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POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY COURSE AND ITS EFFECT ON WELL-BEING, SOCIAL, AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

POZİTİF PSİKOLOJİ EĞİTİMİNİN İYİ OLUŞ HALİ İLE SOSYAL VE DUYGUSAL ZEKA ÜZERİNE ETKİLERİ

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Abstract

The present study examines whether the Positive Psychology course, which is given for 14 weeks and 3 hours per week to students at a university in Istanbul. 417 students participated. The study assessed pre- to post-test modifications in personal and mental well-being, happiness, satisfaction of life, emotional and social intelligence, emotional expressions and attachment styles factors. The findings showed that significant differences between male and female gender in emotional and social intelligence. Interestingly, positive psychology course effects the participants negatively in happiness, well-being, and social intelligence, unlike in emotional expression. It was necessary to discuss these results in a new perspective. The point reached at the end of the Positive Psychology course was not a happier life. Also, if the increase in awareness causes someone to find a deeper meaning, then happiness and well-being will be decreased at the beginning.

Keywords: happiness; positive psychology; emotional intelligence; social intelligence

Özet

Bu çalışmanın amacı, İstanbul'da bir üniversitede öğrencilere haftada 3 saat ve 14 hafta süreyle verilen Pozitif Psikoloji dersinin etkisinin olup olmadığını incelemektedir. 417 öğrenci katıldı. Çalışma, öznel ve mental iyi oluş, mutluluk, yaşam doyumu, duygusal ve sosyal zeka, duygudurum ve bağlanma stilleri faktörleri arasında test öncesi ve sonrası değişimleri değerlendirildi. Bulgular, duygusal ve sosyal zekâda erkek ve kadın cinsiyet arasında anlamlı farklılıklar olduğunu göstermiştir. İlginç bir şekilde, pozitif psikoloji dersi, duygusal ifadeden farklı olarak, katılımcıları mutluluğa, öznel iyi oluşa ve sosyal zekaya olumsuz yönde etki gösterdiği bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçları yeni bir bakış açısıyla tartışmak gerekiyordu. Pozitif Psikoloji dersinin sonunda ulaşılan nokta daha mutlu bir yaşam değildi. Başlangıçta ki mutluluk ve öznel iyi oluşta ki negatif etkinin, farkındalıkla kazanılan daha derin bir anlamın etkileri üzerinden değerlendirildi.

Anahtar Kelimeler: mutluluk; pozitif psikoloji; duygusal zeka; sosyal zeka

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1. Introduction

Positive psychology includes the elements of optimism, hope, maturity, and defense mechanism in the specific structure division, (Compton & Hoffman, 2012) which is an analysis of behavior that moves the focus from the negative to the positive, from what's wrong to what's right. At present, the research of positive psychology is mainly inclined to three aspects that is emotion and experience (Vazquez, 2017), personality (Ng, 2015) and public relations in a group perspective (Kobau et al., 2011). As Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014) observed, "A science of positive, subjective experience, positive individual traits, and positive institutions promises to improve the quality of life and prevent the pathologies that arise when life is barren and meaningless." The meaning of life is not a new issue. It has been an important issue throughout human history. Human psychology is at the top of the psychological theories that are most interested in the meaning of life. Humanistic psychology assumes that the human being tries to realize his potentials best in a process called self-actualization (Wong, 2011). Self-actualization guides people's goals, their conscious awareness, and their rational choices. This provides a far different perspective than the human nature of psychoanalysts and behaviorists who represent the dominant view of psychologists in the 20th century (Criswell, 2003).

Getting the necessary perspectives to make rational choices begins at a young age. Although attending university is viewed as a positive experience, offering many new opportunities, it nonetheless sometimes involves a stressful period of adaptation for students. First-year university students face a variety of stressors that make them independent adults (Parker, Hogan, Eastabrook, Oke, & Wood, 2006) include making new relationships, modifying existing relationships with parents and family, and learning study habits for a new academic environment. The presence of these stressors often correlates with low self-confidence, anxiety and low academic performance. Consequently, In recent studies, the mental health problems of college students have increasingly interested (Afrisham et al., 2015). Experts and scholars have begun to study the problem of College Students' mental health, and struggle to change some unhealthy psychological problems of college students through research. Evidence suggests that emotion regulation has a causal role in the development of almost all mental illnesses, particularly in the disorders of mood, anxiety, substance use, eating, and personality (Aldao, Nolen-Hoeksema, & Schweizer, 2010; Dieter et al., 2017; O'Driscoll, Laing, & Mason, 2014; Sharpe & Wallis, 2014). Longitudinal data suggest that poor emotion regulation precedes the onset of depression and not vice versa (Aldao et al., 2010; Millgram, Joormann, Huppert, & Tamir, 2015). Researchers have shown that people with positive emotions increase their tendency to involve social interaction and new experiences (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). People experiencing positive emotions are more likely to affiliate with others and report higher quality social interactions (Berry & Hansen, 1996; DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Nichols & Molix, 2013), and they are more likely to be extraversion and sociability that showed in many studies (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005). For this reason, positive emotions help us establish our

social relationships when we need them ((Fredrickson, 1998)). Most young people are not equipped to manage the emotional impact of stressors. The ability to regulate emotions follows other developments in the cognitive, social, and physiological domains, from infancy to adulthood (Zeman, Cassano, Perry-Parrish, & Stegall, 2006). Adults are better equipped than younger because of their experience and practice of emotional regulation strategies (Garnefski, Legerstee, Kraaij, Van Den Kommer, & Teerds, 2002). This is why learning emotional regulation strategies are likely to benefit this population and improve the rates of mental health disorders that arise. Emotion regulation skills begin to develop first through the support mechanism in the family. Childhood attachment is probably the most important resource for improving emotional regulation strategies. Attachment contributes to how individuals learn to regulate their emotions throughout development (Contreras, Kerns, Weimer, Gentzler, & Tomich, 2000; Kerns, Abraham, Schlegelmilch, & Morgan, 2007; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). People with a secure attachment style seek the support of others to combat negative moods; those with insecure attachment styles use less adaptive strategies (Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Mikulincer, 1998). People with secure attachments use adaptive coping strategies that have more positive effects on their psychological health (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). More avoidant individuals tend to rely on deactivating strategies in stressful situations, which include down-regulating, suppressing emotional reactions and emotional expressivity to maintain distance from others (Laan, van Assen, & Vingerhoets, 2012).

Emotional expressivity refers to the outward display of emotion (Kring, Smith, & Neale, 1994) which can take the form of facial expressions, body postures or verbal behavior. Emotional expressivity which usually takes place in the social context is linked to positive mental states and physical health (Sloan & Marx, 2004). Expressing emotions and being aware of their emotions is one of the parts of emotional intelligence (Caruso, Salovey, Brackett, & Mayer, 2015). The emotional intelligence was characterized as the personal ability for the application of emotions in different social situations. Salovey and Mayer ((Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990) conceptualized that the emotional intelligence includes: (1) the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, (2) the capability to discriminate the types of emotions, and (3) to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions in social exchanges. Both "emotional intelligence" and "positive psychology" are rapidly becoming very visible, popular and important areas of psychology. Researchers are trying to adopt many areas such as emotional education which aims to develop emotional skills and wellbeing (Louis, 2011). It is based on the principle that well-being is one of the basic goals of personal and social life. The APA Guidelines for the Psychology Major include a call for undergraduate programs to promote students' "insight into their own and others' behavior and mental processes and apply effective strategies for self-management and self-improvement" (2007, p. 10). The course of positive psychology generally involves the evaluation of scientific findings about human welfare, longevity, creativity, positive emotions, attributions, character strengths, human protective factors, and self-actualization in improving individual well-being (Diener,

Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Emmons & McCullough, 2003; Mongrain & Anselmo-Matthews, 2012; Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson, 2005). In addition, the risks of the global, personal and universal self-attributes of adverse events that creating the negative mental health conditions (Seligman, Rashid, & Parks, 2006) are almost universal components of the positive psychology curriculum. Positive psychology courses, which have a unique approach to improving the condition of the human being, are increasingly being offered in university college courses (Goodmon, Middleditch, Childs, & Pietrasiuk, 2016; Magyar-Moe, 2011). Maybury (Maybury, 2013) reported that students who took a positive psychology course improve subjective well-being, subjective happiness, mindfulness, self-actualization, and hope in 14 weeks.

This study aimed to measure the effects of positive psychology course on students. Happiness, personal and mental well-being, social and emotional intelligence, attachment and life satisfaction related scales were given to students before and after the 14-week course. The data from these scales are discussed.

2.Methods

2.1.Participants

Positive psychology lessons are given to all departments in Uskudar University for the last five years. Positive Psychology course is given 3 hours a week, following a common curriculum and evaluated every year. This course is given throughout the semester as a classical university curriculum. The positive psychology course is given in the 2nd semester of the 2016-2017 academic year started with 1645 people. Eight scales and sociodemographic forms were brought together as booklets. There is a volunteer form on the first page. No extra points and prizes were awarded except for the condition of volunteering to work. Scales The first hour of the first lesson was distributed. The filling time of the scales is approximately 50-60 minutes. The number of students who come to class during the first week and voluntarily fill the scales is 1543 people. Among the non-inclusion criteria are the abandonment of the scales, the expression of psychiatric illness at this time, the lack of mention of the scales, and the physical inconvenience that causes the scales to fail to fill alone. After the evaluation, 1459 students were included in the study. Last week, 1083 students entered the class again. After the evaluation of the booklets, 1000 people were included in the study. This study was designed as a project carried out with four thesis students. Four students completed their thesis. The purpose of this project is to look at the relationships of positive psychology education to emotional and social intelligence characteristics, life satisfaction, well-being and attachment characteristics of all students.

Due to the multiplicity of data in the study, it was decided to be evaluated pre and posttest data. Only 417 students who were suitable to be evaluated as pretest and posttest were determined from those filling the scales. Evaluation of the other students as pretest and posttest was not appropriate.

2.2.Measures

2.2.1.The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)

The Bar-On EQ-i (1997a) has been designed to assess Bar-On's (1997a) model of emotional intelligence (EI). Consistent with Bar-On's proposed theoretical structure of EI, the EQ-i comprises 13 sub-scales about four second-order factors and an overall or total EQ score.

Acer (2001) was adapted by Turkey. The original version consists of 133 items and is reduced by Acar to 88 items. The Emotional Intelligence Scale used in the study is a total of 5 second-order factors and a total of 13 sub-dimensions after adaptation to Turkey. Personal Awareness second-factor is used, and 30 questions with 5 sub-scales are available. A 6-point Likert-type Measure.

2.2.2.The Tromso Social Intelligence Scale:

The Tromso Social Intelligence Scale (TSIS) was developed by Silvera et al. (Silvera, Martinussen, & Dahl, 2001). The scale was adapted to Turkey by Dogan (2006). Social intelligence scale is a 21-item self-report tool designed to demonstrate social intelligence. TSIS measures social intelligence in three separate areas. It also reveals the level of social intelligence as a whole. Social information processing, social skills, social awareness are the sub-dimensions of TSIS.

2.2.3.The Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale (WEMWB)

The Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale (WEMWB) is developed by Tennant et al. (Tennant et al., 2007) is used to assess the levels of mental well-being in the UK, including mental well-being and subjective well-being. WEMWB is composed of 14 items to assess positive mental well-being levels of individuals. WEMWB is a five-point Likert-type measure and participants rate each item of scale ranging from Negotiation Levels (1) to Strongly Agree (5). Possible points range from 14 to 70. High scores indicate subjective well-being. The reliability and validity of the scale were tested in individuals aged 16 years and over. The reliability of the Turkish version was calculated by Keldal (2015) as .92.

2.2.4.The Personal Well-being Index-Adult (PWI-A)

The personal well-being index developed by the International Wellbeing Group (2006); subjective well-being is an 11-point Likert-type (0-10) instrument measuring the level of satisfaction with the eight domains of individuals' lives by the concept's structure. These eight domains by the International Wellbeing Group (2006); quality of life, individual health, success in life, bilateral relations, personal security, social belonging, future-oriented care, and spirituality.

Adapted by Meral (2014) in Turkish, PWI-A consists of 8 items and scores of maximum 80 are scored on the scale. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient for this scale was .89.

2.2.5.The Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (OHQ):

OHQ is a 29-item, 6-point Likert type (1-I do not agree, 6-I agree) developed by Hills and Argyle to measure happiness. Hills and Argyle (Hills & Argyle, 2002)reported the internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach alpha) of the scale as 0.91. The result of the factor analysis to determine the construct validity of the scale was a construct of 8 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1. However, because of the problems with the interpretation and naming of the mentioned factors, they have concluded that it is appropriate to use the scale as one factor. Adapted by Doğan (2012) in Turkish.

2.2.6.The Emotional Expression Scale

The Emotional Expression Scale developed by King and Emmons (King & Emmons, 1990) and adapted to Turkish by Kuzucu (2011) has been developed to measure the extent to which university students express their feelings irrespective of interpersonal relationships, both in interpersonal relationships. The data collection tool consists of 16 items prepared in 7 "li Likert type and consists of three sub-dimensions; "Positive Emotion" " Proximity" and "Negative Emotion." The coefficient of internal consistency measured by the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale is .78, and the high scores indicate that the tendency to express feelings is high (Kuzucu, 2011).

2.2.7.The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

The SWLS (Diener et al., 1985) is a five-item self-report measure of satisfaction with one's life (i.e., a measure of global life satisfaction). Each item was scored from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree) so that the scores ranged from 5 (low satisfaction) to 35 (high satisfaction). The coefficient an of the scale was 0.87 and the test-retest reliability conducted during a two month period was 0.82 (Diener et al., 1985).The Turkish validity and reliability study of the scale was carried out by Yetim (YetIm, 1993).

2.2.8.Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R)

The attachment styles of participants were measured by Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) developed by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000) and adapted to Turkish Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer and Uysal (2005). The Turkish form of ECR-R consists of 36 items rated on 7 Likert scales (1=Strongly disagree, 7=Strongly agree) and two subscales. The subscales are attachment-related avoidance (18 items) and attachment-related anxiety (18 items).

2.3.Research Design

The researcher introduced himself/herself before starting the data collection process and explained the purpose and content of the research. The respondents who agreed to participate in the survey explained how to fill the questionnaire. In the demographic form, participants were asked to respond to research questions, and participation in the survey was based on volunteerism. All the answers given to the questions were kept confidential, and the scales were filled out, expressing that they could not be used except for scientific purposes. Each questionnaire was completed within 45-50 minutes. The study was approved by the ethics committee from Üsküdar Üniversity.

3.Results

To examine the effects of taking positive psychology course on General Happiness, Tromso Social Intelligence Scale, Bar-on Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Expressivity Scale, Oxford Happiness Scale, Personal Well-Being Scale, Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale, Life-Satisfaction Scale and Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory, paired sample t-test was conducted by gender, with pre- and postcourse conditions as paired samples.

Tablo 1. Independent t-test between genders on all assessments before the positive psychology course

Assesments	Female		Male		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
GH	3.35	.638	3.40	.765	-.64	.52
WEMWBS	54.56	9.27	53.96	10.03	.57	.57
OHQ	119.36	18.48	117.58	18.82	.87	.39
EES-I	28.65	5.93	25.67	5.92	4.56	.000***
EES-P	23.66	4.94	20.96	5.37	4.86	.000***
EES-N	20.02	4.28	18.65	5.01	2.78	.006**
EES-T	72.34	10.62	65.27	11.61	5.89	.000***
SWLS	23.07	7.49	20.90	6.77	2.69	.007**
PWI	60.83	12.08	57.09	13.80	2.70	.007**
ECR-Av	64.60	15.61	58.19	13.95	3.83	.000***
ECR-Anx	67.94	16.60	68.27	18.24	-.18	.86
TSIS-T	77.10	9.98	73.64	12.73	2.61	.01*
TSIS-SIP	29.43	4.92	29.32	5.96	.18	.85
TSIS-SS	21.80	4.43	20.62	5.23	2.29	.02*
TSIS-SA	25.87	4.70	23.70	5.46	3.75	.000***
EQ-i ESA	26.93	5.25	26.28	4.50	1.25	.21
EQ-i EMS	19.62	5.23	22.27	6.32	-4.35	.000***
EQ-i SM	23.09	5.11	24.86	5.57	-3.07	.002**
EQ-i E	28.11	4.37	26.66	5.36	2.82	.005**
EQ-i EMO	26.81	4.97	25.08	5.47	3.07	.002**

*Note: Two tailed *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. M=Mean; SD=Standart Deviation; GH: General Happiness; WEMWBS: Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale; OHQ; Oxford Happiness Questionnaire; EES-I: Intimacy Subscale of Emotional Expressivity Scale; EES-P: Positive Subscale of Emotional Expressivity Scale; EES-N: Negative Subscale of Emotional Expressivity Scale; EES-T: Total of Emotional Expressivity Scale; SWLS: Satisfaction With Life Scale; PWI: Personal Well-Being Index; ECR-Av: Avoidance Subscale of Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory; ECR-Anx: Anxiety Subscale of Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory; TSIS-T: Total of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale; TSIS-SIP: Social Information Processing Subscale of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale; TSIS-SS: Social Skills Subscale of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale; TSIS-SA: Social Awareness Subscale of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale; EQ-i ESA: Emotional Self-Awareness Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory; EQ-i EMS: Emotion Management in Self Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory; EQ-i SM: Self-Motivation Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory; EQ-i E: Empathy Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory; EQ-i EMO: Emotion Management in Others Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory.*

Results of independent t-test for gender differences are shown in table 1. According to the T-test results, students were found to differ in terms of Emotional expressions all dimensions, Satisfaction with life, personal well-being, Tromso social intelligence scale scores, all subscales of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory, Avoidance subscale of experiences in close relationship inventory. It was observed that the average scores of Emotional Expressions all dimensions, Satisfaction with life, Personal Well-being, Tromso Social Intelligence scale, Empathy and Emotion management in others subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory were significantly higher in female students while the average of Emotion management in self and Self-motivation subscales of Bar-on Emotional Quotient variable attitude scores was significantly higher in male students.

Tablo 2. Paired sample t-test for male and female students

Assesments		Precourse M	SD	Postcourse M	SD	t	p
GH	Female	3.35	.64	3.37	.72	-.54	.59
	Male	3.39	.77	3.38	.867	.11	.92
WEMWBS	Female	54.55	9.27	53.84	9.87	1.20	.23
	Male	53.95	10.03	52.47	10.61	1.41	.16
OHQ	Female	119.36	18.47	117.32	18.71	2.11	.04*
	Male	117.58	18.81	113.5	20.63	2.21	.03*
EES-I	Female	28.65	5.93	28.75	5.51	-.282	.78
	Male	25.67	5.92	27.44	5.46	-3.01	.003**
EES-P	Female	23.66	4.94	24.21	4.79	-2.05	.04*
	Male	20.95	5.36	21.80	4.73	-1.69	.09
EES-N	Female	20.02	4.28	20.58	4.31	-2.05	.04*
	Male	18.64	5.01	20.00	4.84	-2.43	.02*
EES-T	Female	72.33	10.61	73.55	11.14	1.82	.07
	Male	65.27	11.61	69.24	11.59	-3.23	.002**
SWLS	Female	23.07	7.49	23.32	6.73	-0.64	.05
	Male	20.90	6.77	21.51	7.23	-.92	.36
PWI	Female	60.83	12.08	57.52	13.24	4.65	.000***
	Male	57.09	13.8	53.89	16.34	2.22	.03*
ECR-Av	Female	64.6	15.61	64.94	15.39	-.45	.65
	Male	58.18	13.94	61.51	14.77	-2.51	.01*
ECR-Anx	Female	67.94	16.6	69.24	17.45	-1.54	.12
	Male	68.27	18.24	69.88	18.93	-.79	.43
TSIS-T	Female	77.1	9.98	75.1	10.97	3.33	.001**
	Male	73.64	12.73	71.82	12.42	1.46	.15
TSIS-SIP	Female	29.43	4.92	30.02	4.97	-2.0	.05*
	Male	29.32	5.96	29.31	5.72	.01	.99
TSIS-SS	Female	21.8	4.43	21.15	4.10	2.79	.006**
	Male	20.62	5.23	20.19	4.77	.93	.36
TSIS-SA	Female	25.87	4.695	23.93	5.87	5.62	.000***
	Male	57.09	13.8	53.89	16.34	2.09	.04*
EQ-i ESA	Female	26.93	5.25	26.38	4.73	1.63	.10
	Male	26.28	4.50	25.40	5.69	1.50	.14
EQ-i EMS	Female	19.62	5.23	20.76	5.50	-3.58	.000***
	Male	22.27	6.32	22.97	6.29	-1.06	.29
EQ-i SM	Female	23.09	5.11	23.42	5.47	-1.13	.26
	Male	24.86	5.57	24.07	5.82	1.32	.19
EQ-i E	Female	28.11	4.37	27.77	4.94	1.18	.24
	Male	26.66	5.36	25.67	6.09	1.51	.21
EQ-i EMO	Female	26.81	4.97	26.59	5.34	.69	.49
	Male	25.08	5.47	25.01	6.29	.115	.91

Note: : Two tailed *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. M=Mean; SD=Standart Deviation; GH: General Happiness; WEMWBS: Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale; OHQ; Oxford Happiness Questionnaire; EES-I: Intimacy Subscale of Emotional Expressivity Scale; EES-P: Positive Subscale of Emotional Expressivity Scale; EES-N: Negative Subscale of Emotional Expressivity Scale; EES-T: Total of Emotional Expressivity Scale; SWLS: Satisfaction With Life Scale; PWI: Personal Well-Being Index; ECR-Av: Avoidance Subscale of Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory; ECR-Anx: Anxiety Subscale of Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory; TSIS-T: Total of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale; TSIS-SIP: Social Information Processing Subscale of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale; TSIS-SS: Social Skills Subscale of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale; TSIS-SA: Social Awareness Subscale of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale; EQ-i ESA: Emotional Self-Awareness Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory; EQ-i EMS: Emotion Management in Self Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory; EQ-i SM: Self-Motivation Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory; EQ-i E: Empathy Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory; EQ-i EMO: Emotion Management in Others Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory.

Results of paired sample t-test for females and males are shown in table 2. Females reported significantly greater levels of positive emotional expressiveness, negative emotional expressiveness, social information processing and emotion management in self on posttest compared to pretest. For females, significantly positive difference is found on four measures: Positive Subscale of Emotional Expressivity Scale (t=-2,05: p=0,04<0,05), Negative Subscale of Emotional Expressivity Scale (t=-2,05: p=0,04<0,05), Social Information Processing Subscale of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale (t=-2.0: p=0,005<0,01) and Emotion Management in Self Subscale of Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory (t=-3,58: p=0,00<0,001). Whereas, five of the measures which are Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (t=2,11: p=0,04<0,05), Personal Well-Being Index (t=4,65: p=0,00<0,001), Social Skills Subscale of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale (t=2,79: p=0,006<0,01), Social Awareness Subscale of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale (t=5,62: p=0,00<0,001) and Total of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale (t=3,33: p=0,001<0,05) indicated significantly negative difference.

Males reported significantly greater levels of intimacy expressiveness, negative emotional expressiveness, total emotional expressiveness, avoidance in close relationships on posttest compared to pretest. For males, significantly positive difference is found on four measures: Intimacy Subscale of Emotional Expressivity Scale (t=-3,01: p=0,003<0,01), Negative Subscale of Emotional Expressivity Scale (t=-2,43: p=0,02<0,05), Total of Emotional Expressivity Scale (t=-3,23: p=0,002<0,01) and Avoidance Subscale of Experiences in Close Relationships Inventory (t=-2,51: p=0,01<0,05). Three of the measures revealed significantly negative difference: Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (t=2,21: p=0,03<0,05); Personal Well-Being Index (t=2,22: p=0,03<0,05) and Social Awareness Subscale of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale (t=2,09: p=0,04<0,05).

4. Discussion

Our study aims to examine the effect of a positive

psychology course on students' emotional intelligence, social intelligence, expressing their emotions, happiness and well-being. Positive psychology course started to take place in the curriculum at the universities. There are very few universities where all departments of the Positive Psychology course are put into the curriculum. No other study measures the effects of positive psychology, many students, and many different characteristics.

1459 students were included in the study, and the post-test included 1000 people. However, only the 417 students data were evaluated because the other students did not correctly code their names on the pre and post-tests.

In the evaluation of the scale before the lesson, it was seen that the happiness of the students was on the average of 3.5. The happiness questionnaire is a 5-point Likert-type questionnaire, the 5th happiest moment, the 1st most unhappy moment. Overall, they were found to be at a level of happiness slightly above average, with no gender differences. Mental wellbeing is a measure of psychological well-being and is rated with a score of 14-70. Students' mental well-being levels show an assessment above the average. The reliability of the Oxford Happiness Scale was tested with 450 university students and found to be 118-120 on average. In our study, the average level of happiness reaches similar results. It has been observed that the personal well-being score is consistent with the general average at mean values (McGillivray, Lau, Cummins, & Davey, 2009).

According to the results of our study, it is significantly higher in favor of women regarding total and subscales of the scale of emotions, life satisfaction, personal well-being scales, Tromso social intelligence, and emotional intelligence empathy and emotional intelligence-managing feelings of others. Many studies have shown that emotional intelligence is higher in women than in men (Das & Sahu, 2015; Day & Carroll, 2004; Lumley, Gustavson, Partridge, & Labouvie-Vief, 2005). Among the most important determinants of emotional intelligence, in particular, empathy is one of the most important areas where women are better than men (Clarke, Marks, & Lykins, 2016). First focusing on Emotional Intelligence, many acknowledge that it is a distinct form of intelligence (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000) and it is accepted by many researchers that Emotional Intelligence is related to Social Intelligence (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; Dulewicz, Higgs, & Slaski, 2003; Mayer et al., 1990; Mongrain & Anselmo-Matthews, 2012). Naturally, a good empathic ability determines social intelligence as well as a person's life satisfaction (Marilaf Caro, San-Martín, Delgado-Bolton, & Vivanco, 2017), personal well-being, and the ability to manage other people's emotions (Bos & Stokes, 2018; Grant, 2014). Despite these characteristics of women, it was found that they were significantly lower than men regarding their ability to manage their own emotions and to determine inner motivation. At some point, the relationship of people to other people can prevent them from seeing their relationship with their own emotions, and it can reduce the confrontation with own problems. It can even be shown in studies that cognitive empathy and some psychopathological processes may be positively correlated (Wai & Tiliopoulos, 2012). Especially, concerning attachment characteristics, the study showed that the avoidance dimension is higher than males.

Avoidance attachment styles may also cause emotional management problems and focusing on relations with other people rather than own emotions (Fantini-Hauwel, Boudoukha, & Arciszewski, 2012; Gentzler, Ramsey, Yi, Palmer, & Morey, 2014; Liu, Ding, Lu, & Chen, 2017).

According to the results of our study, it has been determined that the personal well-being and happiness of the students have decreased in the evaluation of the last week of the positive psychology course. The results may be effected with exam week, and we cannot be able to compare with a control group as we can assess in one of the most important limitations of our study. On the other hand, some studies argue that people live happily and sadly together (Larsen & Green, 2013). It does not mean that we are not happy when we are sad, nor does it mean that if we are so happy, we are not accompanied by our unhappiness. We live most of the emotions together, and we need to evaluate the positive psychology course effects more carefully because of raising awareness. Baumeister et al. (2013) offer a different perspective on meaningful and happy life. They argued that meaningful life was related to a more anxious, more depressive and less happy life (Baumeister, Vohs, Aaker, & Garbinsky, 2013). A meaningful life is about being a giver than a taker like a happy life. The positive psychology course eventually promises a better life by increasing one's awareness. Most often awareness causes certain distress before it causes one's happiness. At the same time, the idea of creating awareness is about giving meaning to life, not a happy life.

Regarding gender variables, the proportion of female and male students is three-fold. On the other hand, it is similar to the gender ratio of the students at Uskudar University. Although there is not a big difference according to the total evaluation, there are some differences between men and women. It was seen that male participants increased their ability to express their emotions after education. On the other hand, the ability to manage own emotions significantly increase in women, unlike men. The unusual thing is that there is a significant decrease in the social intelligence characteristics of women after education. Although social intelligence represents a positive aspect of our relationships, it has been shown in many studies that social intelligence is related to aggression too (Kaukiainen et al., 1999; Kaukiainen, Björkqvist, Österman, & Lagerspetz, 1996). It has been noted that achieving goals such as being popular and manipulating people require a high level of social intelligence (Dyches & Mayeux, 2015). Need is a necessity of life. Knowledge of what is needed can be realized through self-awareness. It is the source of the basic needs and the satisfaction of it through one's own awareness. In the most basic need, one understands one's own feelings and needs. For this reason, every new awareness can cause one to turn to their own needs. Anger is a product of feelings and desires that are not even noticed. Managing their own emotions and increasing their skills may have caused the reduction of the anger and in the control of social manipulation tendencies (Björkqvist, Österman, & Kaukiainen, 2000) At the same time, more directed to their own emotions may have reduced their tendency to see the emotions of others. We can evaluate this change in the way that when we face with our own emotions, that we did not think existed before, we are not accustomed

to during our social relationships, and also it can lead to some social conflicts. In general, these kinds of changes have emerged in the short term with increased awareness in therapy, but the emotional fluctuations are mediated by the individual becoming a stronger and more durable identity. Particularly, some traumatic experiences lead to the awareness that may increase the resistance of the person (Armstrong, Galligan, & Critchley, 2011), if such events turn into an inner emotional awareness, they let to improve personal identity (Seaton & Beaumont, 2015).

5. Conclusion

In many of the other studies, the effects of positive psychology training have shown a significant improvement in the processes of personal well-being, happiness, and awareness (Shoshani & Steinmetz, 2014). However, in our work, we have observed that personal well-being and happiness have decreased significantly, especially in women. Turkey has a more alexithymic structure like in many eastern and middle east countries (Karagöl, 2017; Sayar, Kose, Grabe, & Topbas, 2005). Therefore, the effect of education we provide may have led to a different effect from the western countries. Particularly, students with less emotional awareness may have encountered new awareness, exposure of students to more emotion, and a negative impact on happiness and well-being. For this reason, the provision of positive psychology training, course content, consideration of the cultural appropriateness of subjects may also be evaluated in future studies, which may enable us to measure the effectiveness of the training much better. From another point of view, it is necessary to discuss the educational needs of the students, whether they are for the happiness of the person or their awareness. Tamir and his colleagues (Tamir, Schwartz, Oishi, & Kim, 2017) showed that happiness involves experiencing emotions that feel right, whether they feel good or not, in their work involving 2324 people from 8 different countries. It is one of the other suggestions of our studying that positive psychology course let students understand the nature of the problem first and then after let them searching the meaning their life and trying to understand the real solution for life journey is their problems as well. One of the most famous Sufistic poems from Yunus Emre was said that "I used to seek a way to solve for my nuisance, my nuisance had been my cure." Sometimes bad feelings are an opportunity of being the cure of our nuisance.

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