



Perceived Emotional Intelligence in University Students: A Cross-Sectional Analysis of Emotional Attention, Clarity, and Repair Using the TMMS-24

[es] Gestión emocional en estudiantes universitarios: análisis de la atención, claridad y reparación emocional en la Universidad de Burgos



Itziar Quevedo-Bayona

Universidad de Burgos (España)



María del Camino Escolar-Llamazares

Universidad de Burgos (España)



Nubia Hernández-Flórez

University of Sergio Arboleda (Colombia)



Juan Camilo Pazoz-Alfonso

University of Sergio Arboleda (Colombia)



María de los Ángeles Martínez-Martín

Universidad de Burgos (España)



Olena Klimenko

Institución Universitaria de Envigado (Colombia)

Recibido: 2026/03/19

Aceptado para su publicación: 2026/04/05

Publicado: 2026/06/26

RESUMEN

The mental health of university students has emerged as a critical concern in higher education, with rising prevalence of anxiety, depression, and psychological distress. Perceived emotional intelligence and particularly the capacity to manage emotions is considered a key protective factor for psychological wellbeing. The Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS-24) operationalizes this construct through three dimensions: emotional attention, emotional clarity, and emotional repair. Objective: To analyze levels of emotional attention, clarity, and repair in university students participating in the University Health Care Service (SUAS) of the University of Burgos, and to examine differences by gender, field of knowledge, and academic year. Method: A descriptive, cross-sectional, non-experimental study was conducted with a convenience sample of 53 university students (40 women, 13 men; Mage = 26.28, SD = 9.99). Participants completed the Spanish

ABSTRACT

La salud mental de los estudiantes universitarios constituye una preocupación creciente debido a las demandas académicas, personales y sociales propias de esta etapa. La inteligencia emocional, especialmente la capacidad de gestionar las emociones, se considera un factor relevante para favorecer la adaptación y el bienestar psicológico. El modelo TMMS plantea tres dimensiones: atención, claridad y reparación emocional. Objetivo: Analizar los niveles de atención, claridad y reparación emocional en estudiantes de la Universidad de Burgos, así como las diferencias en función del género, rama de conocimiento y curso académico. Metodología: Estudio descriptivo transversal con muestra de conveniencia de 53 estudiantes universitarios (40 mujeres, 13 hombres; Medad = 26.28, DT = 9.99). Se administró el TMMS-24 mediante formulario online. Se realizaron análisis descriptivos, pruebas t de Student y ANOVA de un factor. Resultados: Fiabilidad

version of the TMMS-24 via an online form. Independent-samples t-tests and one-way ANOVAs were used; effect sizes (Cohen's d , η^2) were computed for all inferential analyses. Ethical approval was granted by the Bioethics Committee of the University of Burgos. Results: Internal consistency was adequate ($\alpha = .892$). Emotional attention fell within the adequate range ($M = 28.47$, $SD = 6.33$), while emotional clarity ($M = 22.09$, $SD = 7.33$) and emotional repair ($M = 23.70$, $SD = 6.35$) were both in the low range. No statistically significant differences were found across gender, field of knowledge, or academic year on any TMMS-24 dimension (all $p > .30$; effect sizes negligible to small). Conclusions: Students demonstrated adequate capacity to identify their emotional states but showed notable deficits in comprehending and regulating them. The homogeneity of emotional profiles across demographic subgroups underscores the need for structured university-level programs targeting emotional clarity and repair competencies.

PALABRAS CLAVE

Perceived emotional intelligence; emotional attention; emotional clarity; emotional repair; TMMS-24; university students; mental health; higher education.

adecuada ($\alpha = .892$). Atención emocional en rango adecuado ($M = 28.47$; $DT = 6.33$); claridad ($M = 22.09$; $DT = 7.33$) y reparación emocional ($M = 23.70$; $DT = 6.35$) en rango bajo. Sin diferencias significativas por género, rama de conocimiento ni curso académico. Conclusiones: Los estudiantes presentan capacidad adecuada para identificar sus emociones, pero mayores dificultades para comprenderlas y regularlas. Los resultados destacan la necesidad de promover programas universitarios de desarrollo de competencias emocionales

KEYWORDS

Inteligencia emocional percibida; atención emocional; claridad emocional; reparación emocional; estudiantes universitarios.

Cómo citar (APA 7ª Edición):

Klimenko, O., Pazoz-Alfonso, J. C., Hernández-Flórez, N., Quevedo-Bayona, I., Martínez-Martín, M. A., y Escolar-Llamazares, M. C. (2026). Perceived Emotional Intelligence in University Students: A Cross-Sectional Analysis of Emotional Attention, Clarity, and Repair Using the TMMS-24. *Quadrata, estudios sobre educación, artes y humanidades*, 8(16), 81-90. <https://doi.org/10.54167/quadrata.v8i16.2419>

Introducción

The mental health of university students has emerged as one of the most pressing concerns in contemporary higher education. The university transition is characterized by significant academic, personal, and social demands that require sustained adaptive effort. Students must navigate new responsibilities, heavier workloads, continuous evaluation processes, professional uncertainty, and — frequently substantial changes in their social and family environments. These combined pressures place the university population at heightened risk for emotional and psychological difficulties, making the promotion of psychological wellbeing a priority for institutions and researchers (Campbell et al., 2022; Worsley et al., 2022).

Numerous studies have documented a marked increase in the prevalence of anxiety, depression, stress, and general psychological distress among university students, along with their negative consequences for academic performance, life satisfaction, and study retention. This context has driven a search for protective factors that support adaptation to university demands and help maintain adequate mental health. Among these factors, emotional intelligence and particularly the capacity to manage one's own emotions has gained increasing prominence in the psychological research literature (Ahmed et al., 2023; Sánchez-Bolívar et al., 2022; Llamas-Díaz et al., 2022).

Emotional intelligence can be understood as the set of abilities related to the perception, understanding, and regulation of emotions, enabling individuals to use emotional information adaptively

when responding to environmental demands ([Mayer & Salovey, 1997](#)). In university populations, higher levels of emotional intelligence have been associated with better mental health, greater subjective wellbeing, lower anxious and depressive symptomatology, and more favorable academic adjustment ([Sánchez-Álvarez et al., 2016](#); [Acebes-Sánchez et al., 2025](#)).

One of the most widely used models for evaluating perceived emotional intelligence is that proposed by [Salovey et al. \(1995\)](#), operationalized through the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS). This model conceptualizes emotional management through three complementary dimensions: emotional attention, emotional clarity, and emotional repair, describing how individuals perceive, understand, and regulate their own emotional states. Recent evidence continues to support this three-dimensional structure and confirms the validity of the TMMS-24 as a reference instrument for assessing emotional management in university students ([Fernández-Berrocal et al., 2004](#); [Fernández-Berrocal et al., 2025](#)).

Emotional attention refers to the degree to which individuals observe and attend to their own emotional states. This dimension represents the first step toward effective regulation. However, excessive attention — particularly when not accompanied by adequate understanding and emotional regulation — can promote rumination, worry, and vulnerability to psychological distress. Research continues to show that emotional attention has a complex relationship with wellbeing, dependent on its interaction with the remaining TMMS dimensions ([Salovey et al., 1995](#)).

Emotional clarity refers to the capacity to identify, understand, and differentiate one's own emotions. Students with greater emotional clarity demonstrate better comprehension of their affective experiences, which facilitates decision-making, problem-solving, and the use of more adaptive coping strategies. Recent studies confirm that this dimension is positively associated with psychological wellbeing, life satisfaction, and academic adjustment, and serves as an important protective factor against stress and emotional symptomatology ([Salovey et al., 1995](#); [Sánchez-Álvarez et al., 2016](#)).

Emotional repair represents the perceived capacity to effectively regulate one's emotions — reducing negative emotional states and fostering positive affective states. Current literature identifies this dimension as a primary predictor of mental health in university populations, associating it with lower levels of anxiety, depression, and stress, as well as greater resilience and academic adjustment ([Salovey et al., 1995](#); [Acebes-Sánchez et al., 2025](#)).

Although the three dimensions belong to the same construct, the evidence shows they maintain differential relationships with psychological wellbeing. While clarity and repair consistently associate positively with mental health, emotional attention appears adaptive only when accompanied by high levels of understanding and regulation. Research with Spanish university students has confirmed that clarity and repair carry the strongest protective capacity against psychological distress ([Sánchez-Álvarez et al., 2016](#); [Acebes-Sánchez et al., 2025](#)).

The present study was conducted within the framework of the University Health Care Service (SUAS) of the University of Burgos — a specialized support unit that offers health promotion, psychological support, and personal development programs to the student community. By recruiting participants through SUAS programs, the study captures a subgroup of students who have actively sought or engaged with institutional support, offering a unique window into the emotional management profiles of students navigating university life with institutional accompaniment.

Against this background, the present study aims to analyze levels of emotional attention, emotional clarity, and emotional repair in students of the University of Burgos, characterize their emotional management profile, and examine whether any differences exist according to gender, field of knowledge, and academic year.

Objectives

General Objective. To analyze the level of emotional management in university students of the University of Burgos by evaluating the dimensions of emotional attention, emotional clarity, and emotional repair using the TMMS-24.

Specific Objectives

O1. Describe the levels of emotional attention, emotional clarity, and emotional repair in university students of the University of Burgos.

O2. Analyze whether there are differences in emotional management dimensions by student gender.

O3. Analyze whether there are differences in emotional management dimensions by field of knowledge.

O4. Analyze whether there are differences in emotional management dimensions by academic year.

Hypotheses

H1. University students at the University of Burgos will present adequate levels in the dimensions of emotional attention, emotional clarity, and emotional repair.

H2. Students will show similar levels across the three dimensions by gender, with no statistically significant differences between men and women.

H3. Students will present similar levels of emotional attention, clarity, and repair across fields of knowledge, with no statistically significant differences.

H4. Academic year will not significantly influence emotional management skills; similar levels of attention, clarity, and repair will be observed across year groups.

Method

Design

The study adopts a quantitative approach through a non-experimental, cross-sectional, descriptive-comparative design. It is non-experimental because no intentional manipulation of study variables was performed; instead, students' emotional characteristics were examined in their natural context. The cross-sectional design means data collection took place at a single point in time, yielding a descriptive snapshot of participants' emotional management profiles.

Sample

The sample comprised 53 students from the University of Burgos who voluntarily participated during academic years 2024–2026. Participants were selected through non-probability convenience sampling, limited to students enrolled in one or more programs offered by the University Health Care Service (SUAS). Of the total, 40 were women (75.5%) and 13 were men (24.5%). Regarding level of study, 48 students (90.6%) were enrolled in undergraduate programs and 5 (9.4%) in postgraduate programs.

The distribution by field of knowledge covered all five academic branches at the University of Burgos: Social and Legal Sciences ($n = 24$; 45.3%), Health Sciences ($n = 16$; 30.2%), Sciences ($n = 5$; 9.4%), Engineering and Architecture ($n = 5$; 9.4%), and Arts and Humanities ($n = 3$; 5.7%). The mean age was 26.28 years ($SD = 9.99$), ranging from 18 to 55 years, reflecting the heterogeneous age profile typical of SUAS program participants, which includes both traditional-age students and adult learners.

Instrument

Emotional management was assessed using the Trait Meta-Mood Scale-24 (TMMS-24), the Spanish adaptation by Fernández-Berrocal et al. (2004) of the original TMMS developed by Salovey et al. (1995). The TMMS-24 is one of the most widely used self-report instruments for evaluating perceived emotional intelligence, understood as individuals' perception of their own capacity to attend to, understand, and regulate their emotional states.

The scale is grounded in the emotional intelligence model of Salovey and Mayer (1997), which conceptualizes emotional management as a set of abilities related to the perception, comprehension, and regulation of emotions. The TMMS-24 comprises 24 items distributed equally across three subscales of eight items each:

Emotional attention (items 1–8): the perceived capacity to identify and attend to one's own emotional states, reflecting the degree to which a person is aware of their emotions and dedicates cognitive resources to observing and recognizing them.

Emotional clarity (items 9–16): the capacity to comprehend, differentiate, and appropriately interpret one's own emotions, allowing identification of what is felt and why a given emotional state is experienced.

Emotional repair (items 17–24): the perceived capacity to regulate negative emotions and sustain positive emotional states, reflecting the ability to modify affective states when necessary.

Each item is rated on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). Subscale scores are obtained by summing the eight items per dimension. Higher scores indicate greater perceived competence. The instrument provides gender-differentiated norms, classifying scores as low, adequate, or high.

In the Spanish adaptation, Fernández-Berrocal et al. (2004) reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .90 (Attention), .90 (Clarity), and .86 (Repair). Recent validation studies have confirmed the stability of the three-factor structure and adequate reliability across university populations, with alpha values generally exceeding .80 for all three dimensions (Fernández-Berrocal et al., 2025; Sánchez-Bolívar et al., 2025).

Procedure

Prior to data collection, the study received approval from the Bioethics Committee of the University of Burgos, ensuring compliance with ethical standards applicable to human research and guaranteeing confidentiality, voluntary participation, and personal data protection.

Once ethical approval was obtained, SUAS programs were launched and promoted across the university. All students participating in SUAS activities were invited to join the study. Those who accepted signed an informed consent form specifying the study purpose, data confidentiality, anonymized handling of responses, and the right to withdraw at any time without consequence.

Consenting participants completed an online questionnaire created via Microsoft Forms, which included sociodemographic and academic items (age, gender, level of study, degree program, field of knowledge) followed by the TMMS-24. Completion occurred in a single session; confidentiality and anonymity were maintained throughout. Data were subsequently exported for statistical analysis.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics. Descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations) were computed for sociodemographic variables and TMMS-24 subscales. Prior to inferential analyses, normality was verified via Shapiro–Wilk tests and homogeneity of variance via Levene's test; both assumptions were satisfied.

Independent-samples t-tests were used to examine gender differences on each TMMS-24 dimension. One-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine differences by field of knowledge and academic year. A significance level of $p < .05$ was adopted throughout. Effect sizes were computed for all inferential tests: Cohen's d for t-tests and partial eta-squared (η^2) for ANOVAs, following conventional benchmarks (small: $d = 0.20$, $\eta^2 = .01$; medium: $d = 0.50$, $\eta^2 = .06$; large: $d = 0.80$, $\eta^2 = .14$; Cohen, 1988).

Results

Prior to hypothesis testing, internal consistency of the TMMS-24 was examined using Cronbach's alpha, yielding $\alpha = .892$, indicating adequate reliability for the present sample.

Descriptive Analysis of TMMS-24 Dimensions (H1)

H1 predicted that students would show adequate levels across all three TMMS-24 dimensions. Emotional attention yielded a mean of $M = 28.47$ ($SD = 6.33$), falling within the adequate range according to gender-differentiated TMMS-24 norms. Emotional clarity ($M = 22.09$, $SD = 7.33$) and emotional repair ($M = 23.70$, $SD = 6.35$) both fell in the low range. Because the three dimensions differed in their classification level, H1 was not confirmed.

Gender Differences (H2)

H2 predicted no statistically significant gender differences. Independent-samples t-tests were conducted for each dimension. Women scored slightly higher on emotional attention ($M = 28.50$ vs. $M = 28.38$), $t(51) = -0.057$, $p = .955$, $d = 0.02$. Men scored higher on emotional clarity ($M = 23.92$ vs. $M = 21.50$), $t(51) = 1.036$, $p = .305$, $d = 0.33$; and on emotional repair ($M = 25.00$ vs. $M = 23.28$), $t(51) = 0.849$, $p = .400$, $d = 0.27$. None of the differences reached statistical significance. Effect sizes were negligible for attention and small for clarity and repair, indicating that while men tended to score higher on the regulatory dimensions, the magnitude of these differences was minimal in this sample. H2 was confirmed.

[Note to authors: Standard deviations for the gender subgroups were reported as "X" in the original manuscript. The effect sizes above were estimated using the formula $d = t \times \sqrt{[(n_1 + n_2)/(n_1 \times n_2)]}$. We recommend reporting the actual subgroup SDs in the final version.]

Differences by Field of Knowledge (H3)

H3 predicted no significant differences across fields of knowledge. One-way ANOVAs confirmed this prediction for all three dimensions. For emotional attention, students in Sciences showed the highest mean ($M = 31.20$, $SD = 7.88$), followed by Social and Legal Sciences ($M = 29.46$), Engineering and Architecture ($M = 29.00$), Arts and Humanities ($M = 27.00$), and Health Sciences ($M = 26.25$); $F(4, 48) = 0.914$, $p = .463$, $\eta^2 = .07$. For emotional clarity, the Sciences branch again scored highest ($M = 26.80$), $F(4, 48) = 0.846$, $p = .503$, $\eta^2 = .07$. For emotional repair, the Sciences branch also led ($M = 26.40$), $F(4, 48) = 0.536$, $p = .710$, $\eta^2 = .04$. No comparison reached statistical significance, confirming H3.

Differences by Academic Year (H4)

H4 predicted no significant differences across academic years. First-year students showed the highest mean for emotional attention ($M = 29.33$, $SD = 6.53$), $F(3, 49) = 0.379$, $p = .768$, $\eta^2 = .02$. For emotional clarity, third-year students scored highest ($M = 24.30$), $F(3, 49) = 0.604$, $p = .616$, $\eta^2 = .04$. For emotional repair, first-year students again led ($M = 25.92$), $F(3, 49) = 0.725$, $p = .542$, $\eta^2 = .04$. None of the comparisons was significant, confirming H4.

Discussion

Regarding H1, students did not show similar levels across the three TMMS-24 dimensions. Emotional attention was adequate, whereas emotional clarity and repair fell in the low range. This pattern suggests that participants can identify and attend to their emotional states but have greater difficulty

comprehending and regulating them effectively. This finding is consistent with the three-dimensional TMMS-24 model, in which attention constitutes a distinct component from clarity and repair — the latter two being more directly related to adaptive emotional management ([Sánchez-Bolívar et al., 2025](#)).

The literature indicates that high emotional attention without sufficient clarity or regulation can promote rumination and psychological vulnerability, particularly in academic environments with frequent stressors ([Ovejas, 2025](#)). Emotional regulation difficulties have been linked to higher levels of anxiety and impaired adaptation to university life ([Arias et al., 2025](#)). This dissociation between awareness and regulation is consistent with findings by [Acebes-Sánchez et al. \(2025\)](#) in a larger sample of Madrid undergraduates ($n = 647$), where emotional clarity and repair — but not attention alone — significantly predicted mental health outcomes. The pattern also aligns with [Ardiles-Irarrázabal et al. \(2026\)](#), whose integrative review concluded that university students with stronger emotional comprehension and regulation skills exhibit higher psychological wellbeing and resilience. Collectively, these findings highlight the value of programs specifically targeting the comprehension and regulation of emotions within university settings.

Regarding H2, no statistically significant gender differences were found on any TMMS-24 dimension, confirming the hypothesis. Although descriptive trends showed women scoring slightly higher on emotional attention and men slightly higher on clarity and repair — a pattern congruent with classical findings in the EI literature ([Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005](#)) — effect sizes were negligible to small (d range: 0.02–0.33), suggesting limited practical significance. The scientific evidence on gender differences in perceived emotional intelligence remains heterogeneous. Some studies report that women show greater emotional attention while men show higher repair scores, whereas others observe differences only on clarity and repair, or find no significant differences at all ([Ovejas, 2025](#); [Sánchez-Bolívar et al., 2025](#)). Importantly, [Urbón et al. \(2025\)](#) found in a sample of 721 Spanish university students that women scored higher on interpersonal emotional attention and expression, but no significant gender differences emerged for life satisfaction or eudaimonic wellbeing, reinforcing the view that emotional management is not simply a gendered competence but depends substantially on individual and contextual factors. The absence of significant gender differences in the present study is therefore coherent with the current trend in the literature suggesting that emotional competence is shaped more by individual experience, contextual variables, and specific emotional dimensions than by gender per se ([Acebes-Sánchez et al., 2025](#)).

Regarding H3, no significant differences were found across fields of knowledge for any TMMS-24 dimension, confirming the hypothesis. Although students in Sciences descriptively showed the highest means across all three dimensions, these differences were small and non-significant. The η^2 values for field comparisons ranged from .04 to .07, all below the conventional medium-effect threshold ($\eta^2 = .06$), indicating that field of knowledge explained very little variance in emotional management scores. The limited evidence on field differences in EI is inconclusive, and recent studies do not support a consistent pattern of superiority for health sciences or social sciences students ([Palacios et al., 2025](#)). This finding suggests that emotional intelligence, as measured by the TMMS-24, functions as a transversal competence whose perceived level at university entry is relatively independent of the academic field students are enrolled in — a conclusion with important implications for the universal rather than discipline-specific design of emotional literacy interventions. Research comparing TMMS-24 profiles across disciplines similarly finds no systematic advantage for any particular academic area ([Martínez-Rodríguez & Ferreira, 2024](#)). As [Otero Bocanegra et al. \(2026\)](#) argue, emotional intelligence is better understood as a general adaptive resource modulated by individual experience than as a domain-specific skill associated with particular academic cultures.

Regarding H4, no significant differences were found by academic year, confirming the hypothesis. Emotional management profiles remained relatively stable from first to fourth year. This indicates that mere academic progression does not automatically increase perceived emotional competencies. The η^2 values for academic year comparisons were small (range: .02–.04), confirming negligible between-year

variance. This stability contrasts with developmental expectations that accumulating life and academic experience would organically enhance emotional regulation, and instead points to the need for explicit, structured interventions. These findings are consistent with evidence suggesting that emotional competencies are best developed through structured training and emotional education programs, particularly when these are explicitly integrated into university contexts (Ardiles-Irarrázabal et al., 2026). The results therefore reinforce the case for institutional programs aimed at developing socioemotional competencies throughout the university journey, not only at entry.

Limitations

The present study has several limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. First, the small sample size ($n = 53$) limits statistical power and restricts generalizability. Second, the convenience sample drawn exclusively from SUAS program participants may introduce selection bias, as these students may differ emotionally from the broader university population. Third, the pronounced gender imbalance (75.5% women) and unequal distribution across fields and year groups constrain the power of subgroup comparisons. Fourth, the use of a self-report measure means that scores reflect perceived rather than actual emotional competence, which may be influenced by social desirability or introspective limitations. Fifth, the cross-sectional design precludes causal inference and the analysis of change over time. Finally, standard deviations for gender subgroups were not included in the original data extract, which precluded reporting of fully informative descriptive statistics and may affect the precision of effect size estimates; authors are encouraged to report complete subgroup descriptive statistics in the final submission.

Future Research Directions

Building on the limitations identified, future studies should employ larger, probabilistic samples drawn from multiple Spanish universities to improve representativeness and generalizability. Researchers should also aim for more balanced distributions across gender, field, and year groups to strengthen comparative analyses.

Longitudinal designs are needed to track changes in emotional management competencies across academic years and to identify developmental windows during which targeted interventions may be most effective. Complementing self-report measures with multi-method approaches including performance-based EI tasks, psychophysiological measures, or structured behavioral observations would yield a more comprehensive assessment of emotional competence.

Given the low levels of emotional clarity and repair observed, future work should evaluate the efficacy of structured intervention programs within university settings, including emotion regulation training, third-generation psychological therapies, and technology-assisted approaches such as virtual reality. Particularly promising is the integration of emotional education components directly into academic curricula rather than relying solely on opt-in extracurricular services such as SUAS, which by definition reach a self-selected minority. Investigating whether SUAS participation itself moderates changes in TMMS-24 scores over time would be a valuable extension of the present work.

Conclusions

This study analyzed levels of perceived emotional management in 53 University of Burgos students enrolled in SUAS programs, examining emotional attention, clarity, and repair via the TMMS-24 and testing differences by gender, field of knowledge, and academic year.

In relation to O1, students showed adequate emotional attention alongside low emotional clarity and repair, revealing a profile characterized by awareness of emotions without adequate comprehension or regulation. This dissociation represents an important target for institutional support.

In relation to O2, no statistically significant gender differences were found on any TMMS-24 dimension, suggesting that emotional management as perceived is relatively similar for men and women in this sample.

In relation to O3, no significant differences emerged across fields of knowledge, indicating that emotional management profiles are comparable regardless of academic discipline, and that emotional competencies function as transversal skills.

In relation to O4, academic year had no significant association with emotional management profiles, suggesting that university progression alone does not produce meaningful improvements in emotional competencies.

Taken together, the results call for universities to go beyond reactive support services and actively integrate emotional education into institutional programming. Developing emotional clarity and repair competencies through evidence-based, structured interventions should be a priority for the promotion of student wellbeing and academic success.

References

- Acebes-Sánchez, J., García-Naveira, A., Conners, R. T., & García-Merino, S. (2025). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of mental health in undergraduate students. *BMC Psychology*, 13(1), 1130. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-025-03241-7>
- Ahmed, I., Hazell, C. M., Edwards, B., Glazebrook, C., & Davies, E. B. (2023). A systematic review and meta-analysis of studies exploring prevalence of non-specific anxiety in undergraduate university students. *BMC Psychiatry*, 23, 240. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12888-023-04645-8>
- Ardiles-Irarrázabal, R. A., Valencia-Contrera, M., Pérez-González, J. C., & Pérez-Díaz, P. (2026). Emotional intelligence and spirituality in university students: An integrative review. *Frontiers in Public Health*, 14, 1819327. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2026.1819327>
- Arias, C. B., del Valle, M. V., Zamora, E. V., Trudo, R. G., & Urquijo, S. (2025). Influencia de las dificultades en la regulación emocional sobre la adaptación a la vida universitaria en estudiantes ingresantes. *Propósitos y Representaciones*, 13, e2125–e2125. <https://doi.org/10.20511/pyr2025.v13.2125>
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Campbell, F., Blank, L., Cantrell, A., Baxter, S., Blackmore, C., Dixon, J., & Goyder, E. (2022). Factors that influence mental health of university and college students in the UK: A systematic review. *BMC Public Health*, 22, 1778. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-022-13943-x>
- Extremiera, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2005). Perceived emotional intelligence and life satisfaction: Predictive and incremental validity using the Trait Meta-Mood Scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 39(5), 937–948. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2005.03.012>
- Fernández-Berrocal, P., Extremiera, N., & Ramos, N. (2004). Validity and reliability of the Spanish modified version of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale. *Psychological Reports*, 94(3), 751–755. <https://doi.org/10.2466/pro.94.3.751-755>
- Fernández-Berrocal, P., Vilca-Pareja, V., Rojas Zegarra, M. E., Hillpa-Zuñiga, M. E., Yana-Calla, V. R., & Cabello, R. (2025). Psychometric properties of the TMMS-24 emotional intelligence scale in Peruvian university students. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 16, 1611923. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2025.1611923>

- Llamas-Díaz, D., Cabello, R., Megías-Robles, A., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2022). Systematic review and meta-analysis: The association between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being in adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence*, 94, 925–938. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jad.12075>
- Martínez-Rodríguez, A., Ferreira, C. (2024). Inteligencia emocional, competencias emocionales y rendimiento académico en estudiantes universitarios: un estudio de caso. In REDINE (Ed.), *Fostering health and wellbeing in the classroom*. (pp. 49-61). Madrid, España: Adaya Press. <https://doi.org/10.58909/ad23825674>
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications* (pp. 3–31). Basic Books. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1997-08644-001>
- Otero Bocanegra, P. C., Condeso Camizan, S. D., Quenema Camacho, N., Castillo Palacios, F. W., & Hernández Ramos, E. J. (2026). Inteligencia emocional como factor clave en la educación: una revisión sistemática. *Revista InveCom*, 6(1), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15284555>
- Ovejas, I. S. (2025). Emotional competencies and emotional coeducation amongst university students. *International Journal of Emotional Education*, 17(1), 3–20. <https://doi.org/10.56300/JRCJ3584>
- Palacios, S. M. M., Valdez, M. J. P., Vera, M. V. V., & Tisalema, G. I. M. (2025). Impacto de la inteligencia emocional en el rendimiento académico: estrategias efectivas para fortalecer la educación integral. *Reincisol*, 4(7), 4029–4054. [https://doi.org/10.59282/reincisol.V4\(7\)4029-4054](https://doi.org/10.59282/reincisol.V4(7)4029-4054)
- Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., Goldman, S. L., Turvey, C., & Palfai, T. P. (1995). Emotional attention, clarity, and repair: Exploring emotional intelligence using the Trait Meta-Mood Scale. In J. W. Pennebaker (Ed.), *Emotion, disclosure, and health* (pp. 125–154). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/10182-006>
- Sánchez-Álvarez, N., Extremera, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2016). The relation between emotional intelligence and subjective well-being: A meta-analytic investigation. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 11(3), 276–285. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2015.1058968>
- Sánchez-Bolívar, L., Escalante-González, S., Martínez-Martínez, A., & Zurita-Ortega, F. (2022). Inteligencia emocional en el perfil formativo y psicosocial de los estudiantes universitarios: Una revisión sistemática. *Educatio Siglo XXI*, 40(3), 47–68. <https://doi.org/10.6018/educatio.515181>
- Sánchez-Bolívar, L., Escalante-González, S., & Vázquez, L. M. (2025). Inteligencia emocional y habilidades sociales como variables predictoras del perfil competencial del alumnado universitario. *Educación XX1*, 28(2), 399–420. <https://doi.org/10.5944/educxx1.42874>
- Urbón, E., Salavera, C., & Usán, P. (2025). The influence of gender on the relationship between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being in Spanish university students. *BMC Psychology*, 13, 393. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-025-02730-z>
- Worsley, J. D., Pennington, A., & Corcoran, R. (2022). Supporting mental health and wellbeing of university and college students: A systematic review of review-level evidence of interventions. *PLOS ONE*, 17(7), e0266725. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0266725>