

**Resilience as a Mediator: Examining the Relationships between Emotional Intelligence,
Daily Hassles, Resilience, and Personal Growth Initiative in Postsecondary Students**

by

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Abstract

The relationship between the experience of daily hassles, emotional intelligence, resilience, and personal growth initiative was examined in a sample of undergraduate, postsecondary students. The mediating role of resilience was also examined. Seventy-one students from four Ontario universities completed self-report measures of daily hassles, emotional intelligence, resilience, and personal growth initiative. Findings supported the hypotheses. Emotional intelligence was negatively correlated with the experience of daily hassles ($r(70) = -.45, p < .01$) and was positively correlated with resilience ($r(70) = .69, p < .01$) and personal growth initiative ($r(70) = .52, p < .01$). Resilience was positively correlated with personal growth initiative ($r(70) = .78, p < .01$) and was found to mediate the positive relationship between emotional intelligence and personal growth initiative ($b = .80, F(1, 68) = 51.41, p < .001$). Resilience also explained a significant proportion of variance in personal growth initiative scores ($R^2 = .60, p < .001$). The study provides evidence for the significance of emotional intelligence in the ability to use internal and external coping mechanisms (resilience), which in turn promotes personal growth initiative in postsecondary students.

Keywords

Emotional intelligence, Resilience, Personal growth initiative, Daily Hassles

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Introduction

Stress is a normal part of our lives and can be defined as a response to the demands of the environment around us (Mathew, 2017). Undergraduate students experience many stressors that may put them at risk for mental health problems (Coiro, Bettis & Compas, 2017). A 2019 survey conducted by the American College Health Association, which focused on 58 Canadian postsecondary institutions (American College Health Association, 2019) showed that 38.1% of students experienced more than “average” stress, and 10.8% indicated the experience of “tremendous” stress within the last 12 months. Upwards of 24% of students were diagnosed/treated for anxiety and 19.1% were diagnosed/treated for depression within the same period. Of these students, 15.8% reported being diagnosed/treated for both depression and anxiety (American College Health Association, 2016). Indeed, the experience of stress can contribute to physical and mental health problems, putting students at risk for depression, anxiety, alcohol, and substance abuse, and suicide (Acharya, Jin & Collins, 2018; Bulo & Sanchez, 2014; Clark-Raymond & Halaris, 2013). Additionally, 41.9% of respondents indicated that stress affected their individual academic performance, and about 58% of respondents reported academics as being very difficult to handle. Other traumatic events endorsed by students were finances, sleep difficulties, personal appearance, career-related issues, family problems, intimate relationships, other social relationships, personal health issues, and health problems of a family member or partner (American College Health Association, 2019). Previous studies have shown that university students’ stressors include feelings of loneliness, interpersonal relationship conflicts, academic pressures and financial problems (Acharya, Jin & Collins, 2018).

One type of stressor is the minor annoyances or hassles that one may encounter on a day-to-day basis. These are known as daily hassles (Kohn & Macdonald, 1992). For undergraduate

students, daily hassles may include taking on too many responsibilities, conflicts with friends, and receiving a poor grade. Research suggests not all university students cope with these challenges in the same way. For example, Bouteyre, Maurel, and Bernaud (2007) found that emotional-centered coping, severity of daily hassles, and lower levels of social support can predict depression in students. After experiencing stressful events, some students are better able to recover than others and be more active in processes of change as a person. These processes are known as resilience (Wright & Masten, 2005) and personal growth initiative (Robitschek, 1998). Resilience can be defined as a process that consists of internal and external protective factors that are associated with successful outcomes, even in the presence of risk (Hartley, 2010; Masten & Reed, 2002). Internal protective factors include psychological factors such as autonomy, environmental mastery, and self-acceptance (Johnson, 2011). External protective factors include positive intrapersonal relationships and existing social supports (Hartley, 2011). Personal growth initiative (PGI) is a person's active and intentional involvement in changing and developing as a person (Robitschek, 1998). Previous research suggests that PGI is related to subjective happiness among university students (Kugbey, Atefoe, Anakwah, Nyarko & Atindanbila, 2018).

Research suggests that emotional intelligence (EI) plays an important role in resilience (Sarrionandia, Ramos-Diaz & Fernandez-Lasarte, 2018). EI can be defined as the ability to monitor your own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among the different feelings and emotions, and to use this as information to guide your thinking and behaviours (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Limited research has examined the relationships between daily hassles, EI, resilience, and PGI in postsecondary students.

The purpose of the current study was to explore the relationships between daily hassles and psychological processes for undergraduate, postsecondary students. The study also tested the

hypothesis that resilience would mediate the relationships between daily hassles, EI, and PGI. The types of daily hassles that are frequently experienced by this sample of undergraduate students were also examined. This paper first explores the literature on daily hassles, followed by emotional intelligence, resilience, and personal growth initiative before providing the rationale and hypotheses for the present study.

Daily Hassles

Stress research has identified major life events and daily hassles as two types of stressors (Stoltzfus & Farkas, 2012). Major life events include events such as the death of a family member, breaking up a romantic relationship, relocating to a new city, or being diagnosed with a health issue. In contrast, daily hassles are the minor, everyday stressful events or challenges that one may encounter. Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, and Lazarus (1981) define hassles as “the irritating, frustrating, distressing demands that to some degree characterize everyday transactions with the environment”. These demands may include annoying and practical problems such as being stuck in traffic, having too many responsibilities, and home maintenance.

It is well established that major life events and daily hassles can harm both individuals’ physical and mental health (e.g., Almeida, Wethington & Kessler, 2002; Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler & Schilling, 1989; Grzywacz, Almeida, Neupert & Ettner, 2004; Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer & Lazarus, 1981; Kohn, Hay & Legere, 1994; Lu, 1991; Serido, Almeida, Wethington, 2004). For example, Grzywacz, Almeida, Neupert and Ettner (2004) studied the associations between daily hassles and psychological stress and physical health in 1,031 adults. The study used the Daily Inventory of Stressful Experiences (Almeida, Wethington & Kessler, 2002) which contains items of daily hassles related to interpersonal tensions, work/education, home, finances, health/accident, network and miscellaneous. Almeida and colleagues (2002) used a shortened

version of the physical symptom checklist by Larsen and Kasimatis (1991) to measure daily physical symptoms. The checklist included aches/pain symptoms, gastrointestinal symptoms, chest pain or dizziness, and flu symptoms. They found that the experience of daily hassles was positively related to higher scores on measures of psychological distress and physical health problems, especially when the stressor is subjectively rated as being severe. They discuss that these stressors may deplete the physical or social resources that one has, which makes it difficult for the individual to cope with new stressors and thereby making them more susceptible to the negative health effects of stressors.

Measurement of Stress

Early stress research has mainly focused on major life events as a measure of stress (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1974). For example, Holmes and Rahe (1967) developed the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) to estimate the magnitude of events that required change or life adjustment, as previous questionnaires only focused on the number or types of these life events. The SRRS included 43 life events and respondents had to indicate whether they had experienced any of the events in the previous two years. Each event was weighted differently and was given a Life Change Unit, depending on the degree of change the event causes in an individual's life. For example, the item death of a spouse weighed 100 units, change in health of family member weighed 44 units, change in responsibilities at work weighed 29 units and change in eating habits weighed 15 units. Respondents scored higher on stress as they accumulated Life Change Units. The SRRS has since been used in research to examine the relationship between stress exposure and physical and mental health (Thoits, 2010). Research has shown that accumulating a high number of life change units within one or two years can be positively correlated with many physical illnesses and mental health problems (Monat &

Lazarus, 1991; Scully, Tosi & Banning, 2000). However, researchers soon found out that although the relationship between life events and health outcomes were significant, this relationship was very weak, as correlations ranged from .10 to .35 across studies (Thoits, 2010). These findings suggest that effects of stressful life events on health were reduced by other factors. Additionally, researchers criticized the SRSS on three content related issues (Dohrenwend, Dohrenwend, Dodson & Shrout, 1984; Scully et al., 2000; Taylor, 1991; Turner & Wheaton, 1995). Firstly, the SRSS contains both desirable and undesirable events. For example, the item outstanding personal achievement is a desirable event. Secondly, the SRSS also contains both controllable and uncontrollable life events. For example, changing to a different line of work may be a controllable life event, compared to death of a close friend. Researchers argue that undesirable and uncontrollable events require more readjustment and result in greater levels of stress compared to desirable or controllable events (Perkins, 1983; Scully, et al., 2000), which is not reflected in the weighting system of the SRSS. Finally, the SRSS includes life events that may be considered as an outcome of stress (e.g., major change in sleeping habits) rather than an antecedent to stress (Scully et al., 2000). Researchers argue that inclusion of life events that are considered outcomes of stress may explain the statistically significant relationships between the SRSS and health outcomes (Scully et al., 2000). However, other researchers argue that the relationship between life events and health outcomes remain even when the stress-related symptoms are removed (Turner & Wheaton, 1995). Additionally, the SRSS does not take the respondent's appraisal of the life event into account (Scully et al., 2000). These findings suggest that a life event approach to the measurement of stress may not be accurate.

The approach of using daily hassles to measure stress emerged after researchers found these daily demands to better predict health status and psychological symptoms (Burks & Martin,

1985; Rowlison & Feiner, 1988; Stoltzfus & Farkas, 2012) compared to major life events. For example, one study reported that the average relationship between accumulated life events over two years and health outcomes was only 0.12, and that illness onset is complex and is an outcome of the multiple characteristics of an individual (Rabkin and Struening, 1976). DeLongis, Coyne, Dakof, Folkman, and Lazarus (1982) also discussed the relationship between major life events and health outcomes as very weak, as life events cannot predict the probability of future illnesses. On the other hand, these authors found that the frequency and intensity of daily hassles were positively correlated with degree of somatic illness, and that this relationship was stronger than the relationship found between major life events and somatic symptoms. Similarly, Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, and Lazarus (1981) found that daily hassles are a better predictor of concurrent and subsequent psychological symptoms than are life events. A further study examined major and minor life stressors in undergraduate students, in addition to personality characteristics and mental health (Lu, 1994). It was found that life events correlated moderately highly with daily hassles. The researcher suggested that major life events may cause “a whole string of daily hassles or difficulties” (Lu, 1994, p. 85). It was also suggested that the experience of more daily hassles may exacerbate the effects of forthcoming major life events, or that accumulating daily hassles may bring about a major life event (Lu, 1994).

Similarly, Lazarus (1981) hypothesized that major life events often have negative consequences due to the daily hassles that they bring about in an individual’s life. These daily hassles exacerbate or promote the onset of physical and psychiatric symptoms. Additionally, Rowlison and Felner (1988) assessed the ability of adolescents to adapt to both major life events and daily hassles and found daily hassles to have a greater effect than life events on the way young people adapt to family and school expectations. Burks, Martin, and Martin (1985) suggest

that daily hassles are a greater risk factor than life events for first-year university students. These researchers administered an inventory of everyday problems and a life events inventory in addition to measures of psychological symptoms and social support to 281 undergraduate women. Using stepwise regression analyses, the findings indicated that everyday problems, or hassles, were more effective than life events in predicting psychological symptoms, even after controlling for life events (Burks, Martin & Martin, 1985). Life events had no predictive ability beyond that of everyday problems.

Researchers also argue that scores on life event scales are considered *distal* measures of stress because they do not describe the changes that these events have in peoples' lives (Delongis, Coyna, Dakof, Folkman & Lazarus, 1982). Additionally, they do not take into account the subjective significance the event has on an individual. Alternatively, endorsing an item on a daily hassle scale is a direct indication that the individual perceives the item to be a source of stress.

Mechanism of Daily Hassles Effect on Stress and Health

Studies have shown that those with major depression report an overall higher experience of daily hassles than those with other psychological distress and those with no psychiatric history (McIntosh, Gillanders, & Rodgers, 2009). Researchers have used the goal progress theory of rumination to describe this relationship between daily hassles and depression (Martin & Tesser, 1989, 1996; Martin, Tesser & McIntosh, 1993). This theory assumes that goals are structured in hierarchies, where individuals pursue lower-order goals in order to achieve higher order goals. McIntosh and colleagues (2009) use the example of an individual losing weight as their lower-order goal in order to achieve their higher-order goal of being happy. Goal linking occurs when the achievement or failure to achieve lower-order goals is linked to the achievement or failure to

achieve the higher-order goal. The goal progress theory of rumination posits that individuals differ in their tendency to goal link and that goal linking causes individuals to ruminate in response to threats to lower-level goals as they perceive a failure to achieve the lower-level goal as an obstacle to achieving higher-order goals (McIntosh et al., 2009). Relating this theory to daily hassles, McIntosh, Martin and Jones (1995, 1997) discuss that individuals who are more likely to goal link may interpret everyday hassles as threats to their higher-order goals. For example, small arguments with a close friend may be interpreted as a threat to the lower-order goal of maintaining a friendship and/or a threat to the higher-order goal of being accepted (McIntosh et al., 1995, 1997). Those who goal link are more susceptible to negative effects on mental health and physical health when faced with everyday hassles (McIntosh et al., 1995, 1997; 2009). For example, McIntosh and colleagues (2009) investigated the relationships between depressed mood, rumination, goal linking, life events and daily hassles. The Survey of Recent Life Experiences (SRLE; Kohn & MacDonald, 1992) was used to measure daily hassles and it contained 41 daily hassles to which participants indicated the extent to which they have experienced each hassle over the past month on a 4-point Likert scale. A condensed version of the SRRS (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) was used to measure social readjustment to life changes. The mood component of the Structured Clinical Interview for the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th edition (SCID-IV; First, Spitzer, Gibbon & Williams, 1996) was used to confirm the presence or absence of major depression. A group of individuals with major depressive disorder ($n = 22$) were compared on these measures with a group of individuals experiencing other types of psychological distress (e.g., anxiety and anger; $n = 25$) and a group of individuals who were not currently experiencing any form of emotional distress and had no history of major depression ($n = 23$). The results showed that those with major depression

experienced similar numbers of life events as the other two groups but the impact of these events was greater for the participants with major depression. The participants with major depression experienced more daily hassles than the other two groups and were higher in goal linking and rumination.

Studies have found that experiencing more daily hassles may contribute to headaches (Holm, Holroyd, Hursey & Penzion, 1986; Levor, Cohen, Naliboff, McArthur & Heuser, 1986; Marlow, 1998). Research has shown that the way individuals appraise situations and how they can cope is important in the relationship between daily hassles and headaches. For example, Holm and colleagues (1986) found that those who had recurrent tension headaches reported a greater number of daily hassles than headache-free matched controls, and that they also appraised the stressful events more negatively than the controls. These participants employed less effective coping strategies in their efforts to manage stressful events. Thus, it is important to examine how individuals make sense of their situations when experiencing daily hassles.

Richard Lazarus developed the transactional theory of stress and coping, which illustrates the process of appraisal of stressful situations (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). It has been argued that traditional stress research has focused on a linear antecedent-consequent model, where an environmental factor is seen to have a damaging effect on an individual (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In contrast, the transactional theory emphasizes stress as a product of the transaction between an individual and their complex environment. The level of stress is dependent on primary and secondary appraisals of the situation. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggest that primary appraisal involves determining if the situation poses a threat. There are three types of primary appraisals: (a) irrelevant; (b) benign-positive; and (c) stressful (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). An irrelevant appraisal occurs when an encounter with the environment has no

effect on an individual's well-being, that is, there is nothing to be lost or gained in this transaction. Benign-positive appraisals occur when an outcome of a transaction is projected to be positive, or one that contributes to an individual's wellbeing. It is important to note that a benign-positive appraisal without some level of apprehension is rare, and the appraisal depends highly on an individual's characteristics. For example, one may appraise a novel social situation in which there is a chance to meet new people as a benign-positive situation but may also be nervous and appraise it as a stressful situation because they may have a fear about not being accepted by others. Stressful appraisals include events that may cause harm/loss, be a threat, and/or a challenge. Harm/loss refers to the psychological damage or loss that has already happened (Krohne, 2002). For example, receiving a bad grade or breaking up with a partner is a stressful event that has already occurred. Threat events include harm or loss events that have not occurred but are likely to occur. A challenge appraisal is made when there is a possibility for growth in a situation and is supported by positive emotions such as excitement, and when an individual feels they are confident in mastering the demand. A challenge appraisal can also be accompanied by a threat appraisal. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) provide the example of a job promotion to illustrate the complexity of appraisals. A new promotion provides an opportunity to grow by picking up new skills, having more responsibilities, and having better pay. However, the situation also comes with the risk of failing to live up to high expectations. The appraisal is dependent on the individual's evaluation of the resources available to them or coping strategies they engage in, which is known as a secondary appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). These appraisals may change in the process known as reappraisal, as more information about a situation is collected. The process is ongoing and involves assessing information about both the nature of the stressor as well as the resources and coping strategies available. This transactional theory of

stress and coping proposes that the more individuals believe that a stressor is a threat (primary appraisal) and the less they believe they have the resources to cope (secondary appraisal), the more emotional distress they will experience due to the stressor.

Daily Hassles and Undergraduate Students

Measures of the daily hassles that undergraduate students face provide a description of the types of stressors that these individuals face. For example, the Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences (ICSRLE; Lafreniere & Gurevich, 1991) is a measure of the experience of daily hassles by college students. It includes items that fall under developmental challenges (challenges related to university life, such as finding courses too demanding), time pressure, academic alienation, romantic problems, general social mistreatment, friendship problems, and other assorted annoyances (i.e. gossip concerning someone you care about). Research has shown that daily hassles experienced by college students are significantly related to mental health problems such as depression and anxiety (Flett, Blankstein, Hewitt, & Koledin, 1992; D'Angelo & Wierzbicki, 2003; Lu, 1994; Tajalli, sobhi, & Ganbaripanah, 2010). Further studies suggest that daily hassles have a negative impact on students' academics, as the resulting stress may affect their ability to concentrate on coursework, causes them to miss classes, and become isolated from their social supports (DeLongis, Folkman, & Lazarus, 1988; Ross, Neibling, & Heckert, 1999). Problems with school and family may lead to more daily hassles, which could lead to recurrent cycles of daily hassles (O'Neill, 2018).

Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer (1990) introduced the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) and defined it as "an ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (p. 189). Emotions

were not always thought to be important in guiding our thoughts and behaviours (Barrett & Salovey, 2002). There are two traditions in Western thought related to conceptualizing emotions (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). The first one views emotion as a disturbance in mental activity. Young (1936) describes emotion as an “acute disturbance of the individual as a whole” (p. 263) and as causing a “complete loss of cerebral control” and containing no “trace of conscious purpose” (Young, 1943, pp. 457-458). Schaffer, Gilmer, and Schoen similarly view emotion as “a disorganized response, largely visceral, resulting from a lack of an effective adjustment” (1940, pg. 505). In this tradition, people with good reasoning skills, and those who are logical in their approach to problem-solving were seen as intelligent (Sharma, Prabhakar & Madnavat, 2013). Woodworth (1940) reported that measurements of IQ should include tests that show the absence of emotions such as fear, anger, and grief that are characteristic of children.

The second tradition views emotion as an adaptive response because it allows one to recruit cognitive resources for subsequent action. Cognitive theorists helped to establish this positive relationship between emotions and cognition (Gayathri & Meenakshi, 2013), which stems from the Schachter-Singer theory. The Schachter-Singer two-factor theory of emotion suggests that emotions are a product of both the physiological processes of the body and the cognitive processes that interpret the physiological response (Schacter & Singer, 1962). For example, seeing a bear causes physiological arousal and we cognitively label this arousal as fear, leading us to feel the emotion. In studies that test this two-factor theory, people who experience nonspecific physiological arousals, such as happiness or anger, use cognition to evaluate the meaning of the arousal (Dursun, Emul, & Gencoz, 2010; Gayathri & Meenakshi, 2013).

There are many other theories of emotion (e.g., James-Lange theory, Cannon-Bard theory, Lazarus theory) which serve to highlight the second tradition and the modern view that

emotions are adaptive responses. Emotions contain information and they send us a signal about our environment and our internal processes (Emmerling, Shanwal & Mandal, 2008). Emotions can direct our attention and motivation to engage in specific behaviours. According to Caruso (2008), emotions are necessary and important for effective decision making.

There are three major models of EI cited in the literature. The first is Mayer and Salovey's ability model (1990), which views EI as a set of skills that assist in emotion regulation. The second model is Goleman's competency model (1995) which views EI as a cluster of competencies. The third model is Bar-On's trait model (1997), which posits that EI can be learned and developed over time

Mayer & Salovey's Ability Model

Salovey and Mayer (1990) introduced the concept of EI and published a framework consisting of three mental processes involving emotional information. These processes are (a) appraisal and expression of emotion, (b) regulation of emotion, and (c) utilization of emotion in adaptive ways. The first two processes are divided into 'self' and 'other', or distinguishing between perceiving and regulating your own emotions and the emotions of another (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). The 'self' and 'other' categories of the appraisal and expression of emotion are further divided into verbal/nonverbal and nonverbal perception/ empathy, respectively. The process of utilization of emotion is divided into flexible planning, creative thinking, redirected attention, and motivation. This 'utilization of emotion' process was criticized due to its inclusion of vague concepts, such as flexible planning. This process also incorporates well-established psychological concepts such as motivation, which raised concerns as to whether or not EI was a new kind of intelligence (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). Mayer and Salovey (1993) responded to these criticisms by arguing that emotional intelligence is a new type of

intelligence because it includes the emotion-related abilities that are consistent with definitions of intelligence (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). The novelty of EI is that it focuses on emotional problems within both personal and social problems and therefore is more specific than concepts such as social intelligence (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). EI is also presented as a mental ability, distinguishing it from being a personality trait.

In 1997, Mayer and Salovey presented a revised framework and proposed a four branch ability model of EI which distinguished four areas of problem-solving necessary for emotional reasoning: (a) perceiving emotions (b) facilitating thought by using emotions (c) understanding emotions, and (d) managing emotions in oneself and others. Perceiving emotions include the perception, appraisal, and expressions of emotions and was retained from the original framework. This branch suggests that emotionally intelligent individuals can accurately perceive their emotions as well as those of others. Emotionally intelligent individuals are also better at expressing their emotions and discriminating between genuine and false emotional expressions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The second branch, facilitating thought using emotions, is concerned with using emotions to prioritize thinking and attending to important events. This includes how emotions can direct one's attention to important information and how different moods can influence thinking and problem solving (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The third branch, understanding emotions, includes the ability to label emotions and interpret them. Interpreting emotions involves the ability to understand complex feelings and recognizing and reasoning about the progression of emotion (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The fourth and last branch, managing emotions in oneself and others includes the ability to reflectively regulate emotions. This involves abilities that manage emotions in oneself and others and that promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). These include staying open to feelings that are

both pleasant and unpleasant, reflectively engaging, or detaching from emotion-based on its usefulness, reflectively monitoring emotions concerning oneself and others, and managing emotions in oneself and others without repressing or exaggerating the information they provide (Mayer & Salovey, 1987).

Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2016) made a few changes to the ability model of EI proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997). New abilities were added to each branch and some abilities were divided from the original model into two or more separate abilities. For example, under the perceiving emotion branch, they added the abilities to identify deceptive or dishonest emotional expressions and perceiving emotional context in the environment, visual arts, and music, among others.

The most current measure of the ability model of EI is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, Sitarenious, 2003). It contains 141 items that measure the four branches of EI as posited by the ability model: (a) perceiving emotions, (b) using emotions to facilitate thought, (c) understanding emotions, and (d) managing emotions. Each of the branches is measured with two tasks. For example, the perceiving emotions branch is measured using the faces and pictures tasks. The faces task requires respondents to view a series of faces and indicate the degree to which each face is showing a specific emotion. The pictures task is similar but requires respondents to look at pictures of landscapes and abstract designs instead of faces and choose a cartoon face that corresponds to the picture. The MSCEIT has achieved good reliability, and confirmatory factor analysis has supported theoretical models of EI (Mayer et al., 2003). However, further research on the validity of the MSCEIT criticized the measure because it did not accurately reflect the four-branch ability model (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2016). As a result, researchers concluded that

the mental abilities involved in EI reasoning are yet to be determined (Mayer et al., 2016), and that the applied use of EI tests must proceed with caution (Mayer & Salovey, 2003).

Goleman's Competency Model

Compared to Mayer and Salovey's pure ability-based conceptualization of EI, mixed-models include certain personality traits that may predict success in everyday and professional situations (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). Goleman's competency model (Goleman, 1995) and Bar-On's mixed model (Bar-On, 1997) are two of the most cited examples of mixed models of EI.

Goleman sensationalized the field of EI with his 1995 New York Times bestselling book '*Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More than IQ*'. The book's title was very bold and included big statements such as EI is the reason for nearly "90% of the difference" between star performers and average ones (Gayathri, 2013). However, although these claims were based on assumptions, rather than empirical evidence, they have inspired researchers to further study EI and its applications. Goleman(1998) proposed a four branch model of EI, made up of twenty emotional competencies. He stated that EI is an innate talent that individuals are born with, which determines their potential for learning emotional competencies, which are learned and can be developed (Goleman, 1998). The four branches of his model are self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, and relationship management. Self-awareness includes the emotional competencies of emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence. Social awareness includes empathy, service organization, and organizational awareness. Self-management includes self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, achievement drive, and initiative. Relationship management includes developing

others, influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, and teamwork and collaboration.

Goleman's competency model is mixed, as it consists of a combination of cognitive, personality, and affective traits and competencies (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). The model is often used to address emotional intelligence in the workplace. Cherniss and Goleman (2001) argue that EI influences the effectiveness of an organization in many ways, including teamwork, employee commitment, innovation, productivity, sales, quality of services, customer loyalty, and efficiency. For example, the EI of a hiring committee is important for making good hiring decisions and the EI of a boss or peer can influence the relationships of an organization and ultimately its effectiveness (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

The Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) is a widely used measure based on Goleman's competency model, which focuses on predicting workplace success (Boyatis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000). The ESCI consists of 68-items that reflect workplace scenarios and requires respondents to indicate the frequency of the observed behaviour. It uses a 360-degree assessment, which means that ratings can be provided by peers and supervisors in addition to self-ratings. The ESCI does not have extensive published research to support its validity, however, that does not mean that it is not a promising tool for predicting success in the workplace; but rather, reflects a lack of evidence (O'Connor, Hill, Kaya & Martin, 2019).

Bar-On Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence.

The Bar-On model defines EI as "a multi-factorial array of emotional and social competencies that determine how effectively we relate with ourselves and others and cope with daily demands and pressures" (Bar-On, 2002, p. 31). The model posits that our EI is important in determining our ability to succeed in life, and that EI directly influences our overall well-being

(Bar-On, 2002). EI develops along with cognitive intelligence and can be improved through training and therapy. The Bar-On model includes five components of EI: (a) Intrapersonal, (b) Interpersonal, (c) Adaptability, (d) Stress management, and (e) General Mood (Bar-On, 2002). The Intrapersonal component includes being aware of oneself and understanding our strengths and weaknesses. It requires that we can express our feelings and thoughts in a constructive manner and includes the sub-components of self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization. The Interpersonal component is concerned with social awareness and relationships with others, including being aware of others' emotions and maintaining healthy relationships. The Interpersonal component includes the sub-components of empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationships. The component of Stress Management incorporates the management and regulation of emotions and includes the sub-components of stress tolerance and impulse control. Adaptability requires managing change and being able to flexibly cope with situations and solve problems as they arise. This component includes the sub-components of reality-testing, flexibility, and problem-solving. The last component, General Mood, refers to being motivated and optimistic in pursuing goals, and includes the sub-components of optimism and happiness (Bar-On, 2002).

Bar-On refers to the construct of EI as emotional-social intelligence (ESI) and describes it as “a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how efficiently we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands (Bar-On, 2006, p. 3). The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (BarOn EQ-i; Bar-On, 1997) is used to measure ESI and is a 133-item self-report measure. It includes scales that measure the five components of ESI and also includes four validity scales. The EQ-i has high predictive validity based on studies involving social

interactions at school and in the workplace, with a measured impact on physical health, psychological health, and subjective well-being (Bar-On, 2006). For example, Swart (1996) found a significant difference in ESI between a group of South African undergraduate students with higher grade-point averages (GPAs) than a group of students with lower GPAs. Students who were considered successful based on their higher GPAs consistently scored higher in ESI (Swart, 1996). Bar-On (2007) confirmed these findings using American university students and found that more successful students were more emotionally and socially intelligent. These results confirm that the Bar-On model of ESI can be used to identify and predict those who perform well in school and those who will have difficulties (Bar-On, 2006).

Emotional Intelligence and Coping with Stress

EI plays an important role in managing stress. Salovey and colleagues (1999) suggest that individuals with higher EI cope better with the emotional demands of stress because they can “accurately perceive and appraise their emotions, know how and when to express their feelings, and can effectively regulate their mood states” (p.161). When individuals are stressed, they engage in coping, which is facilitated by cognitive, behavioural, and emotional efforts to manage the stressor (Coyne, Aldwin & Lazarus, 1981; Lloyd, 2014). EI plays an important role in managing stress in undergraduate students (Austin, Saklofske, Donald & Mastoras, 2010; Houghton, Wu, Godwin, Jeffrey, Neck & Manz, 2012; Moradi, Pishva, Ehsan, Hadadi & Pouladi, 2011; Noorbakhsh, Besharat & Zarei, 2010). For example, one study examined the relationship between EI and coping styles with stress in 413 undergraduate students (Noorbakhsh et al., 2010). It was found that EI had a significant positive relationship with problem-focused and positive emotion-focused coping styles. These coping styles include positive reinterpretation and growth, active coping, humor, use of emotional social support and acceptance, found on the

COPE inventory (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989). It was also found that EI was negatively associated with negative emotional focused coping styles (Noorbakhsh et al., 2010). These include focus on and venting of emotions and denial (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989). Noorbakhsh and colleagues (2010) suggest that EI influences coping strategies through management, regulation, utilization, facilitation and appraisal of emotions. Another study with undergraduate students found that EI had a positive relationship with problem-solving coping strategies, social support, and cognitive appraisal (Moradi et al., 2011). Emotional intelligence allows for individuals to cope with stressors effectively, which may reduce the perceived stress that an individual is feeling. For example, Day, Tharrien, and Carroll (2005) studied the relationships between EI, factors of personality, daily hassles, and psychological health/strain factors in 133 Canadian undergraduate students. EQ-i was used to measure EI (Bar-On, 1997). The Brief College Students Hassles Scale (Blanketsein, Flett, & Koledin, 1991) and the Daily Hassles Scale (DeLongis et al., 1982; Holm & Holroyd, 1992) were used to measure daily hassles. The results showed that daily hassles were negatively associated with all of the EI subscales, except for interpersonal skills (Day, Tharrien & Carroll, 2005).

Pearlin and Schooler (1978) identified five stress coping resources that help individuals manage their stressors: cognitive, emotional, social, physical, and spiritual/philosophical. The cognitive style of coping involves problem-solving and cognitive restructuring which helps individuals to change the way they view the problem (Lloyd, 2014). It requires an individual to think about the problem and to plan how to effectively cope with the problem. It is a preventative, rather than a reactive approach in handling challenges, making it more adaptive than emotion-stress coping. Research suggests that there is a relationship between EI and this cognitive problem-focused style of coping (Austin, Saklofske & Mastoras, 2010; Downey,

Johnston, Hansen, Birney & Stough, 2010). Research also suggests that individuals with a higher level of EI engage in cognitive styles of coping more often than emotionally focused styles of coping (Mikolajczak, Petrides & Hurry, 2009; Lloyd, 2014). Lower levels of EI are related to emotion-related stress coping. Emotion-related stress coping may not be adaptive because it could involve avoidance of the emotions relating to the stressor. This style of coping is related to distress, worry, and rumination (Anderson, 1976; Mathews, Schwan, Campbell, Saklofske & Mohamed, 2000).

The social stress-coping style involves individuals obtaining assistance from others, especially during stressful times. Research suggests that EI has a positive relationship with social stress-coping and that those with low levels of EI have difficulty establishing meaningful social interactions (Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner & Salovey, 2006; Nizielski, Hallum, Lopes, Schutz, 2012). Physical stress-coping strategies refer to an individual's participation in behaviours that promote physical health. EI is positively associated with physical activity and exercise (Christensen, Howren, Hillis, Kaboli, Carter, Cvengros et al., 2010). Additionally, those with higher levels of EI are more likely to resist peer pressure to engage in smoking and alcohol consumption (Austen, Saklofske & Egan, 2005; Lloyd, 2014). Spiritual and/or philosophical stress-coping strategies influence how individuals appraise their challenges and can indicate a desire for personal transformation (Emmons, 1999; Lloyd, 2014; Park & Cohen, 1993). Research has not found any association between spiritual/philosophical coping and EI (Lloyd, 2014).

Resilience

Most of the early resilience research focused on resilience in children and has been described as occurring in three waves (Wright & Masten, 2005). The first wave aimed to define, measure, and describe outcomes concerning risk and adversity and to identify predictors of

resilience (Masten, 2014). The second wave of research shifted from a description orientation to a process orientation, which focused on the processes that lead to resilience. This phase aimed to determine what strategies increase the likelihood of positive development in the context of risk (Masten, 2014). The third wave of resilience research focused on developing interventions to promote resilience, using research from the first two waves of research (Masten, 2014). This phase introduced new initiatives and interventions to test existing theories and ideas. A fourth wave was later added to reflect the newest wave of research (Masten, 2014). This wave of research focuses on using medical technology to explore the construct of resilience's connection to neuroscience, genetics, and systems theories (Masten, 2014).

The term resilience has been difficult to define, as the literature in this area offers many different definitions. The definitions range from a return to a healthy developmental path after facing adversity, to a continued healthy functioning during the experience of adversity, to improvement beyond the normal trajectory after experiencing adversity (Fonagy & Target, 1994). Definitions of resilience fall into three categories: trait, outcome, and process (Hu, Zhang & Wang, 2015). Trait oriented definitions view resilience as a personality trait that helps individuals cope and adapt. In this orientation, resilience is a trait that protects individuals from the impact of adversity (Connor & Davidson, 2003; Hu et al., 2015; Ong, Bergeman, Bisconti & Wallace, 2006). Outcome-oriented definitions view resilience as a behavioural outcome that can help an individual overcome the effects of adversity (Harvey & Delfabbro; Hu et al., 2015; Masten, 2001). Process-oriented definitions describe resilience as a dynamic process where individuals are in the active process of adapting to and recovering from adversity (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005; Hu et al., 2015; Luthar, Cicchetti & Becker, 2000). Despite these varying definitions, the constant core of resilience is that it includes the ability to adapt to a new or

challenging situation (Luthar, 2006). Fletcher and Sarker (2016) provide an integrated definition and refer to resilience as “the role of mental processes and behaviour in promoting personal assets and protecting an individual from the potential negative effect of stressors” (p. 16), and is considered the current conceptualization of resilience (Forbes & Fikretoglu, 2018).

Resilience is often described as consisting of internal and external protective factors that are associated with success, even in the presence of risk (Hartley, 2010; Masten & Reed, 2002). Internal protective factors include good cognitive capacities, adaptable personality, positive self-efficacy, faith, and a sense of meaning, self-regulation of emotional arousal and impulses, and a sense of humor. External protective factors include having access to good emergency social services, high public safety, and positive peer relationships (Hartley, 2010; Masten & Reed, 2002).

Models of Resilience

There are three models of resilience that are referred to in the literature: the compensatory model, the challenge model, and the protective factor of immunity versus vulnerability (Ledesma, 2014). The compensatory model views resilience as buffering the exposure to risk. In this model, risk factors and compensatory (or “resilience”) factors are considered to contribute to an outcome separately. In a study by Werner and Smith (2001), it was found that an active approach toward problem-solving, a tendency to perceive experiences in a positive light even when suffering, the ability to gain other people’s positive attention, and a strong reliance on faith to maintain a positive life view were important factors for resilient young adults. Additional research suggests that compensatory factors include optimism, insight, intellectual competence, determination, perseverance, and direction (Kumpfer & Hopkins, 1993; Ledesma, 2014; Ungar, 2004).

The challenge model suggests that a risk factor, when not too extreme, could serve to enhance an individual's adaptation. For example, adolescents who are exposed to moderate levels of risk may use the experience to learn to overcome challenges (Fleming & Ledogar, 2008).

In the protective factor model of resilience, the protection and risk factors interact with each other to moderate the effect of exposure to risk (Ledesma, 2014). The protective factors of resilience may include internal traits such as self-esteem, emotion regulation, planning behaviour, self-efficacy, goal efficacy, control, and external factors such as family cohesion and the availability of social resources (Forbes & Fikretoglu, 2018; Madewell & Ponce-Garcia, 2016).

Resilience and Undergraduate Students

Researchers argue that protective factors may be especially beneficial during emerging adulthood and that at-risk adolescents could make a positive transition into adulthood by using the experiences they encounter during this period to maximize protective factors such as cognitive abilities and social resources (Bachmann, Znoj, & Haemmerli, 2014; Masten, Burt, Roisman, Obradovic, Long, & Tellegen, 2004). Undergraduate students experience both the challenges related to the transition to adulthood and new challenges related to university life. This exposure to stress coupled with an individual's developmental gaps in coping makes this period an especially vulnerable one for the development of psychological and physical health problems (Steinhardt & Dolbier, 2008). Research has also focused on the role of resilience in adapting to college life; resilience in this sense has been associated with psychological adjustment and academic persistence. For example, in a study with 605 undergraduate students, Hartley (2011) found that intrapersonal resilience factors helped explain the variance in

cumulative grade-point average and aptitude and achievement. It was also found that there is a strong relationship between the factors of inter- and intrapersonal resilience and mental health (Hartley, 2011).

Risk factors in university include individual characteristics, environments, and the interactions between individuals and between their environments that lead to poor developmental outcomes. Hartley (2011) describes the following as typical risk factors for students in college: (a) high levels of academic pressure and competition, (b) minimal academic support, (c) distant faculty and staff, (d) social isolation, (e) excessive alcohol and drug abuse, (f) pressure of long-term financial debt, (g) temporary cognitive impairment, (h) stigma of mental illness, (i) lower confidence in academics, and (j) conflicts with peers. Hartley (2011) also describes protective factors of resilience in college students. These include active coping, peer support, counseling, and psychosocial support, academic support, and academic accommodations. Available research on internal protective factors in undergraduate students suggests that autonomy, environmental mastery, and self-acceptance foster resilience in this population (Johnson, 2011).

Resilience and Daily Hassles

There have not been many studies examining the relationship between resilience and daily hassles in undergraduate students. McIntire and Duncan (2013) studied the associations among religious coping, daily hassles, and resilience in undergraduate students. It was found that resilience was negatively associated with the experience of daily hassles. It is possible that individuals who experience few daily hassles would be expected to score higher on resilience because they have less disruptions in their lives to test the stability of their functioning, and especially of their resilience (McIntire & Duncan, 2013). More research is needed to examine the relationship between the experience of daily hassles and resilience. Other studies suggest that

individuals who score higher on measures of resilience may experience stressors less frequently because they are more competent in dealing with these stressors (Baruth & Carroll, 2002; Pinquart, 2009). For example, Pinquart (2009) found that dispositional resilience was associated with experiencing daily hassles less frequently in German adolescents. He suggested that resilient individuals have high levels of self-efficacy, internal locus of control, ego-strength, optimism, confidence, perseverance, problem-solving skills, and flexibility (Pinquart, 2009).

Almeida (2005) describes a model that explains the process in which resilience or vulnerability factors affect daily-stress processes and well-being. These factors include sociodemographic (i.e. age, gender, education), psychosocial (i.e. personality traits, life goals), and health characteristics (i.e. mental health, acute disease). These factors influence the type of stressors an individual may face and also how they appraise the stressor. Therefore, the objective characteristics of daily hassles and an individual's subjective appraisal of the hassles influence their psychological and physical wellbeing (Almeida, 2005; Cohen, Kessler & Gordon, 1997). These aspects of wellbeing in turn affect resilience and vulnerability factors, representing a feedback loop in the model (Almeida, 2005). More research is needed to describe the relationship between resilience and daily hassles.

Daily Hassles, Resilience, and Emotional Intelligence

Previous research, although limited, has provided support for the relationships between stress, EI, and resilience. One study aimed to test the relationship between EI, resilience, and perceived stress in 698 undergraduate students (Sarrionandia, Ramos-Diaz & Fernandez-Lasarte, 2018). The Self-Rated Emotional Intelligence Scale (SREIS; Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, & Salovey, 2006) was used to assess the following dimensions of EI: perception of emotions in both oneself and others, use of emotions, understanding emotions, and management of emotions.

The 10-item Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (Campbell-Sills and Stein, 2007) was used to measure resilience and the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-4; Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983) was used to evaluate how unpredictable, uncontrollable, and overloading individuals found their lives in the past month. The findings indicated that EI had a positive effect on resilience, which suggested that the ability of undergraduate students to identify and manage their own and others' emotions may predict their ability to cope with stressors (Sarrionandia et al., 2018). Resilience in this study had a significant negative association with perceived stress, suggesting that those who are higher in resilience may recover more effectively from daily stress (Sarrionandia et al., 2018). Additionally, it was found that resilience mediated the relationship between EI and perceived stress in undergraduate students, suggesting that students with higher levels of EI were more resilient, which contributed to a decrease in perceived stress (Sarrionandia et al., 2018). The results of this study suggest that EI is a protective factor in promoting resilience to stress, which can help undergraduate students with psychological adjustment (Sarrionandia et al., 2018). Other studies also suggest that EI is antecedent to resilience, such that EI functions through its dimensions to facilitate resilience (Armstrong et al., 2011; Magnano & Craparo, 2016; Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2002). The available literature there suggests that EI plays an important role in the process of resilience and that resilient individuals effectively use positive emotions to their advantage in the coping process (Magnano, Craparo & Paolillo, 2016). In other words, individuals who are resilient create their own positive emotions using humor, relaxation techniques, and optimistic thinking (Demos, 1989; Kumpfer, 1999; Magnano & Craparo, 2016; Werner & Smith, 1992; Wolin & Wolin, 1993).

Personal Growth Initiative

Personal growth occurs when individuals make changes to adapt to new challenges and situations. Erik Erikson's (1950) stages of psychosocial development highlight the process by which individuals continue to develop, influenced by biological, psychological, and social factors throughout their lifespan. For example, in the *intimacy vs. isolation* stage of psychosocial development, young adults must form loving and lasting relationships with others or failure to do so may lead to loneliness and isolation (Erikson, 1950). These changes may occur unintentionally or with intention. Prochaska and DiClemente (1986) describe how personal growth can occur by developmental, environmental, or intentional processes. The developmental domain is characterized by unintentional personal growth. For example, a child can develop a more complex level of moral reasoning and can be unaware of this change (Robitschek, 1998). Environmental factors, such as getting a new job or experiencing the death of a loved one can also trigger changes, depending on one's resistance to change (Robitschek, 1998). Personal change can also occur when an individual is actively participating in a change and is aware of the process. For example, those that are not satisfied by their relationship may actively engage in re-evaluating their needs and making the necessary changes to ensure that these needs are met. This intentional engagement and awareness in the process of growth is known as personal growth initiative (PGI; Robitschek, 1998).

Robitschek (1998) introduced PGI as a person's active and intentional involvement in changing and developing as a person. The concept of PGI was informed by the Transtheoretical Model of Change (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1983). This model of change states that there are five stages in behavioural change, known as the Stages of Change: (a) pre-contemplation, (b) contemplation, (c) preparation, (d) action, and (e) maintenance (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1983). During the pre-contemplation stage, there is no intention to change behaviour and individuals are

not aware of problems. In the contemplation stage, the individual is aware of a problem and feels uncomfortable about their situation. The individual then invests energy and effort into problem-solving and there is a shift from an external locus of control to an internal locus of control (McClellan, Schneider & Perney, 1998). In the preparation stage, individuals are ready to take action towards reducing the problem behaviour within the next 30 days. During this stage, individuals take small steps towards the behaviour change and may have made unsuccessful attempts at action. The action stage marks the stage where the individual has taken action and behaviours are modified (McClellan et al., 1998). There is also evidence of a commitment to change. The maintenance stage focuses on relapse prevention and individuals work to maintain their behavioural changes.

Robitschek (1998) describes that PGI encompasses the preparation stage of the transtheoretical model, however, instead of changing a specific behaviour, PGI is focused on change across all areas of life. PGI also encompasses self-efficacy, which is defined as an individual's beliefs about their ability to accomplish something (Bandura, 1977). However, PGI is broader because it also includes the behavioural components that implement the individual's cognitions. For example, the statement 'I know how to change specific things that I want to change in my life' is a cognition, and the statement 'If I want to change something in my life, I initiate the transition process' is a behavioural component that implements the cognition (Robitschek, 1998). PGI has been described as being an important skill to teach a client in therapy because individuals will always encounter new challenges and obstacles throughout their lives (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1986; Schlossberg, 1984).

Robitschek (1998) developed the Personal Growth Initiative Scale (PGIS) to evaluate a wilderness program for individuals who were going through personal or work-related transitions

or looking for renewal in their lives. The PGIS is a 9-item measure, with a 5-point Likert scale. However, there were two limitations of the PGIS. Firstly, the PGIS was developed based on specific goals of the wilderness program (seeking life balance and goal settings), rather than intentional personal growth (Robitschek, Ashton, Spring, Geiger, Byers, Schotts & Thoen, 2012). Secondly, the PGIS is unidimensional despite the measure including both cognitive and behavioural items. Consequently, the PGIS-II (Robitschek et al., 2012) was developed with items derived from PGI theory to separate the cognitive and behavioural aspects. The PGIS-II is a multidimensional measure that includes four subscales: (a) Readiness for Change, (b) Planfulness, (c) Using Resources, and (d) Intentional Behaviour. The Readiness for Change subscale assesses the ability to identify what needs to be changed and when the individual is ready to make that change. The Planfulness subscale includes the ability to make an appropriate plan for this change. Using Resources involves the ability to identify and access resources and support systems that will help the individual achieve the change successfully. Resources may include materials such as books and classes, or may include other people. The Intentional Behaviour subscale measures the ability of the individual to initiate and implement their plan to make the proposed change (Robitschek et al., 2012).

Personal Growth Initiative, Emotional Intelligence, and Resilience

Research examining the relationship between PGI, EI, and resilience is sparse. A study by Kugbey and colleagues (2018) examined the influence of EI and PGI on subjective happiness among university students in Ghana. Findings indicated a positive relationship between EI and PGI, and that both predicted students' level of subjective happiness. EI may be associated with PGI because levels of PGI can be related to levels of emotional self-efficacy, which is an aspect of EI (Beri & Jain, 2016; Sharma & Rani, 2013). For example, one study defined emotional self-

efficacy as the ability to recognize, understand, and describe one's emotions and use them to control their thoughts and actions (Beri & Jain, 2010). Emotional self-efficacy was positively related to PGI, as measured by the PGIS-II in undergraduate students.

Research suggests that growth and change during the university years are positive and necessary for an individual to transition from being a dependent adolescent to an independent young adult (Brougham, Zail, Mendoza, & Miller, 2009). However, this period is also accompanied by stress (Brougham et al., 2009). The ability to transition to college life, manage the accompanying stressors, and use available resources is related to resilience and PGI (Thong, 2018; Masten, 2014; Robitschek et al., 2012). That is, one may possess the ability to adapt to change, cope with stress, and not be discouraged by failure (factors of resilience), but whether or not one uses these abilities may be related to emotional intelligence. However, there are no known studies to date that have examined the relationships between EI, resilience, and PGI in undergraduate students.

Rationale for the Present Study

The present study proposes that emotional intelligence will function through its dimensions to promote resilience, which will result in less stress and higher levels of personal growth initiative. Studies have shown that EI is antecedent to resilience and that EI functions through its dimensions (i.e. emotional self-efficacy) to promote resilience (Armstrong et al., 2011; Magnano & Craparo, 2016; Magnano, Craparo & Paolillo, 2016; Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts; Sarrionandia, Ramos-Diaz & Fernandez-Lasarte, 2018). Resilience, in turn, will allow an individual to effectively cope with their daily hassles. More specifically, these individuals will not encounter as many hassles and/or will rate these hassles as having a lower impact on their lives compared because they are better equipped to cope with these stressors. Previous studies

(i.e. Sarrionandia et al., 2018) have shown that resilience mediates the negative relationship between EI and stress, but have not used daily hassles as a measure of stress. Measuring the effect of specific daily hassles to assess stress would provide a richer understanding of the types of stressors undergraduate students are experiencing and their relationships with EI and resilience. Therefore, the present study uses a measure of daily hassles to examine the types of daily hassles experienced by undergraduate students and to quantify stress.

Research suggests that growth and change during the undergraduate years are positive and necessary for students to transition from adolescence to young adulthood (Brougham et al., 2009), and the abilities to make this transition, to manage the accompanying stress, and to use available resources are related to resilience and PGI. However, there are no studies examining the relationship between resilience and personal growth initiative. The present study aims to explore this relationship. In addition, the present study examines the possibility that EI works through its dimensions to promote resilience, when in turn promotes PGI. This is because levels of PGI have been shown to be related to emotional self-efficacy, an aspect of EI, in undergraduate students (Beri & Jain, 2016; Sharma & Rani, 2013). Resilience may mediate the relationship between EI and PGI because the protective factors that make up resilience may be important to allow an individual to make the necessary changes for personal growth, in addition to being emotionally intelligent. The present study aims to further investigate this relationship between EI and PGI, in addition to examining the possibility of resilience as a mediator of this relationship.

Hypotheses

There were a number of hypotheses about daily hassles. It was hypothesized that there would be a negative relationship between emotional intelligence and the experience of daily hassles; in other words, as emotional intelligence scores increase, students will report a lower impact of daily hassles on their lives because they do not perceive many events as stressors. For example, Day, Therrien, and Carroll (2005) found that scores on the EQ-i scales were associated with fewer perceived hassles. It was also hypothesized that there would be a negative relationship between resilience and the experience of daily hassles because those who score higher on resilience will experience fewer daily stressors (Pinquart, 2009).

It was predicted that there would be a positive relationship between EI and resilience because previous research has confirmed this relationship (Magnano et al., 2016; Schneider et al., 2013). It was also predicted that resilience will mediate the negative relationship between EI and the experience of daily hassles. This hypothesis is based on research that suggests that EI is antecedent to resilience and that EI functions through its dimensions to promote resilience, which in turn reduces an individual's experience of daily hassles (Armstrong et al., 2011). The hypothesis that resilience will mediate the negative relationship between EI and the experience of daily hassles will be explored using linear regressions.

The next three hypotheses were related to PGI. A positive relationship between EI and PGI was expected, as findings from the literature have shown that personal growth initiative is emotional self-efficacy, which is an aspect of EI (Beri & Jain, 2016; Sharma & Rani, 2013). A positive relationship between resilience and personal growth initiative was expected because the ability to adapt to change and cope with stress may be associated with an individual's active and intentional involvement in changing and developing as a person (Thong, 2018; Masten, 2014). The final hypothesis proposed that resilience mediates the relationship between EI and PGI.

Specifically, it was expected that EI will predict PGI and that resilience will mediate this relationship because EI may function through its dimensions to promote resilience, which may also promote PGI.

Methods

Participants

The sample consisted of 71 undergraduate students (55 females, 14 males, and 2 transgender) who were enrolled in programs at four Ontario universities (University of Toronto, Laurentian University, Ryerson University, and York University). More than half of the participants were enrolled in undergraduate programs at the University of Toronto (53.5%), with the remaining enrolled at Laurentian University (26.8%), Ryerson University (18.3%), and York University (1.4%). The majority of the participants were enrolled in full-time studies (90.1%) as opposed to part-time studies. Almost half of the participants were enrolled in social science programs (i.e., psychology, mental health, health studies, criminology; 46.5%) and the rest were enrolled in the life sciences (i.e., biomedical biology, behavioural neuroscience, chemistry; 19%), business (15.5%), arts (7.0%), engineering (2.8%), and computer science (1.4%).

The age range of the participants was 18 - 40 years ($M = 22.07$, $SD = 4.50$). Most participants were employed (63.4%) rather than unemployed (36.6%). [Data collection was completed before the COVID-19 pandemic.](#)

Measures

Demographic Measures

Participants answered a demographic questionnaire that included age, gender, ethnicity, school, program, enrollment status (full-time or part-time student), and employment status.

The Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences

The Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences (ICSRLE; Kohn, Lafreniere & Gurevich, 1990) is a 49-item scale consisting of seven subscales, measuring developmental challenges, time pressures, academic alienation, romantic problems, assorted annoyances, general social mistreatment, and friendship problems. The developmental challenges factor includes challenges typically faced by college students. Sample items of the developmental challenges subscale are "Important decisions about your future career" and "Hard effort to get ahead". Sample items of the time pressure subscale include: "Not enough time to meet your obligations" and "too many things to do at once". Sample items of the academic alienation subscale include: "Disliking your studies" and "Finding course(s) uninteresting". Sample items on the romantic problems subscale are: "Decisions about intimate relationship(s)" and "Conflicts with boyfriend/girlfriend/spouse". Sample items on the assorted annoyances scale are: "Social conflicts over smoking" and "Having your contributions overlooked". "Being taken advantage of" and "Loneliness" are items on the general social mistreatment subscale. "Being let down or disappointed by friends" and "Conflicts with friends" are examples of items on the friendship problems subscale. Respondents are asked to use a four-point Likert scale to indicate the degree the subscale items (daily hassles) are a part of their life during the last 30 days. Responses can range from 1 (not at all a part of my life) to 4 (very much part of my life). The total score ranges from 49 to 196. The range of scores for the subscales are: (a) developmental challenge subscale (10-40); (b) time pressure subscale (7-28); (c) assorted annoyances (5-20); (d) general social mistreatment (6-24); (e) academic alienation, romantic problems, and friendship problems subscales (3-12). Higher scores indicate higher levels of stress. The test has good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's α of .88. The scale had a correlation of .59 ($p < .0005$) with the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS; Cohen, Kamarck & Mermelstein, 1983).

The Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale

The Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC; Connor & Davidson, 2003) is a 25-item scale assessing resilience. The items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (not true at all) to 4 (true nearly all of the time). Scores range from 0 to 100, with higher scores reflecting greater resilience. Connor and Davidson (2003) define resilience as the ability to thrive in the face of adversity. The scale includes questions with themes of (a) personal competence, high standards, tenacity; (b) trust in one's instincts, tolerance of negative affect, and strengthening effects of stress; (c) positive acceptance of change and secure relationships; (d) control; and (e) spiritual influences. For example, "During times of stress/crisis, I know where to turn for help" is an item in the control theme of the CD-RISC. The scale is scored by summing the total of all items, and the full range score ranges from 0 to 100.

The CD-RISC has been tested using participants from a community sample, primary care outpatients, general psychiatric outpatients, clinical trials of generalized anxiety disorder, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Results showed good internal consistency, as Cronbach's α for the full scale was 0.89 for a clinical sample of primary care patients ($n = 577$). Item-total correlations ranged from 0.30 to 0.70. Test-retest reliability was assessed using participants from two clinical trials, revealing a high level of agreement with a correlation coefficient of 0.87. In terms of convergent validity, scores on the CD-RISC and the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-10; Cohen, Kamarack & Mermelstein, 1983) were negatively correlated (Pearson $r = -0.76$, $P < .001$). This indicates that higher levels of resilience correspond to lower levels of perceived stress. Similarly, the Sheehan Stress Vulnerability Scale (SVS; Sheehan, Raj & Soto, 1990) was negatively correlated with the CD-RISC (Spearman $r = -0.32$, $P < .0001$). The measure has been

used in previous studies assessing resilience in college students (i.e. Campbell-Sills & Stein, 2007; Marulanda & Addington, 2016; Madewell & Ponce-Garcia, 2016).

BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory - Short

The BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory - Short (EQ-i:S; Bar-On, 2002) is a self-report measure of emotional intelligence containing 51-items which are rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (very seldom or not true of me) to 5 (very often or true of me). The scale generates a total EQ score and 5 subscale scores, including Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Stress Management, Adaptability, and General Mood scores. The Intrapersonal scale taps into self-awareness and self-expression and includes the abilities to be aware of oneself and understanding one's own emotions, effective expression of our thoughts and feelings, being independent and free of emotional dependency on others, and the ability to set goals and have the drive to achieve them. The Interpersonal scale includes the ability to be aware of others' emotions and needs, and the ability to establish and maintain healthy relationships. The Stress Management scale includes the ability to manage emotions effectively and use them to guide one's behaviour. The Adaptability scale pertains to the ability to adapt and cope with changes and effective problem-solving. The General Mood scale includes emotional skills such as having optimism, combined with feelings of happiness with oneself, others, and life in general. The total EQ score is computed by adding the scores from each of the subscales and dividing by 5. The total EQ score is an indicator of overall emotional and social functioning.

Internal consistency coefficients for the EQ-i:S ranged from .76 to .93 (Bar-On, 2002). Construct validity is supported by high correlations (ranging from .73 to .96 for males and from .75 to .97 for females) between the overlapping scales that appear on the 51-items Bar-On EQ-i:S and the original Bar-On EQ-i: S. There are also low to moderate significant correlations

between the Bar-On EQ-i:S and the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 1999).

Personal Growth Initiative Scale

The Personal Growth Initiative Scale (PGIS-II Robitschek, Ashton, Spering, Geiger, Bryers, Schotts & Thoen, 2012) is a self-report scale that assesses personal growth initiative through four subscales: (a) Readiness for Change, (b) Planfulness, (c) Using Resources, and (d) Intentional Behaviour. The Readiness for Change subscale measures the degree to which the individual is ready for change. The Planfulness subscale measures the knowledge and ability of the individual to develop an appropriate plan for change. The Using Resources sub-scale measures the desire and skills of the individual to access resources and use support systems. The Intentional Behaviour subscale measures the ability of one to initiate and implement needed actions and behaviours (Thong, 2018). It consists of sixteen items that are rated on a Likert scale from 0 (disagree strongly) to 5 (agree strongly). The score is calculated by adding the responses on the items for each subscale; the final score ranges from 0-80, with higher scores being indicative of higher levels of personal growth initiative. Tests of the scale have revealed good internal consistency, as Cronbach's α was .92 for a sample of college students who experienced a potentially traumatic event (Shigemoto, Low, Borowa & Robitschek, 2016).

Procedure

The study was approved by the institutional ethics review board (REB) at Laurentian University (see Appendix A). A convenience sampling procedure was used, where posters advertising the current study (see Appendix B) were posted to Facebook groups targeting undergraduate students. Study posters were also distributed by professors to students taking their courses. Interested students contacted the researcher. To ensure eligibility for the study,

participants were asked screening questions before they received a link to the online questionnaire. The screening questions included: “Are you enrolled in an undergraduate program at an Ontario university?” and “Which year of study are you in/will be entering?” Students who were about to start their first year of undergraduate studies were not included in the overall study. In terms of incentive for participation, Laurentian University students who were eligible for course credit were offered partial course credit of 0.5% for their participation in the study. Participants from other universities and those who were not eligible for course credit were entered into a draw for a chance to win a \$50.00 VISA gift card.

Eligible participants were assigned a unique ID number, which was used to track whether or not they completed the survey. Eligible participants were sent a link to a Qualtrics survey which generated their ID number. Students were then instructed to enter their ID number when prompted and to let the researcher know if they had any questions. Upon clicking the link to the survey, participants were taken to the informed consent page, which contained a detailed description of the study (see Appendix C). There was no time limit to complete the online questionnaires, however, it took approximately 30 minutes, on average, to complete.

Participants were presented with the five questionnaires in the following order: demographic measures, ICSRLE, CD-RISC, EQ-i: S, and the PGIS-II. Each questionnaire was presented on a single screen, and once completed, participants could not return to a previously completed questionnaire. At the end of the questionnaires, participants were asked to enter their email address if they wished to enter the gift card draw. The email address data was stored separately from the responses on the questionnaires. Participants were then thanked for their participation in the study.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, and ranges) for the measures of daily hassles, resilience, EI, and PGI are shown in Table 1. The descriptive statistics for these variables are similar to norms reported in past studies (Connor & Davidson, 2003; Bar-On, 2002; D'Angelo & Wierzbicki, 2003; Grubb & McDaniel, 2007; Kohn, Lafreniere & Gurevich, 1990; Robitschek, 1998).

The most frequently endorsed items on the daily hassles measure are listed in Table 2. The frequencies include those participants who rated the ICSRLE as “distinctly part of my life” or “very much part of my life”. The most endorsed item was “important decisions about your education” followed by “financial burdens”, “important decisions about your future career”, “a lot of responsibilities”, and “too many things to do at once”.

Relationships Between the Variables

Pearson correlations were calculated to test for statistically significant relationships. Table 3 presents the correlations between the study variables. Emotional intelligence was negatively correlated with daily hassles ($r(70) = -.45, p < .01$). Resilience and daily hassles were not significantly correlated. Emotional intelligence was positively correlated with resilience ($r(70) = .69, p < .01$) and with personal growth initiative ($r(70) = .52, p < .01$). The strongest correlation was between the measures of resilience and personal growth initiative ($r(70) = .78, p < .01$).

Table 1*Descriptive Statistics for the Daily Hassles, Resilience, Emotional Intelligence, and Personal Growth Initiative**Measures*

Category	Measure	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range
Daily Hassles	ICSRLE Developmental Challenge	26.0	6.1	15 - 40
	ICSRLE Time Pressure	17.7	5.0	7 - 28
	ICSRLE Academic Alienation	6.6	2.7	3 - 12
	ICSRLE Romantic Problems	6.0	2.6	3 - 12
	ICSRLE Assorted Annoyances	8.7	2.7	5 - 18
	ICSRLE General Social Mistreatment	13.3	4.6	6 - 24
	ICSRLE Friendship Problems	5.5	2.3	3 - 12
	ICSRLE Total	107.4	23.3	67 - 163
Resilience	CD-RISC	89.0	14.4	51 - 115
Emotional Intelligence	EQ-I: S Intrapersonal Scale	31.5	5.9	20 - 46
	EQ-i: S Interpersonal	41.3	5.9	24 - 50
	EQ-i: S Stress Management	27.6	6.1	11 - 38
	EQ-i: S Adaptability	25.5	4.2	14 - 35
	EQ-i: S General Mood	31.9	6.9	13 - 44
	EQ-i: S Total	31.6	3.7	22.2 - 40.4
Personal Growth Initiative	PGIS-II: Readiness for Change	12.9	4.4	1 - 20
	PGIS-II: Planfulness	15.5	5.7	0 - 24
	PGIS-II: Using Resources	8.6	3.5	0 - 15
	PGIS-II: Intentional Behaviour	12.6	3.9	1 - 20
	PGIS-II: Total	49.5	16.7	6 - 74

Note. *N* = 71. ICSRLE = Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences, CD-RISC = Connor-Davidson

Resilience Scale, EQ-i: S = BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory, PGIS-II = Personal Growth Initiative Scale

Table 2

Most Endorsed Items on the Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences

Item on ICSRLE	Frequency	Percentage
Important decisions about your education	41	56.9%
Financial burdens	39	54.9%
Important decisions about your future career	38	53.5%
A lot of responsibilities	33	46.5%
Too many things to do at once	23	32.4%

Note. $N = 71$. ICSRLE = Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences. Frequency is the number of times the item was rated as "distinctly part of my life" or "very much part of my life" by participants.

Table 3

Correlations between the Measures of Emotional Intelligence, Daily Hassles, Resilience and Personal Growth Initiative

	ICSRLE	CD-RISC	PGIS-II
1. EQ-i: S	-.45**	.69**	.52**
2. ICSRLE	-	-.21	-.19
3. CD-RISC	-.21	-	.78**
4. PGIS-II	-.19	.78**	-

Note. $N = 71$. ICSRLE = Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences, CD-RISC = Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale, EQ-i: S = BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory, PGIS-II = Personal Growth Initiative Scale

** $p < .01$

Resilience as a Mediator in the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Daily Hassles

To proceed with a mediation analysis, the relationships between emotional intelligence, daily hassles, and resilience must be significant. Emotional intelligence was significantly correlated with daily hassles ($r(70) = -.45, p < .01$) and resilience ($r(70) = .69, p < .01$). However, resilience was not significantly associated with daily hassles ($r(70) = -.21, p = ns$). Further regression analyses were not undertaken to determine if resilience mediated the relationship between EI and daily hassles because resilience was not significantly associated with daily hassles.

Resilience as a Mediator in the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Personal Growth Initiative

Table 4 shows the regression of personal growth initiative on emotional intelligence and resilience. Figure 1 summarizes the regression analyses for the prediction of personal growth initiative from emotional intelligence and resilience. Emotional intelligence significantly predicted personal growth initiative scores ($b = .52, F(1,69) = 25.39, p < .001$) (Model 1). Further, emotional intelligence explained 27% of the variance in personal growth initiative ($R^2 = .27, p < .001$). Model 2 shows the addition of resilience to the base model containing emotional intelligence. Results showed that resilience significantly predicted personal growth initiative ($b = .80, F(1, 68) = 51.41, p < .001$). Resilience also explained a significant proportion of variance in personal growth initiative scores ($R^2 = .60, p < .001$). The coefficient for emotional intelligence changed from .52 to -.03 from Model 1 to Model 2, which suggests an intervening (mediating) role for resilience.

Table 4

Analyses summary for the regression of personal growth initiative on emotional intelligence and resilience

Variables Entered	Model 1	Model 2
	<i>b</i> (<i>SE</i>)	<i>b</i> (<i>SE</i>)
EQ-i: S	.52 (.46)***	-.03 (.47)
CD-RISC		.80 (.12)***
Constant	2.33	.46
<i>F</i>	25.39***	51.41***
<i>R</i> ²	.27	.60

Note. $N = 71$. CD-RISC = Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale, EQ-i:S = BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory

*** $p < .001$

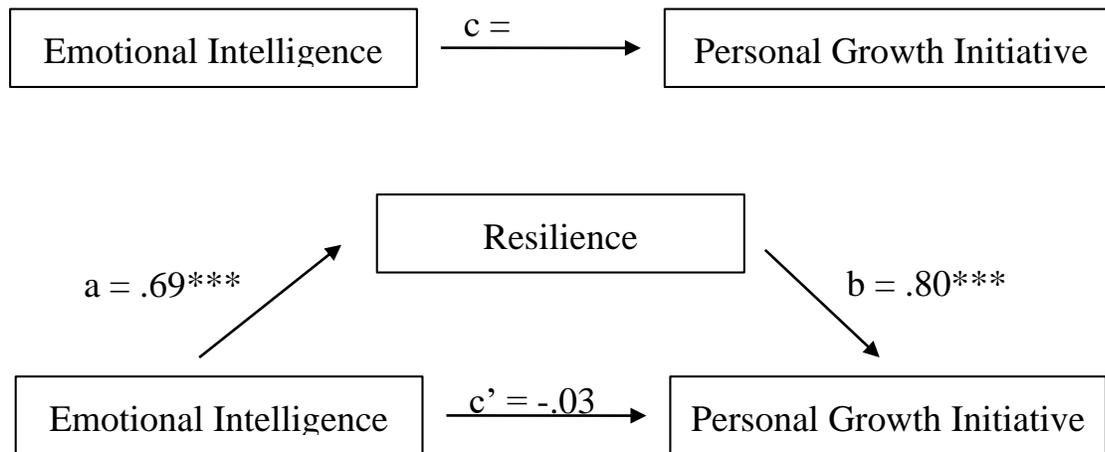


Figure 1. Standardized regression coefficients for the relationship between emotional intelligence and personal growth initiative as mediated by resilience.

*** $p < .001$

Additional Correlational Analyses

Additional correlational analyses were performed to further explore the relationships between the subscales on the measures of emotional intelligence (EI), experience of daily hassles, resilience, and personal growth initiative (PGI). These analyses were completed to examine whether certain subscales of the measures would correlate with each other, even if the total scores of the measures did not correlate. Table 5 presents the correlations between the totals and subscales on the measures of EI and experience of daily hassles. The Stress Management scale on the measure of EI was negatively correlated with all subscales on the measure of daily hassles: Developmental Challenges ($r(70) = -.48, p < .01$), Time Pressure ($r(70) = -.44, p < .01$), Academic Alienation ($r(70) = -.44, p < .01$), Romantic Problems ($r(70) = -.41, p < .01$), Assorted Annoyances ($r(70) = -.46, p < .01$), General Social Mistreatment ($r(70) = -.47, p < .01$), and Friendship Problems ($r(70) = -.48, p < .01$).

The Intrapersonal Scale on the EI measure was negatively correlated with daily hassles related to Developmental Challenges ($r(70) = -.30, p < .05$), Academic Alienation ($r(70) = -.33, p < .01$), and General Social Mistreatment ($r(70) = -.32, p < .01$). The Interpersonal Scale on the EI measure was negatively correlated with the Academic Alienation ($r(70) = -.30, p < .05$) and Assorted Annoyances ($r(70) = -.30, p < .05$) subscales on the measure of daily hassles.

The General Mood subscale on the EI measure was negatively correlated with the Developmental Challenges ($r(70) = -.40, p < .01$), Academic Alienation ($r(70) = -.51, p < .01$), and General Social Mistreatment ($r(70) = -.38, p < .01$). The Adaptability scale on the EI measure did not have any significant correlations with any subscales on the daily hassles measure.

Table 5

Correlations between the Totals and Subscales on the Measures of Daily Hassles and Emotional Intelligence

	EQ-i: S Total	Intra.	Inter.	Stress Manag.	Adapt.	General Mood
ICSRLE Total	-.45**	-.25*	-.23	-.64**	.14	-.33**
Developmental Challenges	-.39**	-.30*	-.09	-.48**	.14	-.40**
Time Pressure	-.23	-.01	-.20	-.44**	.16	-.15
Academic Alienation	-.53**	-.33**	-.30*	-.44**	.00	-.51**
Romantic Problems	-.18	-.08	-.03	-.41**	.01	-.03
Assorted Annoyances	-.31**	-.11	-.30*	-.46**	.07	-.11
General Social Mistreatment	-.38**	-.32**	-.104	-.47**	.21	-.38**
Friendship Problems	-.25*	-.09	-.17	-.48**	.05	-.06

Note. ICSRLE = Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences, EQ-i: S = BarOn

Emotional Quotient Inventory, Intra. = Intrapersonal Scale, Inter. = Interpersonal Scale, Stress

Manag. = Stress Management Scale, Adapt. = Adaptability Scale

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 6 presents the correlations between the total and subscale scores on the measures of resilience and daily hassles. There was a significant negative correlation between Developmental Challenges and resilience ($r(70) = -.30, p < .05$), and between Academic Alienation and resilience

($r(70) = -.45, p < .01$). However, as described previously, there was no significant correlation between the total scores on the measures of daily hassles and resilience.

Table 6

Correlations between Subscales on the Measures of Daily Hassles and Resilience

	CD-RISC
ICSRLE Total	-.21
Developmental Challenges	-.30*
Time Pressure	-.14
Academic Alienation	-.45**
Romantic Problems	.05
Assorted Annoyances	.01
General Social Mistreatment	-.21
Friendship Problems	.01

Note. CD-RISC = Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale, ICSRLE = Inventory of College Students'

Recent Life Experiences

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 7 presents the correlations between the totals and subscales of emotional intelligence measure and resilience. Resilience was positively correlated with all subscales on the emotional intelligence measure (Intrapersonal ($r(70) = .57, p < .01$), Interpersonal ($r(70) = .28, p < .05$), Adaptability ($r(70) = .34, p < .01$) and General Mood ($r(70) = .78, p < .01$)), except for Stress Management.

Table 7

Correlations between CD-RISC and the EQ-i: S Total and Subscales

	CD-RISC
EQ-i: S Total	.69**
Intrapersonal	.57**
Interpersonal	.28*
Stress Management	.18
Adaptability	.34**
General Mood	.78**

Note. CD-RISC = Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale, EQ-i: S = BarOn Emotional Quotient

Inventory

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 8 presents the correlations between the totals and subscales of the emotional intelligence and personal growth initiative measures. The Intrapersonal scale on the emotional intelligence measure was positively correlated with Readiness for Change ($r(70) = .39$, $p < .01$), Planfulness ($r(70) = .40$, $p < .01$), Using Resources ($r(70) = .38$, $p < .01$), and Intentional Behaviour ($r(70) = .37$, $p < .01$). The Adaptability scale was positively correlated with Readiness for Change ($r(70) = .24$, $p < .05$), Planfulness ($r(70) = .28$, $p < .05$), Using Resources ($r(70) = .33$, $p < .01$), and Intentional Behaviour ($r(70) = .29$, $p < .05$). The General Mood scale was positively correlated with Readiness for Change ($r(70) = .56$, $p < .01$), Planfulness ($r(70) = .66$, $p < .01$), Using Resources ($r(70) = .67$, $p < .01$), and Intentional Behaviour ($r(70) = .60$, $p < .01$). The Interpersonal and Stress Management subscales were not correlated with any of the scales on the personal growth initiative measure.

Table 8

Correlations between the PGIS-II and EQ-i: S Totals and Subscales

	EQ-i: S Total	Intra-	Inter-	Stress Manag.	Adapt.	General Mood
PGIS-II Total	.52**	.41**	.23	.03	.30*	.66**
Readiness for Change	.42**	.39**	.16	-.03	.24*	.56**
Planfulness	.52**	.40**	.20	.06	.28*	.66**
Using Resources	.56**	.38**	.29*	.09	.33**	.67**
Intentional Behaviour	.47**	.37**	.24*	-.01	.29*	.60**

Note. EQ-i: S = BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory, PGIS-II = Personal Growth Initiative

Scale, Intra. = Intrapersonal Scale, Inter. = Interpersonal Scale, Stress Manag. = Stress

Management Scale, Adapt. = Adaptability Scale

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 9 presents the correlations between the measure of resilience and the subscales of the measure of personal growth initiative. There were significant positive correlations between the resilience and Readiness for Change ($r(70) = .67$, $p < .01$), Planfulness ($r(70) = .75$, $p < .01$), Using Resources ($r(70) = .75$, $p < .01$), and Intentional Behaviour ($r(70) = .78$, $p < .01$).

Table 9

Correlations between the PGIS-II Total and Factors and CD-RISC

	CD-RISC
PGIS-II Total	.78**
Readiness for Change	.67**
Planfulness	.75**
Using Resources	.75**
Intentional Behaviour	.78**

Note. PGIS-II = Personal Growth Initiative Scale II, CD-RISC = Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale

** $p < .01$

Discussion

The current research aimed to examine the relationships between the experience of daily hassles, emotional intelligence (EI), resilience, and personal growth initiative (PGI) in post-secondary, undergraduate students. The mediating role of resilience in these relationships were also examined. Students enrolled in undergraduate programs at four universities in Ontario were recruited to complete an online survey. The survey included the Inventory of College Students' Recent Life Experiences (ICSRLE), the Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Quotient: Short (EQ-i: S), the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC), and the Personal Growth Initiative Scale - II (PGIS-II). The relationships between the variables were studied using correlation and linear regression analyses.

Relationship between Daily Hassles and Emotional Intelligence

A number of hypotheses were made regarding the relationships between the variables. Firstly, it was hypothesized that EI would have a negative relationship with the experience of daily hassles. Previous research suggests that individuals higher in EI are better able to cope with

and manage stress, and as a result, tend to fewer and less intense experience of daily hassles than those who are lower in EI (Coyne et al., 1981; Day et al., 2005; Noorbakhsh et al., 2010). The results of the current study were consistent with the literature: there was a significant negative relationship between EI and the experience of daily hassles. Additional analyses revealed that the strongest negative relationship was between the Stress Management subscale of EI and the total experience of daily hassles. This relationship was expected because individuals who score higher on the Stress Management subscale are generally calm and work well under pressure, are better able to tolerate stress and control their impulses (Bar-On, 2002). The Stress Management scale of EI was also negatively correlated with all other scales of the daily hassles measure. These findings are consistent with previous research that suggest that EI plays an important role in managing stress (Austin et al., 2010; Coyne et al., 1981; Salovey et al., 1999). This finding intuitively makes sense as those who are more emotionally intelligent engage in more problem-focused and positive emotion-focused coping styles, as opposed to negative emotion focused coping styles, which include venting of emotions and denial (Carber, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989; Noorbakhsh et al., 2010).

Relationship between Resilience and Daily Hassles

The second hypothesis predicted a negative relationship between resilience and the experience of daily hassles. This hypothesis was informed by evidence suggesting that resilience is associated with protective factors that guard against stress, resulting in resilient individuals reporting less daily hassles (Pinquart, 2009). Results from the current study did not support this hypothesis, as there was no significant relationship between resilience and the experience of daily hassles. Additional analyses revealed that there was a significant negative relationship between resilience and the developmental challenge and academic alienation subscales on the

daily hassles scale in the current study. The developmental challenge subscale included items relating to challenges uniquely faced by undergraduate students. For example, items on the ICSRLE related to developmental challenges are “struggling to meet your own academic standards” and “hard effort to get ahead”. Examples of items on the ICSRLE related to academic alienation include “disliking your studies” and “finding course(s) uninteresting”. These findings are consistent with studies that have found negative relationships between resilience and the experience of college-related daily hassles and coping with stressors in undergraduate students (Lai & Mak, 2009; Li, 2008). It is possible that being more resilient helps a college student cope with hassles related to academic challenges, more so than with hassles in other areas (friendship and romantic problems). For example, Li (2008) studied the relationship between college students’ stressors and resilience in Taiwanese college students. College students’ stressors were measured using the Student Stress Inventory (SSI; Gadzella, 1991) which contains stressful events that are both directly associated with academic life and events not directly related to academics, but potentially impacting student functioning and academic achievement (i.e. personal and interpersonal factors, extra-curricular demands on students’ resources and time). The author found that resilience and experiencing these stressors had a negative relationship.

As such, previous research that has examined the relationships between daily hassles and resilience have used different measures of daily hassles. For example, Pinquart (2008) used the Daily Hassles Scale (Perkonigg & Wittchen, 1995). This scale required participants to rate the frequency of 14 daily hassles on a 4-point Likert scale and the content includes hassles in the areas of school/occupation, relationships with parents and siblings, peer relations, housing, finance, and leisure activities. McIntire and Duncan (2013) used the Brief College Student Hassles Scale (Blankstein, Flett, & Koledin, 1991) which requires participants to rate the

persistence of 20 hassles that are relevant to students on a 7-point Likert scale. It is possible that the measure of daily hassles used in the current study (the ICSRLE) is more comprehensive and provides a richer description of the daily hassles experienced by undergraduate students, as the measure contains 51-items and is rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Previous research may have overgeneralized the relationship between daily hassles and resilience by using a generalized measure of daily hassles, rather than a comprehensive measure such as the ICSRLE. There was no significant association between resilience and the time pressure, romantic problems, assorted annoyances, general social mistreatment, and friendship problems subscales of the daily hassles scale in the current study. There was a significant association between resilience and the academic alienation and developmental challenges subscales of daily hassles in the current study. Future studies should further examine which stressors experienced by undergraduate students have a negative relationship with resilience.

Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Resilience

There was a positive relationship between EI and resilience in the current sample. This finding provides support for the third hypothesis and is consistent with previous research that links EI and resilience (Armstrong et al., 2011; Fabio & Saklofske, 2014). A study by Fabio and Saklofske (2014) used the same measures of resilience and EI as the current study and they also found a positive relationship between the two variables. In the current study, overall emotional and social functioning as it relates to EI was related to the ability to thrive in the face of adversity. This supports previous research that suggests that EI is related to resilience because emotionally intelligent behaviour is adaptive and helps an individual in stressful circumstances (Armstrong et al., 2011).

Additional analyses revealed that the General Mood, Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Adaptability subscales on the measure of EI were positively correlated with resilience. Those who score high on the General Mood scale are optimistic, energetic, self-motivated, have a positive outlook on life, and are pleasant to be around (Bar-On, 2002). The finding that resilience was positively correlated with General Mood is consistent with previous research that suggests that those who are high in resilience are also optimistic and full of hope (He, Cao, Fend, Guan & Peng, 2013; Klohnen, 1996; Masten, 2001; Tugade and Fredrickson, 2004). For example, Tusaie, Puskar & Sereika (2007) found that resilience was associated with optimism, perceived family support, and perceived support of friends in adolescents. Tugade and Frederickson (2004) suggest that resilient individuals are characterized as having optimistic and energetic approaches to life, and are characterized by high positive emotionality. Those who score high on the Intrapersonal scale on the EQ-i:S are accurately self-aware, are in touch with their emotions, and can express their feelings and communicate their needs to others (Bar-On, 2002). This finding is in line with previous research that suggests a positive relationship between Intrapersonal EI and resilience (Salovey et al., 1999). Research suggests that those with higher EI can cope better with the emotional demands of stressful events, contributing to their resilience, because they are better able to accurately perceive and appraise their emotions and know when to express their feelings (Magnano et al., 2015; Salovey et al., 1999). Those who score higher on the Adaptability scale of EI are more flexible, realistic, and successful in managing changes in their lives, and are good at dealing with everyday problems (Bar-On, 2002). This finding is consistent with one study that found a relationship between the Adaptability scale on the EQ-i:S and resilience in school administrators (Maulding et al., 2012). This finding is also consistent with related research that has found associations between flexibility, problem-solving, and being realistic (Cam &

Buyukbayram, 2015; Sook & Yunhee, 2013). Those who score high on the Interpersonal scale on the EQ-i: S can have cooperative, constructive, and satisfying interpersonal relationships and are good listeners (Bar-On, 2002). These individuals can understand and appreciate the feelings of others (Bar-On, 2002). There are no known studies that have examined the relationship between interpersonal EI and resilience specifically. However, past research has provided evidence for positive relationships between resilience and social support from family and friends in university students (Hartley, 2011; Malkoc & Yalcin, 2015). For example, Hartley (2011) studied the relationships between resilience, mental health, and academic persistence in 605 undergraduate students. He used the CD-RISC to measure resilience and the Social Support Questionnaire (SSQ; Sarason, Levine, Basham & Sarason, 1983) to measure the degree of satisfaction with available social support. Participants who scored higher on the SSQ also scored higher on the CD-RISC, suggesting a positive relationship between social support and resilience. Interpersonal EI may facilitate social support, which in turn, acts as a coping mechanism and protective factor of resilience. Previous research suggests that social support as a coping mechanism and that EI is positively related to social support (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008; Kwako, Szanton, Saligan & Gill, 2011; Malkoc & Yalcin, 2015; Zhao, Kong & Wang, 2013). The current study did not find a significant relationship between the Stress Management subscale on the measure of EI and resilience. The Stress Management scale on the EQ-i: S contains questions regarding impulsiveness, anger control, and patience, and there have not been many studies that have examined the relationship between these variables and resilience. One study has noted a negative relationship between resilience and impulsive behaviour (Choi, Cha, Jang, Park, Kim, Lee & Lee, 2015) in patients with bipolar disorder and control participants. Another study found a positive relationship between the Stress Management and Adaptability scales of the EQ-

i: S and a measure of resilience in school administrators (Maulding, Peters, Roberts, Leonard & Sparkman, 2012). Unlike the current study, they did not find a positive relationship between resilience and the Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and General Mood scales on the EQ-i: S. A clear relationship between resilience and the factors of EI has not been established in the literature. It is possible that the other factors of EI (Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Adaptability, and General Mood) are more closely related to resilience in undergraduate student samples. More research needs to be conducted to examine the possible relationship between factors of EI and resilience.

Resilience as a Mediator in the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Daily Hassles

The fourth hypothesis predicted that resilience would act as a mediator in the negative relationship between EI and the experience of daily hassles. This hypothesis was based on research that suggests that EI is antecedent to resilience and that EI plays an important role in the process of resilience (Magnano & Craparo, 2016). To serve as a mediating variable, resilience would need to be associated with both EI and daily hassles. However, the role of resilience as a mediating factor between emotional intelligence and stress was not supported in the current study because there was no significant relationship between resilience and the experience of daily hassles. As described above, it is possible that the measure of daily hassles (ICSRLE) is more comprehensive compared to measures used in previous studies (i.e. Perkonigg & Wittchen, 1995; Pinguart, 2008). Additional analyses showed that there was a significant association between resilience and the academic alienation and developmental challenges subscales of daily hassles in the current study. Future studies should further examine which stressors experienced by undergraduate students have a negative relationship with resilience using comprehensive

measures of daily hassles. This would allow for an analysis of resilience as a mediator in this relationship.

Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Personal Growth Initiative

The results of the current study supported the fifth hypothesis, which predicted a positive relationship between EI and PGI. This hypothesis was based on research that suggests that PGI can be related to emotional self-efficacy, which is an aspect of EI. These findings support those of previous studies that have found a positive relationship between EI and PGI in undergraduate students (Kugbey et al., 2018). In the current study, overall emotional and social functioning as it relates to EI was related to personal growth initiative as measured by readiness for change, planfulness, using resources, and intentional behaviour. Additional analyses revealed that the strongest relationship was between the General Mood scale of EI and the Using Resources scale of the PGIS-II. The Using Resources scale of the PGIS-II contains questions about asking for help when needed and using resources to help themselves grow and change. Those who are more optimistic and self-motivated (scoring higher on the General Mood scale) are also more likely to seek out and use resources to help themselves change and grow. The General Mood scale on the EQ-i: S also had a strong relationship with all other factors of PGI on the PGIS-II, suggesting that being optimistic and self-motivated is also related to the ability to identify or create situations to promote personal growth (Readiness for Change), organize strategies to facilitate personal development (Planfulness), and be motivated to achieve the goals established for personal change (Intentional Behaviour). The Intrapersonal scale of EI also had positive relationships with all factors of PGI, suggesting that being accurately self-aware, in touch with one's emotions, having the ability to express feelings and communicate needs to others is related to the factors of PGI described earlier. The Adaptability scale on the EQ-i:S was also positively

associated with all factors of PGI, suggesting that being flexible, realistic, successful at managing changes, and dealing with everyday problems is related to the factors of PGI.

Interpersonal EI was only related to the Using Resources and Intentional Behaviour factors of PGI. This suggests that the ability to have cooperative, constructive, and satisfying interpersonal relationships is related to using resources to help themselves grow and being motivated to achieve the goals that will help to establish personal change.

Relationship between Personal Growth Initiative and Resilience

The results of the current study provide support for the sixth hypothesis, which predicted that PGI and resilience would be positively associated. Additional analyses revealed that all subscales on the PGIS-II had a positive relationship with resilience. Therefore, Readiness for change, Planfulness, Using Resources, and Intentional Behaviour are all related positively with the ability to thrive while facing stressors. This positive relationship between resilience and personal growth initiative was expected because the ability to adapt to change and cope with stress may be associated with an individual's active and intentional involvement in changing and developing as a person (Thong, 2018; Masten, 2014). These findings provide support for the proposed relationship between resilience and PGI. This suggests factors of resilience, such as active coping, autonomy, environmental mastery, self-acceptance, access to peer support, academic support, and academic accommodations are enhanced by emotional intelligence and have a positive effect on personal growth initiative.

Resilience as a Mediator in the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Personal Growth Initiative

It was found in the current study that resilience mediated the relationship between

emotional intelligence (EI) and personal growth initiative (PGI). This finding supports the final hypothesis, as it was expected that EI functions through its dimensions to promote resilience, which in turn promotes PGI (Thong, 2018; Masten, 2014; Robitschek et al., 2012). Thus, resilience is one construct that explains how EI is associated with PGI, which intuitively makes sense as the protective factors that make up resilience may be important to allow an individual to make the necessary changes for personal growth, in addition to emotional intelligence.

Summary of Findings

The present study found that there were negative relationships between emotional intelligence (EI) and the experience of daily hassles. This finding provides support for previous research (Austin et al., 2010; Coyne et al., 1981; Salovey et al., 1999) and suggests that individuals who are better able to understand their own and others' emotions and who are better able to use this information to navigate their environment are also reporting less experiences of daily hassles. EI was also positively related to resilience, providing further support for the finding that the successful identification and management of emotions is related to the ability to thrive in stressful situations and environments (Armstrong et al., 2011). In addition, EI was related to personal growth initiative (PGI). This suggests that overall emotional and social functioning as it relates to EI was related to an individual's PGI, which is measured by their readiness for change, planfulness, ability to use resources and intentional behaviour towards growth. This finding provides new evidence for the relationship between EI and PGI. The present study found that resilience and personal growth initiative were positively related, which suggests that the ability to adapt to change and cope with stressors is associated with an individual's active involvement in initiating change in their lives and growing as a person. These findings provide new evidence for the proposed relationship between resilience and PGI, which

has not been studied in past research. Furthermore, the present study provided new evidence that resilience mediates the relationship between EI and PGI. These findings suggest that EI functions through its dimensions (Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Stress Management, Adaptability, and General Mood) to promote resilience, which in turn promotes PGI. In general, these findings highlight the importance of fostering EI in undergraduate students, as evidence suggests that it fosters the ability to thrive in stressful situations (resilience) and the ability to adapt and change to grow as a person (PGI) which is required to make the successful transition between adolescents and young adulthood (Brougham et al., 2009).

The present study did not find evidence for a predicted relationship between resilience and the experience of daily hassles. However, there was a negative relationship between the developmental challenge and academic alienation subscales of the measure of daily hassles. These items include challenges that are related to academic challenges. It is possible that resilience in undergraduate students helps them cope with hassles related to these challenges, more than with hassles related to other areas, such as friendship and romantic problems; however this has yet to be examined. Since there was no negative relationship between resilience and experience of daily hassles in the current study, the possibility that resilience could mediate this relationship was not able to be examined.

Taken together, these findings suggest that emotional intelligence plays an important role in coping with stress in undergraduate, postsecondary students. Specifically, emotional intelligence promotes resilience, which includes internal and external coping mechanisms that allows a student to be less affected by and experience fewer daily stressors. This also allows the student to take more initiative in their personal growth, by being ready for positive change,

having the ability to plan these changes, using available resources to help make these changes, and taking initiative to implement these changes.

Limitations and Future Directions

A number of limitations exist in the current study that should be addressed in future studies examining the relationships between daily hassles, EI, resilience, and PGI in undergraduate students. Firstly, there was no relationship found between resilience and the experience of daily hassles. This was a limitation in the current study because the hypothesis that resilience would mediate the relationship between EI and the experience of daily hassles could not be tested. However, there was a negative relationship between daily hassles related to academic stress and resilience. Using an additional measure of stress, such as the Academic Stress Scale (Rajendran & Kaliappan, 1991), would have allowed for comparisons between the two measures and allowed for a richer interpretation of the results. Future research should examine this relationship and study whether resilience mediates the relationship between EI and daily hassles related to academic stress. Future research could also examine this mediating relationship using another measure of daily hassles or with other measures of stress. In addition, there were several more females than males in the sample of the current study. The relationships between the variables studied in this study may differ between female and male students. For example, some research suggests that women tend to score higher on tests of EI (Fernandez-Berrocal, Cabello, Gualda & Extremera, 2012; Reiff, Hatzes, Bramel & Gibbon, 2001).

Additionally, almost 75% of the participants were enrolled at universities in Toronto, Ontario and 26.8% of participants were students at Laurentian University in Sudbury, Ontario. Students from northern Ontarian universities may differ from those enrolled in southern Ontarian universities. For example, some research suggests there is a stigma in Northern Ontario that

expressing emotions is emasculating (Davidson-Katz, 1991; Weckwerth & Flynn, 2006). This may have affected the emotional intelligence score in the current study.

Future research could examine changes in resilience in undergraduate students as they go through university, and how emotional intelligence and resilience may contribute to the development of personal growth initiative in this population over time. A longitudinal study would allow for comparisons of the variables across different time points. It is possible that traits such as emotional intelligence, resilience, and personal growth initiative develop over time, as students gain more experience and cope with the stressors involved in postsecondary, undergraduate life.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the current study examined the relationships between emotional intelligence (EI), resilience, personal growth initiative (PGI) and the experience of daily hassles in post-secondary, undergraduate students. It also aimed to study resilience as a mediator in the relationships between EI and daily hassles, and between EI and PGI. It was found that EI was associated with the experience of daily hassles, resilience, and PGI. It was found that resilience mediated the relationship between EI and PGI, providing new evidence for this relationship. Resilience was not associated with daily hassles in the current study. The current study provides evidence for the significance of emotional intelligence in the ability to use internal and external coping mechanisms (resilience), which in turn promotes personal growth initiative in postsecondary students. Future studies should examine these relationships in a diverse sample, using multiple measures for each variable.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Ethics Approval Letter



APPROVAL FOR CONDUCTING RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

Research Ethics Board – Laurentian University

This letter confirms that the research project identified below has successfully passed the ethics review by the Laurentian University Research Ethics Board (REB). Your ethics approval date, other milestone dates, and any special conditions for your project are indicated below.

TYPE OF APPROVAL / New <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> / Modifications to project / Time extension	
Name of Principal Investigator and school/department	Jaffni Pagavathsing, Elizabeth Levin, supervisor, Psychology
Title of Project	Resiliency and Personal Growth in University Students Experiencing Daily Hassles: The Mediating Role of Emotional Intelligence
REB file number	6017237
Date of original approval of project	April 02, 2019
Date of approval of project modifications or extension (if applicable)	
Final/Interim report due on: <i>(You may request an extension)</i>	April 02, 2020
Conditions placed on project	Please revise recruitment poster-it does not provide REB approval information

During the course of your research, no deviations from, or changes to, the protocol, recruitment or consent forms may be initiated without prior written approval from the REB. If you wish to modify your research project, please refer to the Research Ethics website to complete the appropriate REB form.

All projects must submit a report to REB at least once per year. If involvement with human participants continues for longer than one year (e.g. you have not completed the objectives of the study and have not yet terminated contact with the participants, except for feedback of final results

to participants), you must request an extension using the appropriate LU REB form. In all cases, please ensure that your research complies with Tri-Council Policy Statement (TCPS). Also please quote your REB file number on all future correspondence with the REB office.

Congratulations and best wishes in conducting your research.



Rosanna Langer, PHD, Chair, *Laurentian University Research Ethics Board*



ARE YOU AN UNDERGRADUATE STUDENT?

My name is Jaffni Pagavathsing and I am a graduate student in the MA Applied Psychology program at Laurentian University. I'm currently looking for **undergraduate students** to take part in my online study. We are studying emotional intelligence and its role in the relationship between resilience and personal growth in undergraduate students who experience daily hassles.

You would be asked to complete a series of online survey questionnaires on daily life stressors, emotional intelligence, resilience, and personal growth. The questionnaire should take approximately **30 minutes** to complete.

In appreciation for your time, you have the option to enter for a chance to win a **\$50 VISA gift card!** If you are interested in participating, please email me at jpagavathsing@laurentian.ca

This study has been reviewed and approved by the Laurentian University Research Ethics Board.

Appendix C: Informed Consent

Study Title: Resiliency and Personal Growth in University Students Experiencing Daily Hassles:
The Mediating Role of Emotional Intelligence

Principal Investigators: Dr. Elizabeth Levin & Jaffni Pagavathsing

INFORMED CONSENT

You are being asked to consider participating in a research study. A research study is a way of gathering information or to answer a question about something that is not well understood. This form explains the purpose of this research study, provides information about the study procedures, possible risks and benefits, and the rights of participants.

Please read this form carefully and ask any questions you may have. Please ask the researcher to clarify anything you do not understand or would like to know more about. Make sure all your questions are answered to your satisfaction before deciding whether to participate in this research study.

Participating in this study is your choice (voluntary). You have the right to choose not to participate, and you have the right to withdraw from the study and stop your participation at any time without penalty. If you decide to stop participating, your data will be removed and there will be no consequences.

WHY IS THIS STUDY BEING DONE?

The purpose of this study is to study emotional intelligence and its role in the relationship between resilience and personal growth in undergraduate students who experience daily hassles.

WHAT WILL HAPPEN DURING THIS STUDY?

You will be asked to complete a series of survey questionnaires. The questionnaires should take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

WHAT ARE THE RISKS OR HARMS OF PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?

There may be some psychological/emotion risks to you from participating in this study, as we ask many questions regarding daily stressors and these questions may be stressful for you or make you feel uncomfortable. You may choose to decline to answer questions or stop either the questionnaire at any time if you experience any discomfort. You do not need to answer questions that make you uncomfortable or that you do not want to answer. If you feel like you need help or you want to talk with someone, here are some places you may contact:

Crisis Services Canada: (Toll free): 1-833-456-4566 (W):www.crisisservicescanada.ca

Good 2 Talk: (Toll free):1-866-925-5454 (W):www.good2talk.ca

Laurentian University Counselling Service: (705) 673-6506 or counselling@laurentian.ca

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS?

You may or may not benefit directly from participating in this study. You will be participating in research that may offer more knowledge to the scientific community. Specifically, the findings of the current study will help to inform current research on the experience of daily hassles in undergraduate students and how it may relate to personal growth.

ARE STUDY PARTICIPANTS PAID TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY?

You will not be paid for participation in this study, it is voluntary.

If you signed up for this study via SONA at Laurentian, you will receive course credit upon completion of the study.

If you are not completing this study for course credit, you will have the option of entering for a chance to win a \$50 VISA gift card.

HOW WILL MY INFORMATION BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

All information that is collected, used or disclosed for this study will be handled in a confidential manner. Anything that you say or do in the study will not be attributed to you personally.

Anything that we find out about you that could identify you will not be published or told to anyone else, unless we get your permission. Reports based on the gathered data will contain no information that might link an individual with a particular quote, unless expressed permission has been granted. Please be aware that since Qualtrics is a US-based service provider, the data entrusted to Qualtrics may be subject to production orders under the USA Patriot Act. The information obtained will be kept safely in password protected files and be only available to the investigator's team. The information (raw data) will be kept for five years.

INFORMATION ABOUT THE STUDY RESULTS

You have the right to be informed of the results of this study once the study is complete. If you would like to be informed of the results of this study, please email Jaffni Pagavathsing: jpgavathsing@laurentian.ca

WHAT ARE THE RIGHTS OF PARTICIPANTS IN A RESEARCH STUDY?

You have the right to receive all information that could help you make a decision about participating in this study. You also have the right to ask questions about this study and your rights as a research participant, and to have them answered to your satisfaction, before you make

any decision. You also have the right to ask questions and to receive answers throughout this study

If you have any questions about this study you may contact either researcher: Dr. Elizabeth Levin: elevin@laurentian.ca, Toll free: 1-855-675-1151 ext. 4242 or Jaffni Pagavathsing (jpagavathsing@laurentian.ca).

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or any ethical issues related to this study that you wish to discuss with someone not directly involved with the study, you may call Research Ethics Officer, Laurentian University Research Office, telephone: 705-675-1151 ext 3213, 2436 or toll free at 1-800-461-4030 or email ethics@laurentian.ca.

DOCUMENTATION OF INFORMED CONSENT

If you would like a copy of this informed consent form, please email Jaffni Pagavathsing (jpagavathsing@laurentian.ca).

By agreeing to participate, I confirm that:

- This research study has been fully explained to me and all of my questions answered to my satisfaction
 - I understand the requirements of participating in this research study
- I have been informed of the risks and benefits, if any, of participating in this research study
 - I have been informed of any alternatives to participating in this research study
 - I have been informed of the rights of research participants
 - I have read each page of this form
- I have agreed, or agree to allow the person I am responsible for, to participate in this research study