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Emotional intelligence and individual visual preferences:

A predictive machine learning approach

Abstract

5 Differences in individuals' psychological and cognitive characteristics have been always found to play a significant role in influencing our behaviour and preferences. While a number of studies have identified the impact of these characteristics on individuals' visual design preferences, understanding how emotional intelligence (EI) would influence this

10 process is yet to be explored. This study investigated the link between individuals' EI dimensions (e.g., emotionality, self-control, sociability, and well-being) and their eye movement behaviour in an attempt to build a prediction model for visual design preferences. A total of 136 participants took part in this study. The feature selection and prediction

15 of EI and eye movement data were performed using the genetic search method in conjunction with the bagging method. The results showed that participants high in self-control and emotionality exhibited different eye movement behaviours when performing five visual selection tasks. The prediction results (93.87% accuracy) revealed that specific eye

20 parameters can predict the link between certain EI dimensions and

preferences for visual design. This study adds new insights into Human-Computer Interaction, EI and rational choice theories. The findings also encourage researchers and designers to consider EI in the development of intelligent and adaptive systems.

25

Keywords: human-computer interaction; emotional intelligence; visual design; eye tracking; machine learning

1. Introduction

30 Individual differences have greatly contributed to people's behaviour and, thereby, decision-making outcomes. Certain psychological traits, such as personality and emotional intelligence (EI), have the potential to justify individuals' preferences, feelings, and desire. Many of the beliefs reported that users prefer to interact with interfaces
35 that manifest signs consistent with their own behavioural specifications (Al-Samarraie, 2019a; 2019b; 2019c). This is driven by the fact that people prefer to interact with others that resemble their emotional and personality profiles (de Graaf & Allouch, 2014; Weiss & Evers, 2011). For example, understanding emotional similarity among people can help
40 predict feelings of closeness (Townsend et al., 2014). Such an

understanding is essential in the study of human behaviour. This is because EI involves the “abilities to perceive, appraise, and express emotion; to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and to regulate
45 emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10).

The relationship between individual emotions and design has been explored and investigated by previous studies in an attempt to justify how emotion can be closely related to the human-oriented design
50 activities (Ho & Michael Siu, 2010). Yet, there are a few studies that have attempted to explain the direct/indirect relations between people's emotions and their visual preferences (e.g., colour, layout, and shape) (Suk & Irtel, 2010; Valdez & Mehrabian, 1994). In addition, differences in personality traits have been found to be linked with individuals' desire
55 and interest. This was supported by the empirical work of Al-Samarraie et al. (2016) who studied the link between individuals' specific personality traits and their preferences for visual design. The authors reported that differences in personality profiles can help reveal users' preferences for visual design. Despite the link between individuals'
60 personality and emotion, there is still a notable lack of understanding

how a specific dimension of EI can contribute to our visual design preferences. In addition, there is little evidence in the field to explain how certain EI dimensions can be used to increase the usability of interface design. Therefore, this study attempts to answer the following research
65 questions: 1) Is there a link between individual EI and eye movement behaviour in relation to visual design preferences? and 2) Can this link be used to predict individuals' visual design preferences?

To answer these questions, we utilized a number of clustering and prediction techniques to establish the link between individuals' EI and
70 eye movement parameters in a visual selection setting. Specific visual design elements, such as layout, colour, font size, font type, and alignment, were used to build the association between EI and eye movement of individuals. The outcomes from this study can advance the current understanding of how EI could be used to explain individuals'
75 choice and design decision making. The prediction model of visual design preferences can help system designers and engineers in building intelligent and adaptive interfaces capable of adapting to individual specific design needs and preferences. In addition, the link between EI and eye movement behaviour offers a wider implication to the field of
80 Human-Computer Interaction in that it explains the impact of EI on

users' perceptual experience in a visual selection task. This can be further used to provide accurate and fast prediction of visual design representations.

85 **2. Literature review**

Exploring the main factors contributing to individuals' differences has been on the rise. EI has been recognized by many scholars as an important and popular concept for mapping individuals' differences. Mayer et al. (2008) described EI as the ability to identify, 90 express, and label individual emotions. Goleman (1995) was the first to identify the concept of EI based on Salovey's and Mayer's (1990) definition by integrating personal dimensions related to zeal, persistence, and social skills. The result of this popularization is that there could be a broad range of approaches to the subject, from the Mayer–Salovey 95 ability-based conception, to lists of competencies (Goleman, 1998), to approaches focusing on psychological wellbeing (Bar-On, 1997). After a number of investigations in this area, Goleman (2005) proposed five major dimensions of EI, namely: self-awareness, self-regulations, self-motivation, empathy, and social skills. The dimensions of self- 100 awareness, self-regulations and self-motivation are referred to as the

personal competency of human being, whereas the dimensions of empathy and social skills were referred to as the social competency in an individual. Goleman's focus was on providing a mixed understanding of individuals' EI traits and abilities. However, other researchers like

105 Petrides (2009) characterized EI as personality traits, rather than as cognitive abilities. This was mainly due to the fact that trait emotional self-efficacy can lead to substantial improvements in our ability to predict behaviour, attitudes, and achievement. The fundamentals of trait EI theory were developed and explained by Petrides and his colleagues

110 as "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies and measured via the trait EI questionnaire" (Petrides, 2010, p. 137). The domain of EI trait is categorized outside the taxonomy of human cognitive ability, which is also interpreted through the perspective of trait EI theory (Petrides et al.,

115 2007). According to Petrides (2009), the trait EI can be categorized into four main dimensions: Emotionality (individuals who can express emotions to develop and sustain close relationships with others), Self-control (individuals who are good at managing external pressures and stress), Sociability (individuals who are better at social interaction and

120 social influence), and Well-being (individuals who feel positive, happy,
and fulfilled).

Previous research on EI has been conducted to explore the potential of EI traits in explaining various individual behaviours. Yet, throughout the literature on individual differences there is a considerable
125 debate around the feasibility of using EI to explain individuals' decisions and preferences. For example, Leary et al. (2009) explained the potential of using feeling in decision making and its relation to individual's EI. The literature also outlined the importance of recognizing emotional profiles or pre-existing individual psychological dimensions in order to
130 increase the effectiveness of emotion-based technological services. For example, Triberti et al. (2017) encouraged emotional designers to design technologies that accommodate to users' expectations and information needs. In other words, technology designers should consider the embodiment of psychological processes into the design of personalized
135 human-computer interfaces (de Bellis et al., 2019). However, designing emotionally aware interfaces for behaviour change is still poorly understood. Certain individual psychological traits can be used to provide the necessary knowledge about users' needs and preferences. For example, Ghandeharioun et al. (2019) used EI to develop an empathetic

140 bot in order to promote positive mood among users when interacting with
the interface. Another study by Woolf et al. (2007) used EI to customize
instruction in online tutoring environments by responding to a student's
affective state across multiple domains and content areas. Despite these
efforts, the role of EI in predicting our visual design preferences is yet to
145 be explored.

The relationship between individual personality and EI (reported
by Austin et al., 2008; Petrides et al., 2018; Van der Linden et al., 2017)
can act as a start point for studying how EI can be used to predict the
visual preferences of an individual user. This assumption is supported by
150 the work of Leary et al. (2009) who reported a positive and significant
relationship between individuals' preferences during a decision-making
task and their EI profiles. In addition, since previous studies (e.g., Al-
Samarraie et al., 2016; Sarsam & Al-Samarraie, 2018) have shown the
potential of using individual personality in predicting our preferences,
155 then it can be argued that EI is likely to predict people's preferences for
visual design presentations.

In order to establish a link between the dimensions of EI (e.g.,
Emotionality, Self-control, Sociability, and Well-being) and individuals'
visual preferences in this study, we build a prediction model through eye

160 movement analysis during visual selection tasks. Eye movement has
been widely used for the evaluation of various cognitive and non-
cognitive states. Many previous studies (e.g., Al-Samarraie et al., 2018;
Filik et al., 2018; Hoppe et al., 2018; Mulvey & Heubner, 2014) have
provided the basis for exploring individual differences based on their eye
165 movement parameters. Therefore, this study was motivated to examine
the potential of using eye movements data in conjunction with EI in
characterizing and predicting individuals' preferences for visual design
presentations. It is hoped that this mechanism can be used as a first step
to reveal the association between EI and individual differences in visual
170 preferences.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

A total of 146 participants (58 males and 88 females) were
175 recruited in this study. The participants were university students (from a
public university) drawn from arts and social science classes. Their ages
ranged from 22 to 27 years old. All participants had normal or corrected-
to-normal visual acuity. The participants were given EI and eye-
calibration tests prior to the visual selection task. Ten participants were

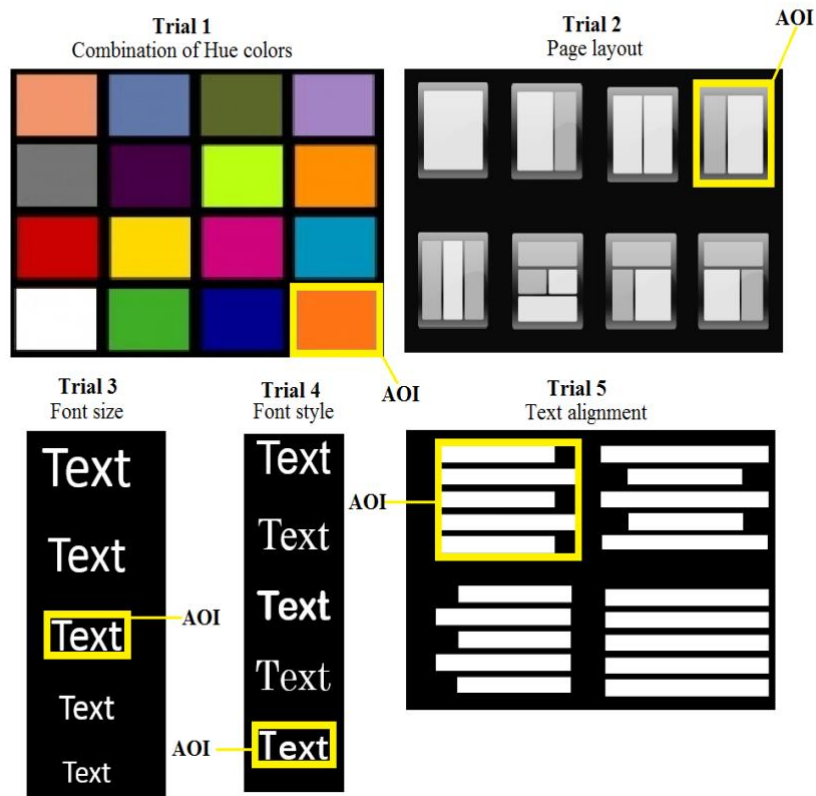
180 discarded: two due to technical errors and eight because calibration error,
respectively. As a result, 136 participants (56 male and 80 female) were
involved (age $M = 22.11$, $SD = 1.21$) in the actual experiment.
Furthermore, all the selected subjects were healthy participants with no
visual impairment (Snellen visual acuity of 20/25 or better). The
185 participants were not native English speakers. We encouraged
participants who were not wearing glasses to take part in this study.
These measures are believed to increase the accuracy of the eye-tracking
device (Dupont et al., 2017). Finally, informed consent was obtained
from each participant before inclusion in the study population.

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3.2 Materials

The experimental stimuli were used to examine the participants' preferences regarding visual design elements of layout, colour, font size, font type, and alignment. The trials consisted of a combination of 16 hue
195 colours, eight layouts, a combination of font sizes, a combination of font styles, and visual alignments of text (left, cantered, and justified) (see Figure 1). A PowerPoint was used to present these trials. Each trial was shown for 3 s with a 1-s fixation cross-interval.

Graphic Design Elements



200

Figure 1: The design of the study trials

3.3 Eye-tracking configuration (Apparatus)

The SMI iView X™RED eye-tracker was used in this study to
205 perform the visual stimuli. SensoMotoric Instruments GmbH was used
to track and record the participants' eye movements. This device operates
by means of an infrared sensor attached to the monitor. The eye-tracker
was placed in an isolated laboratory room. The eye position was traced

and recorded using x and y values. These values were sampled at a rate
210 of 60 Hz together with pupil diameter. The visual stimuli were presented
on a standard 22-inch LCD monitor with a screen resolution of 1680 ×
1050 pixels. All participants were advised to sit comfortably on a chair,
with their eyes about 70 cm from the monitor.

215 **3.4 Instrument**

The trait EI profiles of all participants was examined based on the
dimensions proposed by Petrides (2009). These dimensions include
Emotionality, Self-control, Sociability, and Well-being. The choice of
these dimensions was based on their relevance to the present
220 investigation, as they comprise of a wide range of interpersonal
emotional attributes. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire
(TEIQue) was employed (30 items over 4 factors) to assess how
individuals' behaviour is linked to their EI profiles. The TEIQue is
designed to give an overall EI score and a score for each trait using a 7-
225 Likert scale (completely disagree to completely agree). It also provides
a wide coverage of the trait EI sampling domain (Petrides et al., 2006).
According to Sánchez-Ruiz et al. (2010), TEIQue is also known to be a
valid and reliable assessment to use with student samples. We assessed

the reliability of TEIQue among 136 participants. The Cronbach alpha
230 or coefficient alpha was .83 for the global score. In addition, each sub-
factor showed adequate reliability with the present sample: Emotionality
 $\alpha = .80$, Self-control $\alpha = .76$, Sociability $\alpha = .84$, and Wellbeing $\alpha = .79$.

3.5 Procedure

235 Prior to the experiment, we sent out an introductory email to all
participants informing them of the study and the eye-tracking
experiment. A link to the online survey (TEIQue) was also enclosed in
the introductory email. After all the responses to the survey were
received and coded, a 15-minute eye-tracking session was allocated to
240 each participant using an online calendar system. When participants
arrived at the laboratory, they were seated at the computer with the eye-
tracker attached to it. Each participant went through calibration and
validation procedures. When a successful calibration was completed, we
asked the participants to follow the instructions appearing on the screen.
245 Figure 2 shows the sequence of the visual task with the allocated time
for each trial. The participants were not restricted in their movements by
a chin rest in order to create a more natural viewing setting (Dupont et
al., 2017). However, to assure accurate eye movement recording, we

instructed participants to avoid making abrupt movements during the
250 visual task. At the end of the experiment, the eye movement data for each
participant was stored and labelled. Based on the suggestions of previous
studies (e.g., Brunyé & Gardony, 2017; Liang et al., 2018; Pang et al.,
2020), the eye movement parameters of average pupil diameter, fixation
number, fixation duration, saccade amplitude, and saccade velocity peak
255 were used in the analysis. At the end of the experiment, we asked
participants to identify their preferred design elements from each trial.
The preferred design elements for each participant were then covered
with an Area of Interest (AOI) in a convex shape. The labelled AOI data
for each trial were stored in a separate database together with the stimulus
260 file.

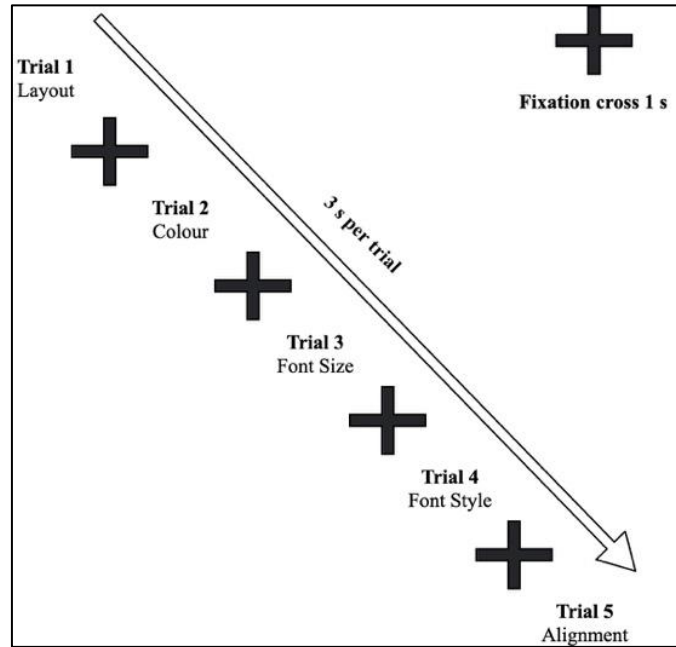


Figure 2: Experimental trials

265 **4. Results**

This section is divided into two sections. The first one discusses both descriptive statistics and “Analysis of variance” or “ANOVA” for each EI dimension in each trial. The second section describes the classification and the evaluation procedures of the applied machine

270 learning algorithms.

4.1 Descriptive statistics

275 The responses from the EI questionnaire revealed two main
dominant dimensions among participants: self-control and emotionality.
The descriptive statistics and ANOVA results of the participants' EI
dimensions are presented in Table 1. Based on the results, we found that
participants high in self-control had overall higher fixation number and
280 longer fixation duration when compared to participants high in
emotionality. We also found some significant differences between the
two groups with regard to pupil diameter saccade amplitude, and
velocity.

In the first trial (layout), the ANOVA results showed significant
285 differences in participants' fixation number ($p = 0.02$, $F = 12.89$),
fixation duration ($p = 0.04$, $F = 104.04$), and pupil diameter ($p = 0.03$, F
 $= 0.30$) among the two groups. In the second trial (colour), there was only
a significant difference in pupil diameter ($p = 0.00$, $F = 0.94$) among
participants high in self-control and emotionality. In the third trial (font
290 size), the results showed major significant differences in participants'
fixation number ($p = 0.02$, $F = 16.39$), fixation duration ($p = 0.04$, $F =$
 134.21), pupil diameter ($p = 0.00$, $F = 1.30$), and saccade velocity (p
 $= 0.02$, $F = 45.24$). In the fourth trial (font style), the results showed

significant differences in participants' fixation number ($p = 0.00$, $F =$
295 11.13), fixation duration ($p = 0.03$, $F = 52.19$), and saccade amplitude (p
 $= 0.02$, $F = 0.64$). Finally, in the fifth trial, participants high in self-
control exhibited larger fixation number ($p = 0.04$, $F = 12.63$), longer
fixation duration ($p = 0.00$, $F = 300.76$), larger pupil diameter ($p = 0.00$,
 $F = 1.02$), and higher saccade amplitude ($p = 0.03$, $F = 0.73$) than those
300 high in emotionality.

Based on the above results, it can be said that changes in
participants' viewing behaviour can be due to differences in their EI
profiles. It is also believed that individuals' tendency toward certain
design elements has resulted in unique eye movement patterns when
305 performing the visual task. This is evident by the high fixation number,
long fixation duration, and large pupil diameter found among
participants when processing the preferred visual stimulus.

310

Table 1: Descriptive statistics and ANOVA results

Trial	EI	M	SD	F	p
Layout	Fixation Number				
	<i>Self-control</i>	124.20	18.32	12.89	0.02
	<i>Emotionality</i>	90.60	11.04		
	Fixation Duration				
	<i>Self-control</i>	348.47	178.45	104.04	0.02
	<i>Emotionality</i>	303.98	103.62		
	Avg. pupil diameter				
	<i>Self-control</i>	2.32	0.22	0.30	0.03
	<i>Emotionality</i>	3.93	0.38		
	Saccade amplitude				
	<i>Self-control</i>	1.55	1.32	0.19	0.82
	<i>Emotionality</i>	1.64	0.77		
	Saccade velocity peak				
	<i>Self-control</i>	169.35	106.25	43.83	0.16
<i>Emotionality</i>	152.70	50.83			
Colour	Fixation Number				
	<i>Self-control</i>	185.12	29.12	15.89	0.13
	<i>Emotionality</i>	163.05	25.62		
	Fixation Duration				
	<i>Self-control</i>	330.19	140.24	46.09	0.90
	<i>Emotionality</i>	318.24	123.89		
	Avg. pupil diameter				
	<i>Self-control</i>	3.61	1.15	0.94	0.00
	<i>Emotionality</i>	1.92	0.33		
	Saccade amplitude				
	<i>Self-control</i>	1.26	0.83	0.56	0.21
	<i>Emotionality</i>	1.02	0.82		
	Saccade velocity peak				
	<i>Self-control</i>	75.31	55.00	5.97	0.14
<i>Emotionality</i>	102.37	77.91			
Font size	Fixation Number				
	<i>Self-control</i>	83.58	21.53	16.39	0.02
	<i>Emotionality</i>	47.21	7.81		
	Fixation duration				
<i>Self-control</i>	488.61	177.27	134.21	0.04	

	<i>Emotionality</i>	401.39	161.85		
	Avg. pupil diameter				
	<i>Self-control</i>	4.56	1.31	1.30	0.00
	<i>Emotionality</i>	2.52	0.87		
	Saccade amplitude				
	<i>Self-control</i>	1.16	0.22	0.24	0.06
	<i>Emotionality</i>	2.04	0.50		
	Saccade velocity peak				
	<i>Self-control</i>	79.42	39.12	45.24	0.04
	<i>Emotionality</i>	144.27	70.41		
Font type	Fixation Number				
	<i>Self-control</i>	64.40	12.39	11.13	0.00
	<i>Emotionality</i>	33.46	6.40		
	Fixation duration				
	<i>Self-control</i>	471.43	77.32	52.19	0.03
	<i>Emotionality</i>	316.96	51.68		
	Avg. pupil diameter				
	<i>Self-control</i>	2.02	0.63	0.20	0.81
	<i>Emotionality</i>	1.87	0.21		
	Saccade amplitude				
	<i>Self-control</i>	0.96	0.40	0.64	0.02
	<i>Emotionality</i>	2.60	0.80		
	Saccade velocity peak				
	<i>Self-control</i>	90.73	56.35	5.47	0.62
	<i>Emotionality</i>	93.16	68.25		
Alignment	Fixation Number				
	<i>Self-control</i>	136.52	14.02	12.63	0.04
	<i>Emotionality</i>	72.18	8.93		
	Fixation duration				
	<i>Self-control</i>	826.53	658.10	300.76	0.00
	<i>Emotionality</i>	452.96	254.55		
	Avg. pupil diameter				
	<i>Self-control</i>	2.74	1.23	1.02	0.00
	<i>Emotionality</i>	1.82	1.10		
	Saccade amplitude				
<i>Self-control</i>	3.25	2.08	0.73	0.03	
<i>Emotionality</i>	1.98	0.64			

Saccade velocity peak

<i>Self-control</i>	185.93	135.61	7.89	0.15
<i>Emotionality</i>	181.34	124.61		

315

4.2 Classification results

The results showed that eye movement behaviour can play a key role in predicting individuals' visual preferences based on variations in their EI profiles. To predict these visual preferences, four machine learning algorithms were used: Bagging, Multinomial logistic regression (Logistic), NaiveBayes, and Sequential Minimal Optimization (SMO). The selection of these algorithms was based on the results of the comparative analysis of previous studies like Tallon et al. (2021) and Sarsam et al. (2020). Waikato Environment was used for Knowledge Analysis (Weka) platform to apply and compare the performance of these algorithms. The first stage was feature extraction based on the genetic search method by Goldberg (1989). Genetic search was used to identify the eye movement parameters associated with participants' specific EI dimensions. The probability value of crossover was set to 0.6 — the probability that two population members share similar genetic features. In addition, the probability of finding mutation during model building was set to 0.033. Each of the four classifiers identified above were used as an evaluator by estimating the merit of the selected feature

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subset. The genetic search results showed that the most relevant eye
335 movement parameters (features) – capable of predicting visual
preferences of individuals high in specific EI dimensions– were fixation
number, fixation duration, average pupil diameter, and saccade velocity
peak. The retrieved features from the genetic search were then fed into
each classifier to build the ultimate predictive model of individual visual
340 preferences based on the EI dimensions of self-control and emotionality.

The performance of each classifier was estimated by using
stratified tenfold cross-validation. Several evaluation metrics were also
used to assess the prediction results of each classifier, including
Accuracy, Kappa statistic, Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE), Receiver
345 Operating Characteristic (ROC), and Confusion matrix. These metrics
were commonly used in evaluating the prediction performance of a
model. Table 1 presents the classification results, which revealed that the
Bagging classifier achieved the highest classification accuracy (93.87
%), followed by Logistic (74.21 %), NaiveBayes (45.15 %), and SMO
350 (34.08 %). The kappa results also revealed that Bagging had the highest
value (81.51 %) than Logistic (61 %), NaiveBayes (17.74 %), and SMO
(1.00 %). The Bagging algorithm was also found to result in a lower
RMSE value (23.95 %). We set the Bagging classifier using reduced

error pruning tree to act as an estimator when constructing a decision
 355 tree. Based on the ROC results (see Figure 3), it can be said that the use
 of Bagging is effective in predicting the visual preferences of individuals
 high in self-control and emotionality.

Table 2: Classification results

Learning algorithm	Accuracy (%)	Kappa statistic (%)	RMSE (%)
<i>Bagging</i>	93.87	81.51	23.95
<i>Logistic</i>	74.21	61.00	35.96
<i>NaiveBayes</i>	45.15	17.74	41.01
<i>SMO</i>	34.08	1.00	47.49

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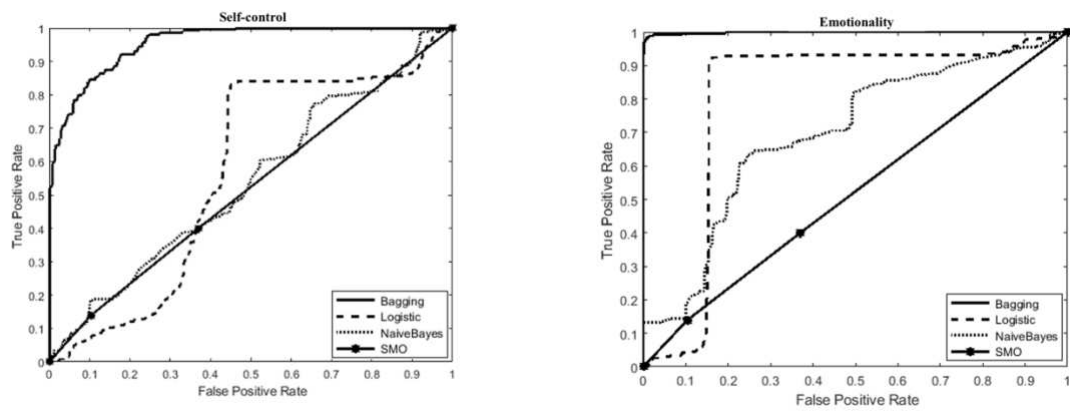


Figure 3: ROC results

In addition, confusion matrix was used to assess the performance
 365 of the four classifiers and to validate the prediction results in relation to

the EI dimensions of self-control and emotionality. This method is known for estimating the association between predicted and actual instances placed along the diagonal line of the matrix. Figure 4 shows the performance results in a matrix form. Based on the figure, the value
370 in every cell represents the proportion of trials identified as the corresponding label (target class) to the total number of trials in the actual category. The results showed that Bagging had the highest classification performance: 83.5% and 97.4 % for self-control and emotionality, respectively.

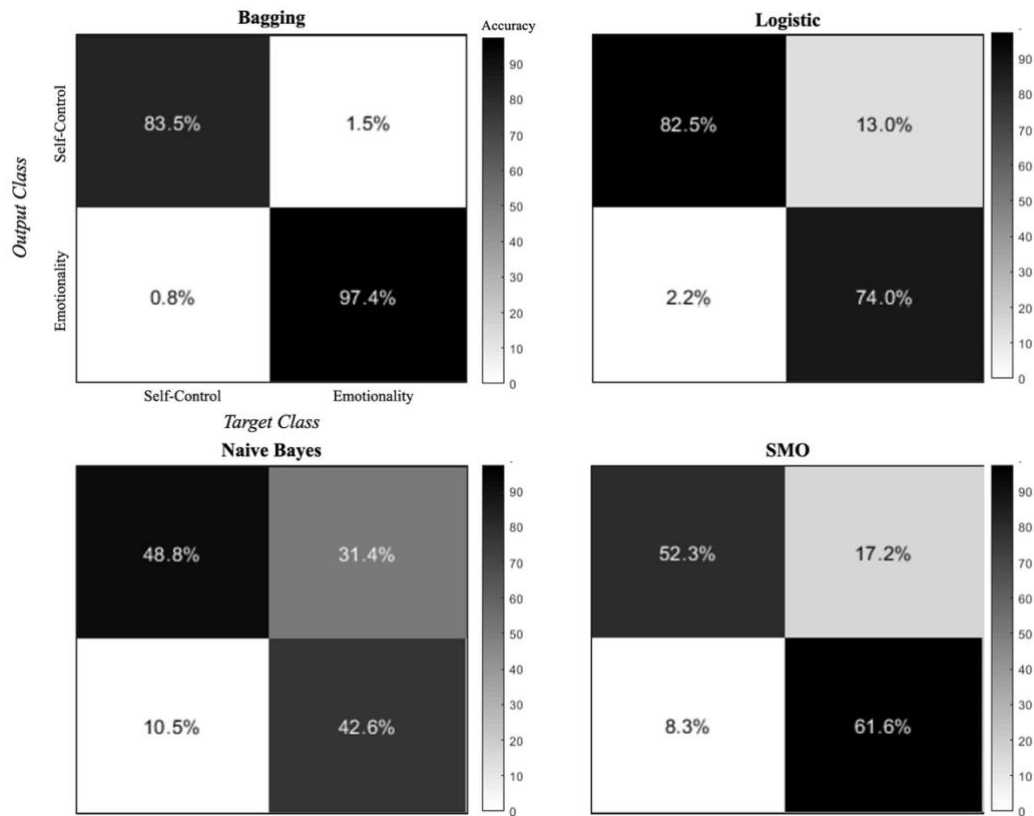


Figure 4: Confusion matrix results

5. Discussion

This study revealed the potential of using certain EI dimensions
 380 in predicting the visual design preferences of people based on their eye
 movement parameters. Precisely, participants high in self-control were
 found to exhibit higher fixation number, smaller pupil diameters, longer
 fixation duration, and higher saccade velocity than those who scored high
 in emotionality. The result showed that fixation number, fixation

385 duration, pupil diameter, and saccade velocity can be useful in
characterising the preferences of individuals high in self-control and
emotionality. This finding adds to the work of Sarsam, Al-Samarraie,
and Alzahrani (2021) on how certain eye parameters can be used to
predict the viewing behaviour of people based on how high they score
390 on certain personality traits. We believe that this finding can also
compliment other previous works such as Coricelli, G., Polonio, L., &
Vostroknutov, A. (2020) on how eye movement can contribute to our
understanding of the cognitive and the emotional underpinnings of
decision making.

395 The prediction model achieved an accuracy of 93.87 % on five
visual selection trials, demonstrating the feasibility of this approach. Yet,
our review of the literature showed limited evidence about the role of EI
in predicting people's visual preferences. For example, Bahrololoum et
al. (2012) showed a relationship between EI and attention concentration.
400 Similarly, Stratton et al. (2008) reported a positive relationship between
EI and attention to feelings, empathetic concern, communication skills
and perspective. In addition, previous studies have shown that people
high in a specific EI dimension may pose different direct and indirect

effects on the way they manage their emotions and impulses (Furnham
405 & Petrides, 2003), subsequently leading to a different degree of focus.

This leads us to support the argument that individuals high in a
specific EI trait may be better at regulating emotions through cognitive
reappraisal (Perera & DiGiacomo, 2013), which may be viewed as an
important adaptive mechanism that drive a person to exhibit preferences
410 for specific visual features. From our view, the association between
users' specific IE dimensions and visual preferences may be explained
by the skills in which those with high EI possess, or the way they react
to visual representations. According to Mayer et al. (1990), a general
ability to perceive consensual emotional content in visual stimuli can be
415 associated with the ability to respond empathically to others. Our study
shows the possibility of understanding the EI of others based on their
interaction experience with visual stimuli. This finding supports the work
of Lea et al. (2018), who suggested that individuals high in specific EI
dimensions are likely to exhibit more attention to positive emotional
420 stimuli in comparison to negative and neutral stimuli.

In addition, our finding about the role of eye movements in
characterising individual visual preferences is in line with the work of
Guo et al. (2016) who demonstrated that eye movement behaviour can

reflect people's preference to stimuli changes. Since eye movement can
425 provide information about the focus of visual attention (Park et al.,
2019), this study suggests that individuals high in self-control and
emotionality are more likely to develop more attention to stimuli related
to their interests. This assumption is supported by the work of Al-
Samarraie et al. (2016) who reported how eye movement behaviour can
430 be used to predict the association between individual personality traits
and visual preferences. The relevant practical and theoretical
implications are discussed in the following section.

6. Practical and theoretical implications

435 Although the process of predicting individual visual preferences
has been investigated in relation to certain psychological capacities or
abilities, the application of EI in doing so has not been studied to a great
extent. Our findings therefore add to knowledge by suggesting a feasible
connection between EI and eye movement behaviour. From a practical
440 perspective, the potential of using specific EI dimensions in the
recognition of visual preferences can open new opportunities for the
development of user adapted interaction systems. For example, the
proposed predictive process can provide a valuable tool for the

recognition of individual EI profile based on the way they process visual
445 representations. This can facilitate the personalization process of the
interface for each type of user interaction, thus creating an atmosphere
of emotional comfort.

From a theoretical perspective, we believe that the relationship
between certain EI dimensions and the visual display can direct future
450 psychometric development and refinement of the EI instrument. Our
study contributes to the theory of EI in that people's processing of
emotional information can be explained by their perceptual response to
visual stimuli. This is important because very few studies have looked at
how people high in specific EI dimensions process visual information.
455 The study also provides a new way to identify people's emotional pattern
and its relationship to their social development. To increase the validity,
practical application, and impact of our findings, more research is
needed, as discussed in the following section.

460 **7. Limitations and future research**

There are some limitations in this study that can be addressed in
future research. For instance, a limited selection of visual design
elements was used to examine individual differences in visual

preferences with regard to their EI. The visual stimuli used in this study
465 have been tested in previous research (e.g., Al-Samarraie, et al. 2018,
2016; Al-Samarraie, Sarsam, & Guesgen, 2016). However, future
research could consider a variety of visual recognition tasks to validate
the accuracy of the proposed predictive process. In addition, the collected
EI dimensions were limited to self-control and emotionality. These
470 dimensions were the dominant characteristics found among participants
of this study. Therefore, it is advised that future research considers
different EI realms and investigates their impact on people's visual
preferences of different design elements. This study was also limited to
the use of eye tracking technology to evaluate and analyse visual
475 attention. In the future, an electroencephalography devise can be used to
investigate the neuro-mechanism of EI during visual processing of
stimuli. The process of extracting and predicting EI and eye movement
data were performed using the genetic search method in conjunction with
the bagging method. Future research could consider other algorithms and
480 examine their merit in classifying EI dimensions.

8. Conclusion

485 This study examined the potential of specific EI dimensions in predicting people's visual design preferences through eye movement analysis. TEIQue was used to link individuals' behaviour to their EI profiles. Two dominant dimensions were commonly found among the participants: self-control and emotionality. For each participant, this
490 study recorded and analysed the eye movement parameters of average pupil diameter, fixation number, fixation duration, saccade amplitude, and saccade velocity peak.

 This study used a genetic search algorithm to find favourable eye parameters capable at predicting people's preferences for specific design
495 elements. The results showed a prediction accuracy of 93.87 % indicating the potential of self-control and emotionality in characterising individuals design preferences. Other metrics were also used to evaluate the prediction capability of the proposed model (e.g., Kappa statistic, RMSE, ROC, and Confusion matrix). The results from these metrics
500 were also found to be in line with the prediction accuracy value.

 Findings from this work adds new insights into current theories of EI, Human-Computer Interaction, and rational choice. This includes the use of EI dimensions in characterising the visual configuration of

individuals in certain settings. Finally, UI designers and developers are
505 encouraged to further study the role of EI in developing adaptive
interfaces.

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