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A New Success Formula: Social Intelligence

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Abstract:
When you are talking about intelligence, it features a lot of quick learning, immediate and accurate calculations and new solutions that come to mind. Socialisation is one of hard work on earth. However, all of us, we should prepare ourselves for the day. Almost all teens, or in fact all human beings, in a moment of your life when they feel lonely where everything seems strange and unfamiliar, are missing. Family members, friends, teachers' role in person's character formation. The period considered. Storm and stress of adolescence as a period to be mentioned Adolescence. This article reviews the types of social intelligence.

Keywords: *Adolescence, Socialisation, Social intelligence*

1. Introduction

A human being is a complex thing. This is not because of his chemical compositions or his physical appearance but primarily because of the great range and variety of his behavior. Human can hear, see and feel things, he can move, lift and manipulate many kinds of objects, he can think and solve critical as well as complicated problems. And because he can think, he can understand his own behavior, because he deals with it everyday, both in himself and in other people. But it is quit evident that this degree of understanding of human behavior is not the same with every individual, it is varies from one person to another. Everyday observations indicate that even between a pair of identical twins, one can understand human behavior and judge people very accurately while the other cannot. At least, this suggests that in order to understand different modes of human behavior a few specific abilities are needed and if a person possesses adequate number of these abilities only then he can understand and judge other individuals effectively otherwise he fails. This failure may ultimately lead him to social maladjustment or failure in every steps of social life.

School teachers and parents always have been concerned about children's academic success and social adaptation both in and out of the classroom. Only recently, however, have researchers realized that a child's emotional and social life has an impact on these important outcomes.

2. Definitions of Intelligence

Intelligence derives from the Latin verb intelligere which derives from inter-legere meaning to "pick out" or discern. A form of this verb, intellectus became the medieval technical term for understanding, and a translation for the Greek philosophical term *nous*.

How to define intelligence is controversial. Groups of scientists have stated the following:
"Individuals differ from one another in their ability to understand complex ideas, to adapt effectively to the environment, to learn from experience, to engage in various forms of reasoning, to overcome obstacles by taking thought. Although these individual differences can be substantial, they are never entirely consistent: a given person's intellectual performance will vary on different occasions, in different domains, as judged by different criteria. Concepts of "intelligence" are attempts to clarify and organize this complex set of phenomena. Although considerable clarity has been achieved in some

areas, no such conceptualization has yet answered all the important questions, and none commands universal assent. Indeed, when two dozen prominent theorists were recently asked to define intelligence, they gave two dozen, somewhat different, definitions."

-Intelligence: Knowns and Unknowns (1995),

A report published by the Board of Scientific Affairs of the American Psychological Association

"Intelligence is the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by (1) difficulty, (2) complexity, (3) abstractness, (4) economy, (5) adaptiveness to a goal, (6) social value, (7) the emergence of originals, and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and a resistance to emotional force."

-Stoddard

3. Measuring Intelligence

The IQs of a large enough population are calculated so that they conform to a normal distribution. Intelligence tests are widely used in educational, business, and military settings due to their efficacy in predicting behavior. IQ and *g* are correlated with many important social outcomes-individuals with low IQs are more likely to be divorced, have a child out of marriage, be incarcerated, and need long-term welfare support, while individuals with high IQs are associated with more years of education, higher status jobs and higher income. Intelligence is significantly correlated with successful training and performance outcomes, and IQ/*g* is the single best predictor of successful job performance.

3.1 General intelligence factor or Cattell-Horn-Carroll theory

Under it there are 10 broad abilities that in turn are subdivided into 70 narrow abilities. The broad abilities are:

- Fluid Intelligence (Gf)
- Crystallized Intelligence (Gc)
- Quantitative Reasoning (Gq)
- Reading & Writing Ability (Grw)
- Short-Term Memory (Gsm)
- Long-Term Storage and Retrieval (Glr)
- Visual Processing (Gv):
- Auditory Processing (Ga):
- Processing Speed (Gs)
- Decision/Reaction Time/Speed (Gt)

3.2 Multiple Intelligences

Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences is based on studies not only of normal children and adults but also by studies of gifted individuals (including so-called "savants"), of persons who have suffered brain damage, of experts and virtuosos, and of individuals from diverse cultures. This led Gardner to break intelligence down into at least eight different components: logical, linguistic, spatial, musical, kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalist and existential intelligences.

Dr. Karl Albrecht found it helpful to rearrange Gardner's "multiple smarts" into **six primary Categories**:

Category		Description
A	Abstract Intelligence	Symbolic reasoning
S	Social Intelligence	Dealing with people
P	Practical Intelligence	Getting things done
E	Emotional Intelligence	Self-awareness and self-management

A	Aesthetic Intelligence	Sense of form, design, music, art and literature
K	Kinaesthetic Intelligence	Whole-body skills like sports, dance or flying a jet fighter

3.3 Triarchic theory of intelligence

Robert Sternberg proposed the triarchic theory of intelligence to provide a more comprehensive description of intellectual competence than traditional differential or cognitive theories of human ability. The triarchic theory describes three fundamental aspects of intelligence.

Analytic intelligence.
Creative intelligence
Practical intelligence

3.5 Piaget's theory and Neo-Piagetian theories

3.5.1 Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is an argued ability, capacity, skill or, a self-perceived ability to identify, assess, and control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups.

3.5.2 Artificial intelligence

Artificial intelligence (or AI) is both the intelligence of machines and the branch of computer science which aims to create it, through "the study and design of intelligent agents" or "rational agents", where an intelligent agent is a system that perceives its environment and takes actions which maximize its chances of success. Achievements in artificial intelligence include constrained and well-defined problems such as games, crossword-solving and optical character recognition. General intelligence or strong AI has not yet been achieved and is a long-term goal of AI research.

4. Social Intelligence

If we can construct a model for describing, assessing and developing social intelligence, or "SI," then we can add another important piece to the MI model. We can characterize SI as a combination of a basic understanding of people - a kind of strategic social awareness - and a set of skills for interacting successfully with them. A simple description of SI is:

… the ability to get along well with others and to get them to cooperate with you.

A careful review of social science research findings, ranging from Gardner and Goleman to Dale Carnegie, suggests five key dimensions as a descriptive framework for SI.

4.1 Social Brain

Social brain refers to the particular set of circuitry that is orchestrated as people relate to each other though some brain structures play an especially large role in handling relationships. No major zone appears to be exclusively devoted to special life.

This wide dispersion of any neural responsibility for our social life, some speculate may be due to fact that only with the arrival of primates, toward the end of nature’s sculpting of the brain in ancient pre history, deed social groups became a vital part of our repertoire for survival. In creating a system to manage this late blooming opportunity, nature seems to have made do with the brain structures that were available at the time, melding together from pre-existing parts a cohesive set of pathways to handle the challenges of these complex relationships.

The brain draws on any given piece of anatomy for countless tasks. But thinking about brain activity in terms of a specific function, like social interaction, offers neuroscientists a rough way to short out the otherwise daunting complexity of the 100 billion neurons with their roughly 100 trillion inter connections – the thickest density of connectivity known to science. Those neurons are organized in to

modules that behave some thing like an intricate swinging mobile, where activity in any one part can reverberate through the whole system.

A further complication: nature economizes. For instance, serotonin is a neurotransmitter that generates feelings of well- being in the brain. Most of the mapping of the social brain has been through imaging. But like a tourist in paris for only a few days, brain imaging of necessity concentrates on areas of immediate interest rather than visiting every landmark. That means a sacrifice in fine details. So while, for instance, functional magnetic resonance imaging (Fmri) images highlight a social super highway connecting the orbitofrontal cortex and the amygdale, they miss the specific of the fourteen or so separate nuclei in the amygdale, each of which has different functions.

4.3 A bit of history

Edward L. Thorndike (1920) maintained that there are three types of intelligence: abstract, mechanical, and social intelligence. He defined social intelligence as the ability to understand others and "act wisely in human relations." He maintained that social intelligence is different from academic ability and is a key element in what makes people succeed in life.
J.P. Guilford (1967) suggested that SI is a separate cognitive capacity from general intelligence.
H. Gardner (1983), among other types of intelligence, distinguished also interpersonal and intrapersonal types of intelligence
R. Sternberg (1985) expanded a model of intelligence to include practical and social intelligence.
D. Goleman (1985) developed the concept of emotional intelligence that overlaps with SI

4.4 The difficulty with previous definitions of social intelligence

- They are too general and do not represent social intelligence in behaviour.
- They only refer to discrete abilities allowing the child to pass traditional social intelligence tests (like the standardized Social Intelligence Test O'Sullivan & Guilford 1978), but do not refer to invariants that shape social intelligence.
- They are concerned with children's understanding of hypothetical interpersonal situations and ignore how this understanding relates to children's practical SI.
- They only analyze a mature form of SI and ignore less sophisticated forms of SI that exist in younger children.

4.5 Introduction: Social intelligence: the concept, the origins and the developmental tasks

- Social intelligence is not an innate capacity: it develops at a certain point of an individual life.
- For most of infancy children don't even need SI – as long as at that time there is no a clash of interests between themselves and their caregivers.
- Children are quite happy to be without SI as long as their interests coincide with those of their communicative partners.
- The problem arises when those interests diverge.

4.6 The Socially intelligent mind

- The child discovers that he or she is not a master of his/her own perspective.
- But he/she is a master of the 'useful' perspective.
- By creating and using multiple 'useful' perspectives in the situation of the clash of interests.
- The child can now protect his/her interests and avoid a confrontation with the partner at the same time.

4.7 What is needed to have the SI mind?

- Understanding that people's minds are private (that adults cannot peep straight into the child's mind and see what's in it).
- This comes at the age of about 3 years (Estes, Wellman & Woolley, 1989).

- Understanding that other people can have false beliefs (i.e., they would believe that the Deceptive perspective and the child's own perspective are the same).
- This is achieved at the age of about 4 years (Perner, 1992).
- This is acquired at the age of 5 (Sallivan et al., 1994).

And also

- Understanding causes of other people's behaviour (Kelley, 1971).
- The capacity of inhibitory control.
- These appear at the age of about 4 (Carlson et.al, 1998; Kochanska et.al, 1996; Polak and Harris, 1999).
- An awareness of being an agent in an interactive exchange (i.e, being able to influence other people's behaviour in a desired way) (Bandura 1999; Molle et al.,2001; Stenberg & Ruzgis,1994).
- The ability to plan and predict real-life events and people's actions (Bailey, 1974).
- This appears at the age of about 3.

4.8 We can now define SI

Children with social intelligence are able:
(a) to see hidden aspects of a communicative situation that involves the clash of interests,
(b) to create multiple perspectives of this situation and
(c) to manipulate with these perspectives with the aim to mislead, deceive or attract a communicative partner in order to achieve their goals in an indirect way, while avoiding a confrontation with the partner at the same time.

4.9 Why do we study?

- We view SI as a useful creative and adaptive capacity.
- It is possible to train and increase SI in children.
- This capacity is morally neutral, and can be used by children both for a good as well as for a bad cause.
- It is important therefore to examine social and cognitive factors that determine the development of SI in children.

4.10 The George Washington Social Intelligence Test

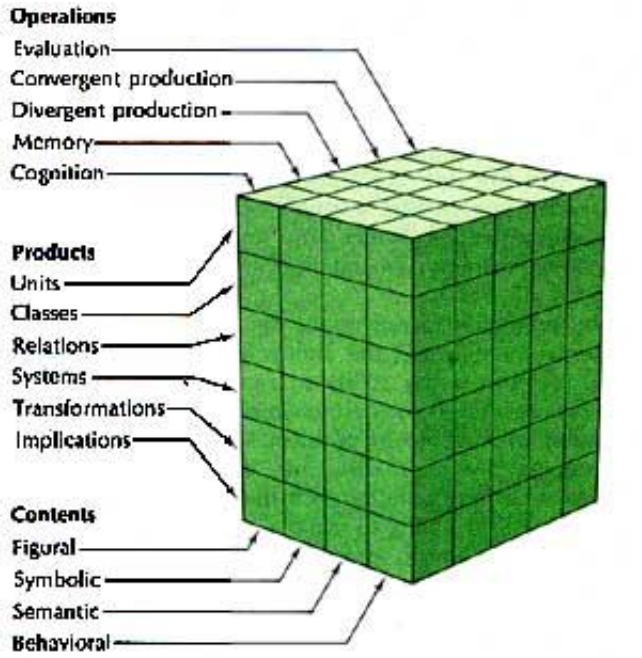
The first of these was the George Washington Social Intelligence Test, (GWSIT; Hunt, 1928; Moss, 1931; Moss, Hunt, Omwake, & Ronning, 1927; for later editions, see Moss, Hunt, & Omwake, 1949; Moss, Hunt, Omwake, & Woodward, 1955). Like the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test or Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale, the GWSIT was composed of a number of subtests, which can be combined to yield an aggregate score. The subtests are:

- Judgment in Social Situations;
- Memory for Names and Faces;
- Observation of Human Behavior;
- Recognition of the Mental States Behind Words;
- Recognition of Mental States from Facial Expression;
- Social Information; and
- Sense of Humor:

The first four subtests were employed in all editions of the GWSIT. The Facial Expression and Social Information subtests were dropped, and the Humor subtest added, in later editions.

4.11 Social Intelligence in the Structure of Intellect

After an initial burst of interest in the GWSIT, work on the assessment and correlates of social intelligence fell off sharply until the 1960s (Walker & Foley, 1973), when this line of research was revived within the context of Guilford's (1967) Structure of Intellect model. Guilford postulated a system of at least 120 separate intellectual abilities, based on all possible combinations of five categories of operations (cognition, memory, divergent production convergent production, and evaluation), with four categories of content (figural, symbolic, semantic, and behavioral) and six categories of products (units, classes, relations, systems, transformations, and implications). Interestingly, Guilford considers his system to be an expansion of the tripartite classification of intelligence originally proposed by E.L. Thorndike. Thus, the symbolic and semantic content domains correspond to abstract intelligence, the figural domain to practical intelligence, and the behavioral domain to social intelligence.



Within Guilford's (1967) more differentiated system, social intelligence is represented as the 30 (5 operations x 6 products) abilities lying in the domain of behavioral operations. In contrast to its extensive work on semantic and figural content, Guilford's group addressed issues of behavioral content only very late in their program of research. Nevertheless, of the 30 facets of social intelligence predicted by the structure-of-intellect model, actual tests were devised for six cognitive abilities (O'Sullivan et al., 1965; Hoepfner & O'Sullivan, 1969) and six divergent production abilities(Hendricks, Guilford, & Hoepfner, 1969).

O'Sulivan et al. (1965) defined the category of behavioral cognition as representing the "ability to judge people" (p. 5) with respect to "feelings, motives, thoughts, intentions, attitudes, or other psychological dispositions which might affect an individual's social behavior" (O'Sullivan et al., p. 4). They made it clear that one's ability to judge individual people was not the same as his or her comprehension of people in general, or "stereotypic understanding" (p. 5), and bore no a priori relation to one's ability to understand oneself. Apparently, these two aspects of social cognition lie outside the standard structure-of-intellect model.

Constructing their tests of behavioral cognition, O'Sullivan et al. (1965) assumed that "expressive behavior, more particularly facial expressions, vocal inflections, postures, and gestures, are the cues from which intentional states are inferred" (p. 6). While recognizing the value of assessing the ability to decode these cues in real-life contexts with real people serving as targets, economic constraints forced the investigators to rely on photographs, cartoons, drawings, and tape recordings (the cost of film was prohibitive); verbal materials were avoided wherever possible, presumably in order to avoid contamination of social intelligence by verbal abilities. In the final analysis, O'Sullivan et. al developed at least three different tests within each product domain, each test consisting of 30 or more separate items -- by any standard, a monumental effort at theory-guided test construction. The six cognitive abilities defined by O'Sullivan et al. were:

- Cognition of behavioral units: the ability to identify the internal mental states of individuals;
- Cognition of behavioral classes: the ability to group together other people's mental states on the basis of similarity;

- Cognition of behavioral relations: the ability to interpret meaningful connections among behavioral acts;
- Cognition of behavioral systems: the ability to interpret sequences of social behavior;
- Cognition of behavioral transformations: the ability to respond flexibly in interpreting changes in social behavior; and
- Cognition of behavioral implications: the ability to predict what will happen in an interpersonal situation.

In one of the last test-construction efforts by Guilford's group, Hendricks et. al (1969) attempted to develop tests for coping with other people, not just understanding them through their behavior -- what they referred to as "basic solution-finding skills in interpersonal relations" (p. 3). Because successful coping involves the creative generation of many and diverse behavioral ideas, these investigators labelled these divergent-thinking abilities creative social intelligence. The six divergent production abilities defined by Hendricks et al. were:

- Divergent production of behavioral units: the ability to engage in behavioral acts which communicate internal mental states;
- Divergent production of behavioral classes: the ability to create recognizable categories of behavioral acts;
- Divergent production of behavioral relations: the ability to perform an act which has a bearing on what another person is doing;
- Divergent production of behavioral systems: the ability to maintain a sequence of interactions with another person;
- Divergent production of behavioral transformations: the ability to alter an expression or a sequence of expressions; and
- Divergent production of behavioral implications: the ability to predict many possible outcomes of a setting.

4.12 The Prototype of Social Intelligence

Although social intelligence has proved difficult for psychometricians to operationalize, it does appear to play a major role in people's naive, intuitive concepts of intelligence. Following up on earlier work by Rosch (1978), Cantor (Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Cantor, Smith, French, & Mezzich, 1980), and Neisser (1979), Sternberg and his colleagues asked subjects to list the behaviors which they considered characteristic of intelligence, academic intelligence, everyday intelligence, and unintelligence; two additional groups of subjects rated each of 250 behaviors from the first list in terms of how "characteristic" each was of the ideal person possessing each of the three forms of intelligence (Sternberg, Conway, Ketron, & Bernstein, 1981). Factor analysis of ratings provided by laypeople yielded a factor of "social competence" in each context. Prototypical behaviors reflecting social competence were:

- Accepts others for what they are;
- Admits mistakes;
- Displays interest in the world at large;
- Is on time for appointments;
- Has social conscience;
- Thinks before speaking and doing;
- Displays curiosity;
- Does not make snap judgments;
- Makes fair judgments;
- Assesses well the relevance of information to a problem at hand;
- Is sensitive to other people's needs and desires;
- Is frank and honest with self and others; and

- Displays interest in the immediate environment.

Interestingly, a separate dimension of social competence did not consistently emerge in ratings made by a group of experts on intelligence. Rather, the experts' dimensions focused on verbal intelligence and problem-solving ability, with social competence expressly emerging only in the ratings of the ideal "practically intelligent" person. Perhaps these experts shared Wechsler's (1939) dismissive view of social intelligence.

A similar study was performed by Kosmitzki and John (1993). Based largely on prior research by Orlik (1978), these investigators assembled a list of 18 features which make up people's implicit concept of social intelligence. When subjects were asked to rate how necessary each feature was to their own personal understanding of social intelligence, the following dimensions emerged as most central to the prototype:

- Understands people's thoughts, feelings, and intentions well;
- Is good at dealing with people;
- Has extensive knowledge of rules and norms in human relations;
- Is good at taking the perspective of other people;
- Adapts well in social situations;
- Is warm and caring; and
- Is open to new experiences, ideas, and values.

In another part of the study, subjects were asked to rate someone they liked on each of these attributes. After statistically controlling for differential likability of the traits, a factor analysis yielded a clear dimension of social intelligence, defined by the attributes listed above. The remaining two factors were named social influence and social memory.

4.13 Personality as Social Intelligence

Psychometric approaches does not conceptualize social intelligence as a trait, or group of traits, on which individuals can be compared and ranked on a dimension from low to high. Rather, the social-intelligence view of personality begins with the assumption that social behavior is intelligent -- that it is mediated by cognitive processes of perception, memory, reasoning, and problem-solving, rather than being mediated by innate reflexes, conditioned responses, evolved genetic programs, and the like. Accordingly, the social intelligence view construes individual differences in social behavior -- the public manifestations of personality -- to be the product of individual differences in the knowledge which individuals bring to bear on their social interactions. Differences in social knowledge cause differences in social behavior, but it does not make sense to construct measures of social IQ. The important variable is not how much social intelligence the person has, but rather what social intelligence he or she possesses.

4.15 Social Intelligence in Life Tasks

Psychometric views that intelligence is context-specific. Thus, in Sternberg's (1985, 1988) triarchic theory, social intelligence is part of a larger repertoire of knowledge by which the person attempts to solve the practical problems encountered in the physical and social world. According to Cantor and Kihlstrom (1987), social intelligence is specifically geared to solving the problems of social life, and in particular managing the life tasks, current concerns (Klinger 1977) or personal projects (Little, 1989) which the person selects for him or herself, or which other people impose on him or her from outside.
Life tasks provide an integrative unit of analysis for the analysis of the interaction between the person and the situation. They may be explicit or implicit, abstract or circumscribed, universal or unique, enduring or stage-specific, rare or commonplace, ill-defined or well- defined problems.

4.16 The Development of Social Intelligence

According to Karl Albrecht, "More people have lost jobs, friends, and mates because of social incompetence than for all other causes." Social Intelligence is the ability to get along well with other people and to get them to cooperate with you. In this stimulating and informative lecture, Karl explains the basic concept of social intelligence – "SI"; shows how this critical set of skills determines a great deal of personal and professional success; and offers a useful formula – his "S.P.A.C.E." model – for defining, assessing, and developing SI skills. The S.P.A.C.E. formula – Situational Awaremess, Presence, Authenticity, Clarity, and Empathy – provides a clear, coherent, and practical foundation for personal and professional effectiveness, team performance, and even organizational effectiveness. Your people will come away with greater self-understanding and self-awareness; a plan for capitalizing on their strengths and strengthening the skills that need developing; and a renewed commitment to dealing more effectively with others in all types of situations. Depending on the occasion and the design of the session, your people can work with Karl's Social Intelligence Profile, which is a self-assessment instrument that provides self- insight and creates the motivation to improve their SI skills.

Skill Dimension		Involves
1	Situational Radar (Awareness)	The ability to "read" situations, understands the social context that influences behavior, and chooses behavioral strategies that are most likely to be successful.
2	Presence	Also known as "bearing," presence is the external sense of one's self that others perceive: confidence, self-respect and self-worth.
3	Authenticity	The opposite of being "phony," authenticity is a way of behaving which engenders a perception that one is honest with one's self as well as others.
4	Clarity	The ability to express one's self clearly, use language effectively, explain concepts clearly and persuade with ideas.
5	Empathy	More than just an internal sense of relatedness or appreciation for the experiences of others, empathy in this context represents the ability to create a sense of connectedness with others; to get them on your wavelength and invite them to move with and toward you rather than away and against you.

Those who like acronyms may find that the initials of these five factors - **"S.P.A.C.E."** - form a useful construct: the ability to understand the social "space" and navigate effectively within it. This SPACE formula immediately suggests the possibility of describing, assessing and developing social intelligence in terms of observable behaviors. Each of the five dimensions can be deconstructed into a set of representative behaviors that may range from highly ineffective to highly effective.

Psychologists argued about which human abilities are social and which are emotional. The two domains are intermingle, just as the brains social real estate overlaps with its emotional centers. "All emotions are social." As Richard Devidson observes. "you can't separate the cause of an emotion from the world of relationships- our social interactions are what drive our emotions."

Denial Goleman's model of emotional intelligence folded in social intelligence without making much of that fact, as do other teoriests in the field. But his observation simply lumping social intelligence within the emotional sort stunts fresh thinking about the human aptitude for relationship, ignoring what transpires as we interact. This myopia leaves the "social" part out of intelligence.

The ingredient of social intelligence Denial Goleman proposed into two broad categories: social awareness, what we sense about others- and social facility, what we then do with that awareness.

Social Awareness

Social awareness refers to a spectrum that runs from instantaneously sensing another's inner state, to understanding her feeling and thoughts, to "getting" complicated social situations. It includes:

- **Primal empathy:** Felling with others sensing non verbal emotional signals
- **Attunement:** Listening with full receptivity attuning to a person.
- **Empathic accuracy:** Understanding another person's thoughts, feelings and intentions.
- **Social cognition:** Knowing how the social world works.

Social Facility

Simply sensing how another feels and knowing what they think or intend does not guarantee fruitful interactions. Social facility builds on social awareness to allow smooth, effective interactions. The spectrum of social facility includes:

- **Synchrony:** Interacting smoothly at the non verbal level.
- **Self presentation:** Presenting our selves effectively.
- **Influence:** Shaping the outcome of social interactions.
- **Concern:** Caring about others' needs and acting accordingly

Both the social awareness and social facility domains range from basic, low road capacities, to more complex high road articulations for instance, synchrony and primal empathy are purely low road capacities, while empathic accuracy and influence mingle high and low. The construction of new measures for the research purposes was a process that included analysis of several social intelligence measures, searching for common features and differences between them, specification of important aspects of social intelligence and finally formulation of new methods with possibilities for comparison with existing ones. The methods constructed and used in our research were based upon two definitions. First, social intelligence is the ability to understand other people and how they will react to different social situations (Silvera, Martinussen, Dahl, 2001). Second, social intelligence is individual's fund of knowledge about social world (Kihlstrom, Cantor, 2000). The aims of this study were to verify the applied measures of social intelligence, to explore the relationships between new constructed measures and the existing one, and to identify possible critical points in measuring social intelligence.

4.19 Social Intelligence Quotient (SQ)

The social intelligence quotient or SQ is a statistical abstraction similar to the 'standard score' approach used in IQ tests with a mean of 100. Unlike the standard IQ test however it is not a fixed model. It leans more to Piaget's theory that intelligence is not a fixed attribute but a complex hierarchy of information-processing skills underlying an adaptive equilibrium between the individual and the environment. An individual can therefore change their SQ by altering their attitudes and behavior in response to their complex social environment.

4.20 Measuring social intelligence

Social Intelligence or SQ is a statistical abstraction similar to the 'standard score' approach used in IQ tests with a mean of 100. Scores of 140 or above are considered to be very high. SQ has until recently been measured by techniques such as question and answer sessions. These sessions assess the person's pragmatic (dealing with matters from a practical point if view) abilities to test eligibility in certain special education courses, however some tests have been developed to measure social intelligence. One of these is the EQ (Emotional Intelligence) test. This test can be used when diagnosing autism spectrum disorders, including autism and Asperger syndrome. Other, non-autistic or semi-autistic conditions such as semantic pragmatic disorder or SPD, schizophrenia, dyssemia and ADHD, are also of relevance. This test can also be used when assessing people that might have some sort of a disorder such as schizophrenia or ADHD.

People with low SQ are more suited to low customer contact roles, since they may not have the required interpersonal communication and social skills for success on the frontline. These people may work better in an occupation that limits social interaction. People with SQs over 120 are considered socially skilled, and may work well with jobs that involve direct contact and communication with other people. The following example chart shows (assuming a person aged 17 is being tested, with an average SQ of 100 for that age) how a person's social age can be higher or lower based on scores in the SQ test:

SQ	Social Age
120 (above average - socially mature for age)	20.4
110	18.7
100 (average)	**17**
90	15.3
80	13.6
70 (below this level, help is recommended)	11.9
60	10.2
50	8.5
40	6.8
30	5.1
20	3.4

5. Conclusion

This study examined important social and academic outcomes for high school students. The results support social intelligence in adolescent's academic and social development.

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