but, of most importance, to the student themselves.

Additionally, information about emotional intelligence may also be beneficial for other school staff, such as teachers, guidance counselors, and support workers. School psychologists regularly support school staff by recommending or delivering suitable programs that can assist students with particular needs (Rosenfield & Nelson, 1995). So, for example, delivering a program such as *The Child Development Project* (Solomon, Watson, Delucchi, Schaps, & Battistich, 1988), which teaches emotional and social skills that can be taught to an entire class, may encourage better relationships within the classroom (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). This type of program, which investigates topics like interpersonal relations, may assist the students in understanding their own emotional strengths and weaknesses. As well, it could promote integration of students in the classroom by encouraging acceptance of the differences amongst them. Consequently, peer

influence has shown to have a significant impact on youths' self-confidence (Baumeister and Leary, 1995). Additionally, research from the Public Health Agency of Canada suggests that the more integrated one is socially and the more positive peer influences reported, the fewer *at risk* behaviors reported by youth (2004). Therefore, considering the research reported, it can be postulated that the current study may be beneficial to teaching about emotional differences, and the learning of which may lead to better relations amongst youth and less *at risk* behaviors reported.

#### *Caveats, Future Directions, and Conclusion*

The relatively small sample size of this study may have had an influence on the results. Therefore, obtaining participants from a larger and more diverse demographic sample in future research may assist in illustrating greater associations between variables, as well as provide a greater breadth of information in regards to the attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance of youth. As well, the time-frame that data was collected may have had an impact on the participants' responses. Specifically, since data was collected near the end of the participants' school year (i.e., the first week in June), this may have had an impact on the student's motivation, and potentially have contributed to the results. Therefore, in future research it may be beneficial if testing is conducted during an alternate time in the academic year. Also, as previously mentioned, it may be beneficial to future research if the issue of sex differences in relation to attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance and emotional intelligence be investigated further. This issue warrants further investigation since the findings in the current study, which

suggested no significant sex differences in relation to attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance and emotional intelligence, were inconsistent with what has been found in other research. Therefore, it is important to investigate these issues further to determine if these findings may be a representation of the sample tested, or if methodological issues may have affected the results.

Furthermore, due to the nature of this correlational study, it is impossible to discuss causal links between the variables. Therefore, perhaps if future researchers utilized a longitudinal format, discussion regarding the causal links between the variables may be a possibility. Similarly, due to the bi-directionality of the correlations, it is challenging to ascertain for certain the direction of the correlations. For example, is an individual's level of emotional intelligence higher as the result of a higher E, or is an individual's level of E higher as the result of a higher level of emotional intelligence?

This research study has uncovered numerous fascinating points of interest which have not been vastly explored, in regards to the relations between youths' personality type, emotional intelligence, and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance. It is hoped that through future research, further analyses of these variables will contribute to disentangling the many intricate connections that remain a mystery. Moreover, it appears particularly important that future investigators delve deeper into the rationale for the help-seeking attitude of youth, in order to gain greater insight on predictive factors, so that youth, and particularly youth *at risk*, may be better assisted. However, until then, this thesis can contribute to the current knowledge base by offering a unique perspective on the emotional

intelligence, personality type, and attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance of youth. Thus, the present study has offered an in-depth, albeit preliminary look into a topic that has rarely been examined, and has filled a gap in the body of work that currently exists on this topic.

## References

- Al-Krenawi, A., Graham, J. R., Dean, Y. Z., & Eltaiba, N. (2004). Cross-national study of attitudes toward seeking professional help: Jordan, United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Arabs in Israel. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry, 50* (2), 102-114.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (Eds.). (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Armstrong, D. (2002). *Exploring the relationship between the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Applications for professional development practices*. Winnipeg, MB: ASAC.
- Bar-On, R. (1997). *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory*. Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (2004). The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): Rationale, description and summary of psychometric properties. In G. Geher (Ed.), *Measuring emotional intelligence: common ground and controversy* (pp. 115-145). Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science Publishers.
- Bar-On, R., & Parker, J. D. A. (2000). *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth version (BarOn EQ-i:YV)*. Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R., & Parker, J. D. A. (2003). *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth version*. Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems.
- Barr, L., & Barr, N. (1989). *The leadership equation*. Austin, TX: Eakin Press.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation.

*Psychological Bulletin*, 117(3), 497-529.

Berndt, T. J. (1979). Developmental changes in conformity to peers and parents.

*Developmental Psychology*, 15, 608-615.

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.

Capretz, L. F. (2002). Is there an engineering type? *World Transactions on*

*Engineering and Technology Education*, 1(2), 169-172.

Capuzzi, D., & Gross, D. R. (1996). *Youth at risk: A prevention resource for*

*counselors, teachers, and parents* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Alexandria, VA: American

Counseling Association.

Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (2004). *The emotionally intelligent manager*. San

Francisco, CA: Jossey- Bass.

Ciarrochi, J., Chan, A., Caputi, P., & Roberts, R. (2001). Measuring emotional

intelligence. In J. Ciarrochi, J. P. Forgas, & J. D. Mayer (Eds.), *Emotional*

*intelligence in everyday life* (pp.25-45). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology

Press.

Cooper, R. (1998). Sentimental value. *People Management*, 4(7), 48-51.

Damasio, A.D. (1994). *Descartes' error: Emotion, reason, and the human brain*.

New York: Putman.

Dulewicz, S.V., & Higgs, M. J. (1999). *Emotional intelligence questionnaire*

*manual and users' guide*. Windsor: ASE/NFER-Nelson.

Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*. Orlando, FL:

Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.

- Fischer, E. H., & Farina, A. (1995). Attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help: A shortened form and considerations for research. *Journal of College Student Development, 36* (1), 368-373.
- Fischer, E. H., & Turner, J. L. (1970). Orientations to seeking professional help: Development and research utility of an attitude scale. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 35*, 79-90.
- Fitness, J. (2001). Emotional intelligence and intimate relationships. In J. Ciarrochi, J. P. Forgas, & J. D. Mayer (Eds.), *Emotional intelligence in everyday life* (pp. 98-112). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
- Fitzgerald, M. D. (1998). *To live and to learn: Homeless youth, literacy, education, and career*. Halifax, NS: Phoenix Youth Programs.
- Frieman, B. B. (2001). *What teachers need to know about children at risk*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill.
- Funder, D. C. (1997). *The personality puzzle*. New York, NY: W.W. Norton & Company.
- Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.
- Geher, G., & Renstrom, K. L. (2004). Measurement issues in emotional intelligence research. In G. Geher (Ed.), *Measuring emotional intelligence: common ground and controversy* (pp. 3-19). Hauppauge, New York: Nova Science Publishers.
- Gloria, A. M., Hird, J. S., & Navarro, R. L. (2001). Relationships of cultural

congruity and perceptions of the university environment to help-seeking attitudes by sociorace and relationships of cultural. *Journal of Counseling Student Development*, 42(6), 545-562.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.

Hammer, A. L. (2003). *Estimated frequencies of the types in the United States population*. Gainesville, FL: Center for Applications of Psychological Type.

Harrod, N. R., & Scheer, S. D. (2005, Fall). An exploration of adolescent emotional intelligence in relation to demographic characteristics. *Adolescence*. Retrieved September 15<sup>th</sup>, 2006, from [http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi\\_m2248/is\\_159\\_40/ai\\_n1595040](http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2248/is_159_40/ai_n1595040)  
3

Higgs, M. (2001). Is there a relationship between the Myers-Briggs type indicator and emotional intelligence? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 16 (7), 509-533.

Hughes, M. A. (1994). *Myers-Briggs Type Indicators and Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory Correlations (F28)*. Washington, DC: National Defense University, The Industrial College of the Armed Forces.

Jeffries, W.C. (1990). *True to type*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Johnson, D. A., & Miller, J. (2003, April). *Emotional intelligence: construct validity findings from the Global Personality Inventory*. Paper submitted for presentation at the 2003 annual conference of the Society for Industrial

and Organizational Psychology, Orlando, FL. Retrieved October 26, 2005,

from

<http://mmorris.www5.50megs.com/daiop/EI%20paper%20DAIOP%20version.pdf>

Kelley, M. J. M. (1997). *Gender differences and leadership: A study*

(AU/AWC/RWP2-104/97-04). AL: Air University, Maxwell Air Force Base.

Kligfeld, M., & Hoffman, K. I. (1979). Medical student attitude toward seeking professional psychological help. *Journal of Medical Education*, 54, 617-621.

Kroeger, O., Thuesen, J.M., & Rutledge, H. (2002). *Type talk at work: How the sixteen personality types determine your success on the job*. New York, NY: Dell Publishing.

LeCapitaine, J. (2000, Fall). Role of the school psychologist in the treatment of high-risk students. *Education*. Retrieved September 7<sup>th</sup>, 2006, from [http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi\\_qa3673/is\\_200010/ai\\_n8926148](http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qa3673/is_200010/ai_n8926148)

Mandell, B., & Pherwani, S. (2003). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style: A comparison. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 17(3), 387-404.

Manning, M. L., & Baruth, L. G. (1995). *Students at risk*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R.D. (2002). *Emotional intelligence: Science and myth*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

- Mayer, J.D. (2001). A field guide to emotional intelligence. In J. Ciarrochi, J. P. Forgas, & J. D. Mayer (Eds.), *Emotional intelligence in everyday life* (pp. 3-24). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets standards for traditional intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27, 267-298.
- Mayer, J. D., & Geher, G. (1996). Emotional intelligence and the identification of emotion. *Intelligence*, 22, 89-113.
- McWhirter, J. J., McWhirter, B.T., McWhirter, A. M., & McWhirter, E.H. (1998). *At-risk youth: A comprehensive response*. (2nd ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- McWhirter, J. J., McWhirter, B.T., McWhirter, A.M., & McWhirter, E.H. (2004). *At-risk youth: A comprehensive response*. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Merriam-Webster, Incorporated. (2005). *Merriam-Webster online dictionary*. Retrieved September 20, 2005, from <http://www.Merriam-Webster.com>
- Myers, I. B. (1962). *The Myers Briggs Type Indicator*. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.
- Myers-Briggs, I. B., & McCaulley, M. H. (1985). *A guide to the developments and use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Myers, I. B., & McCaulley, M. H. (1998). *A guide to the development and use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

- Myers, I. B., & Myers, P. B. (1980). *Gifts differing*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- National Catholic Education Association. (1993). Confronting the risks. *Momentum*, 24(2), 4.
- Pearman, R. R. (2002). *Introduction to type and emotional intelligence*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Plake, B. S., & Impara, J. C. (Eds.). (2001). *The fourteenth mental measurements yearbook*. Lincoln, NE: The University of Nebraska Press.
- Plake, B. S., Impara, J. C., & Spies, R. A. (Eds.). (2003). *The fifteenth mental measurements yearbook*. Lincoln, NE: The University of Nebraska Press.
- Price, B. K., & McNeill, B. W. (1992). Cultural commitment and attitudes toward seeking counseling services in American Indian college students. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 23, 376-381.
- Public Health Agency of Canada (2004). *Young people in Canada: Their health and well-being*. Retrieved September 8<sup>th</sup>, 2006, from [http://www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/dca-dea/publications/hbsc-2004/executive\\_summary\\_e.html](http://www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/dca-dea/publications/hbsc-2004/executive_summary_e.html)
- Puig, A. (1979). Counseling concerns, attitudes toward seeking professional help, and locus of control in black and white college students of lower socio-economic status. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 40, 2339-2340.
- Quenk, N. L. (1993). *Beside ourselves: Our hidden personality in everyday life*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Quinn, J. (1999). Where need meets opportunity: Youth development programs

for early teens. *The Future of Children*, 9(2), 96-116.

Read, H., Fordham, M., Adler, G., & McGuire, W. (Eds.). (1970). *The collected works of C.G. Jung, volume 17*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Read, H., Fordham, M., Adler, G., & McGuire, W. (Eds.). (1971). *The collected works of C.G. Jung, volume 6*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Rollin, P. M., Brown, J. M., & Richmond, S. L. (2004, June 28). *Leaders speak out on emotional intelligence: Summary findings from a study on leadership, emotional intelligence, and personality type*. Retrieved May 30, 2005, from

<http://www.ideashape.com/documents/leaders-speak-out-on-emotional-intelligence-summary.pdf>

Roothman, B., Kirsten, D.K., & Wissing, M.P. (2003). Differences in aspects of psychological well-being. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 33(4), 212-218.

Rosenfield, S., & Nelson, D. (1995). The school psychologist's role in school assessment. *ERIC Digest*. Retrieved September 8<sup>th</sup>, 2006, from <http://www.ericdigests.org/1996-4/role.htm>

Rothmann, S., Scholtz, P. E., Sipsma, J. F., & Sipsma, L. (2002). *Personality preferences and emotional intelligence: Implications for small and medium-sized enterprises*. Retrieved September 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2006, from [http://www.workwellness.co.za/Pages/Papers/paper2\\_2002.pdf](http://www.workwellness.co.za/Pages/Papers/paper2_2002.pdf)

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*, 9, 185-211.

- Sanchez, A. R., & Atkinson, D. R. (1983). Mexican-American cultural commitment, preference for counselor ethnicity, and willingness to use counseling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 30*, 215-220.
- Sattler, J. M. (2001). *Assessment of children: Cognitive applications* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). La Mesa, CA: Jerome M. Sattler Publisher.
- Saunders, F. W. (1991). *Katherine and Isabel: Mother's light, daughter's journey*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Schutte, N. S., & Malouff, J. M. (1999). *Measuring emotional intelligence and related constructs*. Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press.
- Seegmiller, R. A., & Epperson, D. L. (1987). Distinguishing thinking-feeling preferences through the content analysis of natural language. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 51*(1), 42-52.
- Sharp, A. (2004, June 1). Language learning and awareness of personality type in Chinese settings. *Asian EFL Journal*. Retrieved September 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2006, from [www.asian-efl-journal.com/Article\\_1\\_June\\_as\\_2004.pdf](http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/Article_1_June_as_2004.pdf)
- Solomon, D., Watson, M. S., Delucchi, K. L., Schaps, E., & Battistich, V. (1988). Enhancing children's prosocial behavior in the classroom. *American Educational Research Journal, 25*(4), 528-554.
- Stokes, J. (1987). Exploring the relationship of type and gender, part 1: Anecdotal experiences of MBTI users. *Journal of Psychological Type 13*, 34-43.
- Stys, Y., & Brown, S. L. (2004, March). A review of the emotional intelligence literature and implications for corrections. *Correctional Service of Canada: Research Branch*. Retrieved September 5<sup>th</sup>, 2006 from

[http://www.csc-scc.gc.ca/text/rsrch/reports/r150/r150\\_e.pdf](http://www.csc-scc.gc.ca/text/rsrch/reports/r150/r150_e.pdf)

- Taylor, G. J., & Bagby, R.M. (2000). An overview of the Alexithymia construct. In R. Bar-On, & J. D. A. Parker (Eds.), *The handbook of emotional intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace* (pp. 40-67). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Tishby, O., Turel, M., Gumpel, O., Pinus, U., Lavy, S. B., Winokour, M., & Sznajderman, S. (2001, Summer). Help-seeking attitudes among Israeli adolescents. *Adolescence*, 36 (142), 249-264.
- Tucker, M.L., Sojka, J.Z., Barone, F.J., & McCarthy, A.M. (2000). Training tomorrow's leaders: Enhancing the emotional intelligence of business graduates. *Journal of Education for Business*, 75, 331-338.
- Violato, C., & Andrews, J. J. (2003). Contributions to theory, research, and practice of school psychology: A special edition. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, 18 (1/2), 1.
- Walker, K. (1991). All students are at-risk. *NASSP Bulletin*, 75(539), 112.
- Weisinger, H. (1998). *Emotional intelligence at work*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1991). Social competence at school: Relation between social responsibility and academic achievement. *Review of Educational Research*, 61, 1-24.
- Wicker, A.W. (1969). Attitudes vs. actions: The relationship of verbal and overt behavioral responses to attitude objects. *Journal of Social Issues*, 25, 41-78.

Yu, J., Evans, P. C., & Perfetti, L. (2003, August). Attitudes toward seeking treatment among alcohol using college students. *American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse*, 29(3), 671-690.

Zimbardo, P.G., Ebbesen, E.B., & Maslach, C. (1977). *Influencing attitudes and changing behavior*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Appendix A

Participant Invitation Form

Dear Student,

My name is Dailene MacBeth and I am a graduate student in the Master of Arts in School Psychology (MASP) program at Mount Saint Vincent University, completing my thesis under the supervision of Dr. Daniel Lagace-Séguin. For my M.A.S.P. thesis I am exploring the relations between emotional intelligence, personality style and attitudes towards seeking psychological assistance.

Your voluntary participation would be greatly appreciated in this study in order to gain a better understanding of the variables involved. Testing will take place at Montague Junior High School at a predetermined location, date, and time. If you agree to participate you will be required to fill out the enclosed questionnaires. Your responses to the questionnaires will be kept completely confidential and will be locked away in a secure location so that only I have access to them.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. It is important that you take care not to reveal any identifying information on any of the forms that you complete. Completion of the questionnaires should take less than 30 minutes and you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty. You may also refuse to answer any of the questions, without penalty. Furthermore, in reporting the results of the study you will not be identified in any way. If you would like to receive a general report at the study's conclusion, outlining general findings, please complete the bottom section of the consent form.

The ethical component of this study has been granted approval by the University Review Ethics Board (UREB). If you have any questions and/or concerns regarding the research or questionnaires, please contact (902) 457-6151, or my thesis supervisor, Dr. Daniel Lagacé-Séguin at (902) 457-6460. If you wish to speak with someone not directly involved in the conduct of this study, or if you have any questions about how this study is being conducted, you may contact the Chair of the University Research Ethics Board (UREB), care of MSVU Research and International Office at (902) 457-6350.

Thank you for your consideration,

---

Dailene MacBeth,  
M.A.S.P. (Candidate)

---

Daniel G. Lagacé-Séguin, Ph.D  
Assistant Professor

Appendix B

Participant Consent Form

PLEASE PRINT CLEARLY IN INK

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (insert full name) agree to participate in  
the present study concerning the relations between emotional intelligence,  
personality style, and attitudes towards seeking psychological assistance.

\_\_\_\_\_ (Print name)

\_\_\_\_\_ (Signature)

\_\_\_\_\_ (Date)

Would you like a copy of the general findings? YES \_\_\_\_\_ NO \_\_\_\_\_

If Yes: Address: \_\_\_\_\_

OR Email: \_\_\_\_\_

Appendix C

Parent/Legal Guardian Invitation Form

Dear Parent (s),

My name is Dailene MacBeth and I am a graduate student in the Master of Arts in School Psychology (MASP) program at Mount Saint Vincent University, completing my thesis under the supervision of Dr. Daniel Lagace-Seguin. For my M.A.S.P. thesis I am exploring the relations between emotional intelligence, personality style and attitudes towards seeking psychological assistance.

Your son/daughter's participation would be greatly appreciated in this study in order to gain a better understanding of the variables involved. If you agree to permit your son/daughter to participate, he/she will be required to fill out three questionnaires. His/her responses to the questionnaires will be kept completely confidential and will be locked away in a secure location so that only I have access to them.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. Your son/daughter will be informed not to reveal any identifying information on any of the forms that are completed. Completion of the questionnaires should take less than 30 minutes and your son/daughter may discontinue participation at any time without penalty. Your son/daughter may also refuse to answer any of the questions, without penalty, if he/she chooses. Furthermore, in reporting the results of the study your son/daughter will not be identified in any way. If you would like to receive a general report at the study's conclusion outlining general findings, please complete the bottom section of the consent form.

The ethical component of this study has been granted approval by the University Review Ethics Board (UREB). If you have any questions and/or concerns regarding the research or questionnaires, please contact (902) 457-6151, or my thesis supervisor, Dr. Daniel Lagacé-Séguin at (902) 457-6460. If you wish to speak with someone not directly involved in the conduct of this study, or if you have any questions about how this study is being conducted, you may contact the Chair of the University Research Ethics Board (UREB), care of MSVU Research and International Office at (902) 457-6350.

Thank you for your consideration,

---

Dailene MacBeth,  
M.A.S.P. (Candidate)

---

Daniel G. Lagacé-Séguin, Ph.D  
Assistant Professor

Appendix D

Parent/Legal Guardian Consent Form

PLEASE PRINT CLEARLY IN INK

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (insert full name) permit  
\_\_\_\_\_ (insert full name of son/daughter) to  
participate in the present study concerning the relations between emotional  
intelligence, personality style, and attitudes towards seeking psychological  
assistance.

\_\_\_\_\_ (Print name)

\_\_\_\_\_ (Signature)

\_\_\_\_\_ (Date)

Would you like a copy of the general findings? YES \_\_\_\_\_ NO \_\_\_\_\_

If Yes: Address: \_\_\_\_\_

OR Email: \_\_\_\_\_

Appendix E

Demographics Questionnaire

Sex: Male / Female

Age \_\_\_\_\_

Grade: \_\_\_\_\_

Have you ever sought psychological assistance? Yes / No

If yes, from what type of location?

School	Yes	/	No
Hospital	Yes	/	No
Church	Yes	/	No
Private Health Centre	Yes	/	No
Camp	Yes	/	No
Peer Mentor	Yes	/	No
Community Services	Yes	/	No
Other _____	Yes	/	No

If yes, for what type of problem?

School-based problems	Yes	/	No
Home-based problems	Yes	/	No
Relationship-related problems	Yes	/	No
Emotionally-related problems	Yes	/	No
Physically-related problems	Yes	/	No
Other _____	Yes	/	No

Do you think the assistance you received was helpful? Yes / No

Would you consider seeking assistance again? Yes / No

Is there any additional information you would like to provide about your experience?

---



---



---

Appendix F

Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help<sup>2</sup>

\*Please rate each item on a scale of 0 to 3.

(0= disagree; 1= partly disagree; 2= partly agree; 3= agree)

Items

1. If I believed I was having a mental breakdown, my first inclination would be to get professional attention.
  2. The idea of talking about problems with a psychologist strikes me as a poor way to get rid of emotional conflicts.
  3. If I were experiencing a serious emotional crisis at this point in my life, I would be confident that I could find relief in psychotherapy.
  4. There is something admirable in the attitude of a person who is willing to cope with his or her conflicts and fears without resorting to professional help.
  5. I would want to get psychological help if I were worried or upset for a long period of time.
  6. I might want to have psychological counseling in the future.
  7. A person with an emotional problem is not likely to solve it alone; he or she is likely to solve it with professional help.
  8. Considering the time and expense involved in psychotherapy, it would have doubtful value for a person like me.
  9. A person should work out his or her own problems; getting psychological counseling would be a last resort.
  10. Personal and emotional troubles, like many things, tend to work out by themselves.
- 

---

<sup>2</sup> Note. From "Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological help: A shortened form and considerations for research" by E. H. Fischer and A. Farina, 1995, *Journal of College Student Development*, 36 (1), 368-373. Adapted with permission.