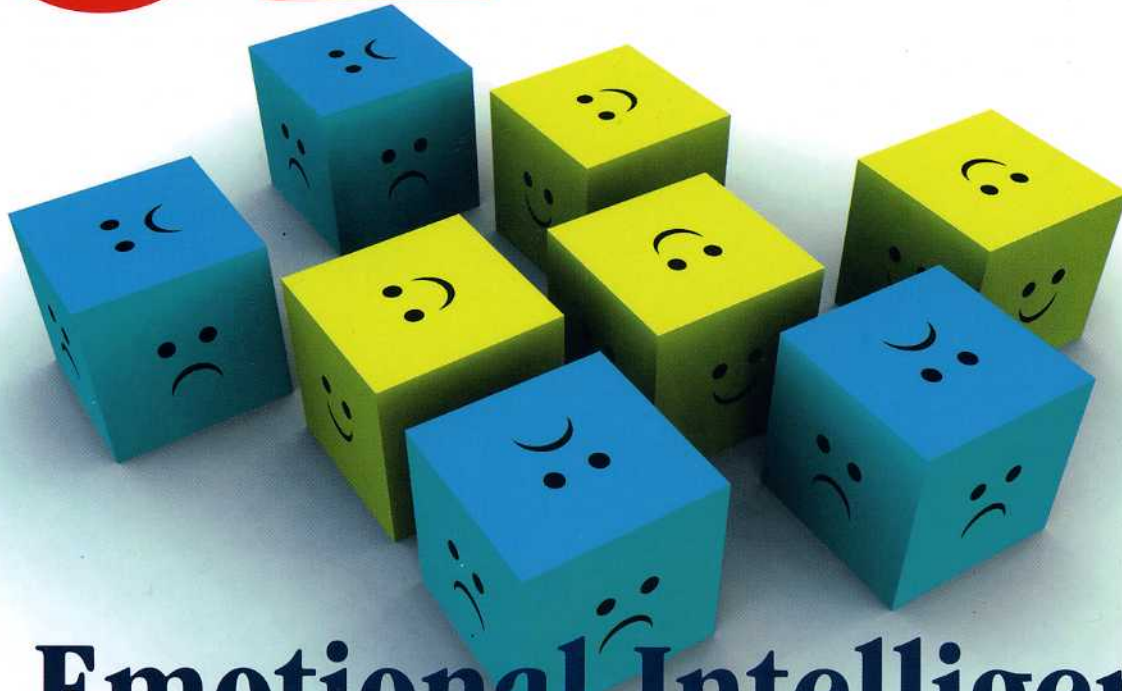


Organisations & People



Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace

The Quarterly Journal of



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Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace: An Introduction

GUEST EDITOR, DR BENJAMIN PALMER



Emotional intelligence was conceptualised in 1990 by Peter Salovey, Dean of Psychology at Yale University and his colleague, Professor of Psychology, Jack Mayer from the University of New Hampshire. In their seminal article Peter and Jack didn't just define emotional intelligence. They also proposed what emotional intelligence might contribute to in life catching the attention of then scientific journalist Daniel Goleman. Daniel went on to write a best selling book, *Emotional Intelligence*; why it can matter more than IQ, which has become the most widely read social science book in the world. From there the popularity of emotional intelligence has spread.

Today, it could be argued, emotional intelligence has the three critical ingredients for success and longevity as a psychological construct. Firstly, a wide body of researchers examining the reliability and validity of different models, measures and applications of emotional intelligence. Secondly, a wide body of critics challenging the notion of both the construct and research findings. And finally, a wide body of practitioners applying emotional intelligence in various facets of life—particularly in the workplace, in the home, and in education.

The application of emotional intelligence in the workplace has received considerable attention in all three of these areas. During the past decade, a global body of researchers and practitioners have been exploring the utility of emotional intelligence assessment and development in various parts of the human capital life cycle. Covering the three major components of the human capital life cycle this special issue presents a collection of articles from leading authors in the area. While the area is not without its critics, there is simply so much that could be included that an editorial decision was taken to focus on some of the best original material in the area by some of the world's leading authorities on the topic.

Collectively, the articles cover the application of emotional intelligence in employee selection, development and career transition. Furthermore, the articles also cover the three major levels within these components; that is, applications at the individual, team and organisational level. Finally, we have a balance of article types. Articles range from a) those presenting purely academic research; to b) those presenting business case studies with return on investment statistics; and c) to those presenting the qualitative views and experience of practitioners applying emotional intelligence with their clients.

Given the issues scope, it should be of interest to a wide audience from academics working in the field to those working in the recruitment, learning and development and organisational development professions. I hope you find this collection of articles interesting and informative and leave you feeling completely up-to-date on the current status of the emotional intelligence construct.

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The editors of Organisations & People would like to record their thanks to Ben Palmer for all his hard work in assembling such an illustrious gathering of world leaders in the field of EI for this special issue.

Models and Measures of Emotional Intelligence



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With so many models and measures of emotional intelligence available it is becoming increasingly difficult to determine which approach may best suit the intended application. In this article emotional intelligence model and assessment characteristics that may best be suited to recruitment and development initiatives are proposed. Practical and academic criteria are presented to define 'best-practice-approaches' to the application of emotional intelligence in these areas. The article does not compare and contrast various models and measures of EI. Rather, recently defined categories of emotional intelligence approaches are outlined, along with the model and measurement characteristics that define them. The article is intended to help human resource professionals make timely and informed decisions about which type of emotional intelligence model and measure to use in various human resource applications.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, learning and development, recruitment, psychological assessment

During the last 10 years the business case for applying emotional intelligence (EI) in the workplace has been mounting. A global body of research studies have been confirming many of the early claims associated with the construct. For example, EI has been shown to relate to leadership effectiveness (Gardner & Stough, 2002); employee retention (McClelland, 1999); occupational stress (Gardner & Stough, 2003); job satisfaction (Thomas, Tram & O'Hara, 2006); sales performance (Hay & McBer, 1997), and effective teamwork (Jordan & Askkanasy, 2006). Research studies exploring the value of applying EI in recruitment and development initiatives are also emerging. L'Oreal is reported to have achieved net revenue increases over \$2.5 million dollars following the selection of a cohort of sales professionals based on EI. L'Oreal was also reported to have found a 63% reduction in the turnover of these employees during their first year (Cherniss, 2004). A study by Boyatzis (1999) found that experienced partners in a multinational consulting firm high in EI, delivered \$1.2 million more profit from their accounts than their less emotionally intelligent peers. These findings, and others like it, have been met

with healthy scepticism; academic debate concerning their validity (e.g., Zeider, Matthews & Roberts, 2004); and increased attention from the business community. However, these findings are seemingly speaking louder than the words of debate. Human resource practitioners around the world are being asked to source, implement and track the return on investment of emotional intelligence selection and development programmes (Tatton, 2005).

The last 10 years has also seen the proliferation of a wide number of EI models and measures. A Google search at the time of writing listed over 17,500 web pages containing the search words "emotional intelligence assessment". This work has been useful in that it has provided a number of different approaches to applying EI in the workplace. However, it has also led to questions concerning the nature and boundaries of the construct, and which approach offers the most utility in workplace applications. Variables ranging from emotional abilities and competencies, to so-called 'non-cognitive' capabilities and skills have been placed under the banner of EI. Furthermore, a number of different assessment approaches have been developed

ranging from performance-based IQ type assessments to self-report and informant-rated or 360-degree type assessments. This has added complexity to the task of deciding which model and measurement approach to utilise in recruitment and development initiatives.

Towards clarifying this ambiguity a number of leading authors in the area have theoretically contrasted different models of EI and placed them into coherent categories. Models of EI have been categorised into three main theoretical approaches (Caruso, 2004). These include:

1. Ability Models, which define EI as a conceptually related set of mental abilities to do with emotions such as the ability to perceive and understand one's own emotions (e.g., Mayer & Salovey, 1993; 1997).
2. Trait Models, which define EI as an array of socio-emotional traits such as Assertiveness (e.g., Bar-On, 1997).
3. Competency Models, which comprise a set of emotional competencies defined as learned capabilities based on EI (e.g., Influence, that is, wielding effective tactics for persuasion, Goleman, 2001).

Measures of EI can also be categorised into three main approaches. These include:

1. Performance Based Measures of EI. Performance-based measures, like intelligence (IQ) tests, comprise a series of questions for which there are more and less correct answers. These measures are purported to index individual differences in people's actual emotional abilities (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios, 2003) or emotional knowledge.
2. Self-Report Trait Measures of EI. Like personality measures, self-report trait measures of EI comprise a series of statements pertaining to behavioural preferences (e.g., "It's fairly easy for me to express my feelings"), and styles (e.g., "I'm sensitive to others feelings"). Respondents typically answer on anchored rating scales (e.g., from 1 to 5) where a response of 1 might indicate that the statement is "very seldom or not true of me" and a response of 5 might indicate that the statement is "very often true of me or true of me". These measures of EI index individual differences in people's behavioural preferences and styles relating to emotions. These measures may also provide insight into individual differences in emotional self-efficacy (e.g., self-confidence in expressing how one feels), which like the broader concept of self-efficacy may be an important characteristic of psychological well-being (Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1992).
3. Behavioural Measures of EI. These measures typically comprise a series of statements relating to emotionally intelligent behaviours (e.g., "Demonstrates an understanding of others feelings"). Respondents typically answer on anchored rating scales, however, response scales relate to how often the behaviour is

displayed (e.g., 1 = almost never and 5 = almost always). Like competency or 360-degree capability assessments, these measures of EI index individual differences in how often people display emotionally intelligent behaviour. Authors of such assessments argue that the frequency with which individuals display emotionally intelligent behaviours is a manifestation of their actual EI (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000).

In attempting to provide insight into which approach offers the most utility, researchers have been examining which measurement approach is more predictive of outcome variables such as social functioning (Brackett, Rivers & Shiffman, 2006) and coping styles (Goldenberg, Matheson & Mantler, 2006). To-date these studies have typically been comparing one or more self-report trait measures of EI against a performance based measure. So far the results of these studies have been somewhat inconclusive with the performance based measures being more predictive in some studies (e.g., Brackett et al., 2006) and the reverse being the case in others (e.g., Goldenberg, 2006). This may be due to different measurement properties (i.e., one assessment type offering greater predictive validity than the other), or it could be due somewhat distinct predictive qualities these different approaches offer. Indeed research has only found moderate positive correlations (e.g., $r = .39$, Palmer 2003) between the different EI measurement approaches supporting this argument (see also Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

Performance based measures of EI may measure the extent to which one's emotional ability or knowledge underlies or predicts social functioning. In contrast, a self-report trait measure of EI may measure the extent to which one's emotional self-efficacy underlies or predicts social functioning. When pitted against each other, one approach may appear more predictive than the other. Yet collectively a battery of different measurement types may explain greater variance in outcome variables such as social functioning. More research of this type is needed. However, research also needs to examine the predictive qualities of different measures within a single assessment category (e.g., a comparison of the predictive qualities of various behavioural measures of EI). Research of this type will further inform practitioners of which approach offers the most utility. It is most likely that an approach involving a battery of EI measures comprising the different measurement categories will prove to be "best practice". However, factors such as time, costs, face validity, participant buy-in and specialist qualifications required to interpret results often constrain the opportunity to apply such best practice approaches. These factors often manifest the need to choose one approach over another. They also highlight the potential utility of practical and academic criteria to assist in determining which approach may best suit the intended application.

Academic criteria: Evidence of psychometric reliability and validity

There are a number of general properties that a measure of EI should comprise. Firstly, the model upon which it is based should be theoretically well-grounded. This is typically evident where a model has been conceptualised through the distillation of existing research findings and other well established theories. A good example of this is Salovey and Mayer's (1990) seminar article on EI and a later revision of their model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Secondly, the measure of EI should comprise the following psychometric properties: 1) Internal consistency reliability; 2) Factorial validity, showing that the various components of the model the measure has been designed to assess exist in population data (e.g., emotional self-awareness, expressing emotions etc); and 3) Criterion-related validity, that is, a body of research studies that have shown that scores on the assessment are: meaningfully related to other similar measures; can predict variance in other theoretically related variables (e.g., the quality of interpersonal relationships); can distinguish between groups (e.g., leaders who may be more prone to emotional outbursts); and are sufficiently distinct from measures of other constructs (e.g., sufficiently distinct from measures of personality).

Staunch critics of the area argue that these properties still need to be substantiated for most if not all measures of EI (Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2004). There are hundreds of EI measures on the market that do not meet these standards, some offered by seemingly reputable companies at considerable cost. Unpublished research findings described in technique manuals or so-called company 'white papers' do not suffice as evidence of these properties. The findings of research on the psychometric properties of an instrument should be subject to scientific peer review and published in peer-reviewed journals. Practitioners should be aware of claims on internet sites (e.g., "...extensively researched, norm-tested and statistically reliable"), and ask for copies of peer-reviewed research articles that back up such claims. Peer-reviewed criterion-related validity studies showing evidence that the measure of EI can predict theoretically related criteria (e.g., leadership effectiveness) over and above other widely used constructs such as personality assessments (e.g., Palmer, Gardner & Stough, 2003a) could be considered the gold standard. Most of the well known measures of EI have substantiated psychometric properties published in peer-reviewed journals, albeit to varying degrees (e.g. the Bar-On EQ-I, Bar-On, 1997; MSCEIT, Mayer et al., 2003; ECI, Boyatzis et al., 2000; Genos EI Assessment Scales, Palmer & Stough, 2006; EIQ-Managerial, Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000). Here the amount and meaningfulness of the published research findings, particularly those involving workplace samples and outcome variables, can be used to differentiate. Collectively these well-known measures offer various approaches to the measurement of EI. As such a set 'practical-use' criteria may also be useful in helping to determine which approach may best suit the intended application.

Practical criteria: Applying EI in recruitment and selection

If implemented in the right way, current research findings suggest EI may add significantly to the prediction of successful candidates. To put this statement in perspective consider that a large number of research studies on intelligence (IQ) suggest that on average IQ predicts between 20-25% of the variance in workplace performance (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). Similarly, research studies suggest personality predicts between 10-15% of the variance in workplace performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991), albeit this figure varies depending on the job function (Hogan, 2005). Research on EI suggests that EI can predict between 36-12% of the variance in workplace performance variables depending on the outcome variable measured (Palmer, Gardner & Stough, 2003b). However, current measures of EI have not been designed to be utilised in recruitment and selection. As such, particular care is needed when using measures of EI in this context.

Prior to selecting a measure of EI to utilise, a thorough job analysis of the work role and its various functions should be performed. This will help a-prior, in selecting the measure of EI to utilise. Irrespective of the measurement type used (i.e., Performance, Self-Report or Behavioural), at face value the measure of EI should appear to assess abilities, traits or behaviours aligned to functions of the role. Existing research findings suggest EI may add significantly to the prediction of successful candidates in roles that require finely tuned intra-and-interpersonal skills such as leadership, customer service, and sales roles. A thorough job analysis will also help in determining potential weightings to place on other assessment mediums being utilised (e.g., IQ, personality, interview and role-play simulation results). In recruitment and selection the results of EI assessments should never be utilised in isolation; rather they should be used in conjunction with other findings. It is recommended that a behavioural interview and role play simulation specifically on EI be utilised in conjunction with EI assessment results and other measures (IQ, personality, motivation fit etc).

The EI assessment should provide insight into the candidates: underlying EI ability and knowledge (if a Performance-type measure is used); emotion-related traits and level of emotional self-efficacy (if a trait-type measure is used); and how often they may display emotionally intelligent behaviours (if a Behavioural-type measure is used). An EI behavioural interview should provide insight into what experience the candidate has had in applying their EI in previous roles. Similarly, the EI-based role play simulation (if designed properly), should provide insight into how the candidate may apply their EI in a function of the role being recruited for. The findings from these three assessments (underlying level

of EI; previous experience in applying it at work; potential success in applying it in the role) should be aggregated to provide an overall result. This overall result should then be blended with other assessment findings (IQ, personality etc).

Different types of EI measures each offer potentially different insights on candidates applying for the role (i.e., emotional abilities, preferences and styles, and behaviour). As such a best practice approach may be to apply a measure of all three. However, given that other psychological measures should also be used along with interview and simulation data this luxury may seldom exist. As such the following practical criteria may serve as a guide in selecting one approach over the other:

- **Face validity.** The EI measure that has the most apparent overlap with the variables it assesses and the attributes required to perform the role successfully may be the best suited (if the measure meets the academic criteria aforementioned). In addition, measures of EI that measure a broad number of variables associated with emotions may offer more insightful data. However, the greater the number of variables measured the more complex interpretation can become. Measures of EI that measure a small number of core emotional intelligence variables may be easiest to interpret and align with role competency models.
- **Costs.** Obviously the lower the cost the better particularly where large numbers of candidates are being assessed.
- **Time to complete.** Short well-validated measures of EI may offer the best utility in recruitment and selection given that a battery of other measures should also be utilised.
- **Ease of use.** Online assessments are typically the most utilised medium in recruitment and selection as results are typically computer generated reducing costs and time associated with scoring and interpretation. Many of the more established measures of EI have on-line administration systems. However, they vary in complexity and ease of use.
- **Interpretation reports.** Reports that are easy to interpret and allow for quick candidate comparisons may be of most value. Also those that can integrate with other systems to report findings against other assessment results may be particularly useful.
- **Support products and services.** A measure that has well established support products and services may be particularly useful. For example, accreditation programmes on how to use the measure in recruitment and selection; behavioural interview guides and interpretation dictionaries; role-play based simulation scripts and scoring templates; and peer support networks.

Finally, although the different types of EI measures may each offer different insights (i.e., emotional abilities, preferences and styles, and behaviour) there are a number of

considerations that should be taken into account when using them in recruitment and selection.

Performance-based measures of EI in recruitment and selection

Performance based measures of EI (e.g., MSCEIT, Mayer et al., 2003), typically comprise a number of items for which there are more and less correct answers providing insight into candidates' underlying level of emotional ability and knowledge. These assessments do not rely on candidates self-reporting their emotional traits or behaviours. As a result performance measures of EI may be much less susceptible to so-called "faking good" where candidates choose seemingly more desirable responses rather than responses that truly reflect themselves. However, with the exception of measuring an individual's ability to perceive emotions in others, existing performance measures an index of an individual's understanding of emotions and emotional knowledge rather than their ability to apply emotional intelligence—for example, an individual's knowledge that more and more anger can lead to rage, or which emotional management technique may best solve a conflict situation. The issue here is that some individuals may have a high level of knowledge but not know or have any experience in applying that knowledge in real life. For example, knowledge and theory on how to effectively motivate subordinates does not necessarily mean that one knows how to effectively do so.

Assessment centre research by Development Dimensions International found a clear disconnect between individuals emotional knowledge and how they applied that knowledge in role-play based simulations defining five distinct categories (Tatton, 2005).

1. **The Emotionally Intelligent**, those that had high levels of emotional knowledge and demonstrated effective use of that knowledge in the role play.
2. **The Emotionally Intuitive**, those that had low levels of emotional knowledge yet effectively applied EI in the role play (e.g., demonstrated sensitivity to interpersonal cues and positive interpersonal behaviours).
3. **The Emotionally Negligent**, those that had high levels of emotional knowledge yet could not effectively apply that knowledge in the role play (e.g. missed others emotional cues). Interestingly, on reflection these people were able to discuss what they should have done or what would have been a better approach in the role play.
4. **The Emotionally Manipulative**, those that had high levels of emotional knowledge and chose to use it in a nefarious way in the role play (e.g., lowering others' self-esteem to enhance their own position or dismissing others feelings so as not to validate them).
5. **The Emotionally Unintelligent**, those that had low levels of emotional knowledge and did not demonstrate effective use of EI in the role play (e.g., missed others emotional cues etc).

This issue (and the associated categories) may be detected in behavioural interviews and role play simulations and point to the importance of including the results from these other assessment mediums in recruitment and selection. Indeed, where there is an opportunity for candidates to fake good on self-reports this performance based approach coupled with EI behavioural interviews and role-play simulations may be the best approach to measuring EI. This may particularly be the case in the recruitment and selection of external candidates. However, 360-degree behavioural measures of EI may offer a better approach in the selection of internal candidates and there are several techniques that can be applied to limited faking good in recruitment and selection. The use of self-report and behavioural measures of EI in recruitment and selection should not be overlooked, just more carefully considered.

Self-report trait and 360-degree behavioural measures of EI in recruitment and selection

Irrefutably self-report measures of EI can be faked good in recruitment and selection. Some self-report measures of EI have attempted to circumvent this issue by placing social desirability measures (i.e., lie detector questions such as “I have never told a lie”), and consistency indexes (that report on how consistently someone has responded to the questions of the assessment) within the EI measure. Here scores on the assessment are either: a) reduced if social desirability scores are high; or b) a social desirability score and consistency score is provided and if high, a word of caution in interpreting scores is presented in the report. There are several issues with this method of circumventing faking good. Firstly, those who fake good on self-report measures are typically seasoned test-takers. They are often aware of social desirability questions, how to fake them and how to consistently answer to assessment questions. Secondly, it could be argued that the emotionally intelligent person may in-fact be socially desirable (as originally described by Salovey & Mayer, 1990), and innocently reduce their chances by responding in a socially desirable fashion. As such it could be argued that these methods offer little utility in overcoming the issue of faking good in recruitment and selection. Indeed at the time of writing there were no published studies on the incremental validity these indices provide. There may be other methods of reducing the opportunity for candidates to fake good on self-report measures of EI which may include:

- Completing the test under supervision and within a set time period. This may stop so-called “phone-a-friend” or candidates looking up the meaning of EI and completing free on-line assessments a-prior.
- Not informing the candidate of what “type” of assessments they will be completing prior to doing so. Rather, more generally telling them they will be completing a set of behavioural-based measures. This may stop people from getting on the internet and becoming “informed” test takers.

- Informing the candidate that it is in their best interest to be as honest as possible about themselves because faking good will limit their chances and they will be interviewed and have to complete role-play based simulations on the basis of their results.

These techniques in combination with behavioural interviews and role-play based simulations may help reduce the opportunity for candidates to fake good and increase the validity of overall assessment results. Research on the efficacy of such approaches is needed. A final criticism of self-report measures of EI is that they rely on the individual’s self-perception of their emotional preferences and styles and that people (particularly with low EI) may not have enough self-insight to accurately report as such. This is a particularly naive criticism that has failed to take into account what is actually being measured. Self-report instruments are not a measure of accuracy, that is, a measure of how accurately one can report on their EI. In contrast they are a measure of an individual’s beliefs about their emotional preferences and styles. It is this very variable that predicts important workplace outcomes. An analogy would be to say that asking employees to rate their level of job satisfaction provides no insight into staff morale. Organisations around the world use staff satisfaction and engagement surveys because staff satisfaction and engagement predict levels of productivity and organisational performance.

Behavioural 360-degree measures of EI provide insight into the frequency with which people display emotionally intelligent behaviour (e.g., Genos EI Assessment Scale, Palmer & Stough, 2006). Behavioural measures that comprise emotionally intelligent workplace behaviours (e.g., “demonstrates an understanding of colleagues’ feelings at work”) may offer greater face and predictive validity than those that do not measure workplace specific behaviour. This notion needs to be assessed in research. Informant rated or 360-degree measures of EI typically require a manager, peers and others e.g., direct reports or clients to rate how often they observe the person they are rating (the candidate) to demonstrate the behaviours in the questions. This can be difficult to achieve in recruitment and selection particularly with external candidates who may not want to inform their existing employer that they are looking for other work or with candidates who have not been in contact with their previous employer for sometime. However, this approach may be useful in internal recruitment, promotion and talent identification initiatives (e.g., succession management) where there is greater access to raters. When used in this context a candidate’s raters need to be selected carefully as raters can fake good on these assessments as with self-reports. However, when selected carefully 360-degree behavioural measures of EI can circumvent faking good issues and offer a viable alternative. Furthermore, 360-degree behavioural measures of EI may also circumvent many of the issues discussed with performance based assessments providing insight into how a candidate has applied their EI in the workplace.

Practical criteria: Applying EI in development initiatives

Irrespective of which measurement approach is utilised, the central purpose of using an EI assessment in a development programme is to provide participants (and the practitioners assisting them), with insight into current levels of functioning and how that is related to the outcome the business or individual is trying to achieve (e.g., more effective leadership). If showing a return on investment (either to the individual, group or organisation) is also important, a post programme assessment should also be used. Indeed best practice programmes on EI development typically comprise the follow core elements:

1. A properly branded programme that is linked to either a business strategy or objective, or the findings of a thorough needs analysis
2. Comprise clear goals, roles and responsibilities
3. Strong internal sponsorship and explicit involvement by senior executives
4. Pre and post measures of both EI and the desired outcomes of the programme (e.g., leadership)
5. Minimal competing learning initiatives
6. Candidates who are open to and willing to learn and be involved (where there is an absence of this, part of the programme design should be to achieve this prior to full implementation of the EI development initiative).

As in recruitment and selection, different approaches to the measurement of EI offer additive or alternative utilities in development initiatives. Where one approach needs to be taken over another, as a very first step, the practitioner should decide which type of EI insight is most needed (e.g., emotional knowledge, insight into emotional preferences and styles, or insight into the demonstration of emotionally intelligent behaviour). Drawing on the five types of individuals identified by Tatton (1995), the following may be offered as a guide.

1. **The Emotionally Intelligent** may benefit most from a 360-degree behavioural based measure providing insight into demonstrated behaviours as this may assist them in providing a role model for others.
2. **The Emotionally Intuitive** may benefit most from a performance based measure providing insight into emotional knowledge that underpins the effective behaviours they intuitively display. A greater appreciation of the 'how and why' may help shape their behaviour to be even more effective.
3. **The Emotionally Negligent** may benefit most from a 360-degree behavioural based measure. This type of measure would provide insight into the differences between their level of understanding and observed behaviour, and which EI behaviours specifically need to be displayed more frequently.
4. **The Emotionally Manipulative** may benefit most from a trait based measure of EI coupled with a 360-degree behavioural measure. Aimed at attitudinal

change, the trait measure would provide insight into current preferences and styles associated with emotions. The behavioural measure that would provide insight into the fact that the behaviours they display are not aligned with emotionally intelligent workplace behaviours.

5. **The Emotionally Unintelligent** may benefit most from a performance based measure coupled with a 360-degree behavioural measure. This would provide a good blend of theory and behavioural based learning to facilitate positive behavioural change.

In consideration of Tatton's (2005) types, more often than not a 360-degree behavioural measure of EI may offer the best utility in development initiatives. Indeed Tatton's research findings suggest most managers fall in the Emotionally Negligent category. There are a number of 360-degree behavioural measures of EI to choose from and some meet the academic criteria outlined in this article. There are a smaller number that have been designed specifically for use in the workplace (e.g. ECI, Boyatzis et al., 2000; and the Genos EI Assessment Scale, Palmer & Stough, 2006). These measure workplace specific emotionally intelligent behaviours and interpret the results in the context of workplace performance. They may also offer greater face validity that can be particularly important in development initiatives helping participants more clearly conceptualise the link between the assessment and the outcomes of the programme. There are a number of other criteria that may also assist in deciding on an EI measurement tool for development initiatives. These include:

- Number of EI variables assessed. The more variables an EI model measures the harder it becomes for participants to grasp, remember and interpret. Simpler models of EI that comprise a small number of variables may be more useful in development initiatives than larger more assertoric models. They may also be easier to workshop and link to business strategies and objectives. The magic number 7 (+/-2), referring to the amount of information people can typically recall (as evidenced by the seminal work of Miller, 1956) may be a good guide as to how many variables a useful model may comprise.
- Time. Assessments that take large amounts of time to complete can annoy and frustrate those involved in development programmes. This is particularly important when 360-degree measures are used as raters may have to provide ratings for several colleagues.
- Feedback reports. The quality of feedback reports can greatly enhance the efficacy of development programmes. Lengthy feedback reports with difficult to interpret scoring and graphs can dilute the focus and result in reports being put in the 'to do later tray'.

- Ease of use, costs, face validity and support products and services as previously described.

Conclusion

In summary, EI is an important attribute at work as emotions are inherent part of workplace activities at all levels, from dealing with a disgruntled customer to enhancing an organisational culture. Well validated measures of EI can offer insight into this 'always known' but until now unassessed area of intra-and-interpersonal functioning. While a growing body of EI measures are meeting strict academic and practical criteria for every one that has, there must be 10 or more that do not. I hope this article provides a stimulus for research and a guide for practitioners on how to choose an approach to the assessment and application of EI in the workplace.

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Genos is proud to be a contributor to this special *Organisations and People* journal on Applications of EI in the Workplace.

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The Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace



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The 'ability' approach is the most recent model of emotional intelligence consists of four related abilities that work together as a process or an approach to decision-making, judgement, and leadership. It focuses on the intersection of emotions with intelligence and how emotions influence intelligent decision-making, and how intelligence informs emotions. The identification, utilisation, understanding, and management of emotions is described together with an explanation of the Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), its importance, use, and effectiveness in an organisational setting. It is concluded that, although the model will not predict the majority of the variance in workplace outcomes, it does add a new explanatory dimension to certain outcomes and behaviours.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, ability model, workplace application

Ability model of Emotional Intelligence

Peter Salovey and Jack Mayer proposed the existence of an emotional intelligence in 1990 (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Over the intervening years, the approach has been modified as we've learned more about this ability (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999). The most recent model of emotional intelligence consists of four related abilities that work together as a process or an approach to decision-making, judgment, and leadership. The four abilities are: 1) the ability to accurately perceive emotions, 2) the ability to generate emotions and use them to influence thinking, 3) the ability to understand the rules emotions follow, and 4) the ability to manage with emotions to include emotions in our thinking and behaviour. Mayer and Salovey listed a number of components for each of these four abilities (see Table 1). In addition, they suggested that the abilities developed sequentially, starting with the development of basic emotion perception and culminating in the development of ways to manage emotions.

This approach to EI is sometimes referred to as the 'ability' approach or model in order to differentiate it from

approaches to EI we term 'mixed' models. Mixed models mix various skills and personality traits which are joined together. Such mixed models may include classic personality traits such as assertiveness, self-regard, and optimism. The ability model focuses on the intersection of emotions with intelligence and how emotions influence intelligent decision making and how intelligence informs emotions. Next, we examine each of these four emotional abilities in more detail.

Identifying Emotions. This first EI ability is the ability to accurately attend to emotions in yourself, in other people, and in the world around you. Paying attention to emotions is critical, but it's not enough. The model begins with self-awareness and emotional awareness in general, but we stress the *accuracy* of judgment and perception.

Utilising Emotions. The second ability is being able to create a certain feeling or emotion and to use that emotion to help your thinking process.

Understanding Emotions. Emotions have rules, just like the pieces of a chessboard. Another aspect of understanding emotions is the language of emotion. This ability also involves having a complex emotional vocabulary so that you can better understand and describe emotions.

Emotional Identification and Expression

Ability to identify emotion in one's physical and psychological states.
 Ability to identify emotion in other people.
 Ability to express emotions accurately and to express needs related to them.
 Ability to discriminate between accurate/honest and inaccurate/dishonest feelings.

Emotional Facilitation of Thought (Using Emotions)

Ability to redirect and prioritise thinking on the basis of associated feelings.
 Ability to generate emotions to facilitate judgment and memory.
 Ability to capitalise on mood changes to appreciate multiple points of view.
 Ability to use emotional states to facilitate problem-solving and creativity.

Emotional Understanding

Ability to understand relationships among various emotions.
 Ability to perceive the causes and consequences of emotions.
 Ability to understand complex feelings, emotional blends, and contradictory states.
 Ability to understand transitions among emotions.

Emotional Management

Ability to be open to feelings, both pleasant and unpleasant.
 Ability to monitor and reflect on emotions.
 Ability to engage, prolong, or detach from an emotional state.
 Ability to manage emotions in oneself.
 Ability to manage emotions in others.

Table 1: The Four Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence (after Mayer & Salovey, 1997)

Managing Emotions. Since emotions contain data, to ignore them means that we are ignoring important information. This ability allows us to stay open to our emotions, no matter how uncomfortable they may be. But it also allows us to process the emotions and to leverage their information and their power to help us make better decisions and follow a wiser course of action.

While Mayer and Salovey did not originally intend to apply their model in a sequential manner, a process model of emotion-based problem solving called the Emotional Blueprint has been developed based upon their work. First, people *Identify* how they, and those around them feel. Second, these emotions influence the way we think and what we think about, so we ask how we can best *Use* these emotions to help us think. Third, we actively try to *Understand* why we feel this way and how these emotions might change based on various actions. Finally, we *Manage* our emotions so that we don't simply react out of fear or

anger, but instead stay open to the emotions and let them guide us toward taking effective actions.

Measuring Emotional Intelligence

When people are asked to estimate their cognitive ability or analytical intelligence, their answers are typically unrelated to ability measures of intelligence. That is, people are not good at estimating their cognitive abilities. The same is true of emotional intelligence: self-report measures of EI, or self-estimates of EI, do not correlate highly with actual measured EI (see Brackett, et al., in press). While it is interesting and valuable to understand people's self-concept with respect to abilities such as EI, it is also of value to be able to measure their actual abilities. The Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is an ability-based measure of the construct. It is based on the four-branch (Mayer & Salovey, 1993; 1997) hierarchical model of emotional intelligence with perceiving or identifying emotions at the base followed by using emotions, understanding emotions, and finally, managing emotions. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso have constructed a series of scales to measure emotional intelligence (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990; Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002), of which, the MSCEIT is the most recent. The MSCEIT is comprised of eight tasks, two for each of the four abilities. Each is based on research and theory in the area of emotion (e.g., Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Isen, 2001; Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988; Thayer, 1966). Tasks on the MSCEIT include selecting emotions in faces and pictures; identifying emotions that would best facilitate a type of thinking or decision making (such as planning a birthday party); and presenting participants with a hypothetical scenario involving an emotionally laden event with a friend, and asking how they could behave to achieve a desired outcome (e.g., make their friend feel better). Next, we'll describe the eight MSCEIT in more detail.

Faces Task: In this task, the test taker views four faces and indicates how *likely* it is that each emotion listed is present in a photograph of a person's face.

Pictures Task: This task presents test takers with six designs or photos of an outdoor scene and asks them to identify the emotions that are conveyed.

Sensations Task: In this task people indicate how various emotions *feel* by identifying and describing the direction and degree of various physical sensations or feelings that accompany that emotion. (For example, "Does *happiness* feel warm, cold, sharp, or soft?")

Facilitation Task: This set of questions measures the ability to determine how different moods impact thinking and decision making. Test takers indicate how effective different emotions are in helping to solve a specific problem. (For example, "How helpful are *each* of the following moods when you are making plans for a picnic: a) happiness; b) frustration; c) surprise; d) fear".)

Changes Task: This task measures the ability to understand how emotions change and alter over time. These test items are multiple-choice questions. (For example, "When

anger intensifies, it turns into: a) rage; b) frustration; c) sadness; d) joy.”)

Blends Task: This multiple-choice section taps knowledge of complex emotions people may experience. (For example, “Optimism is a combination of: a) happiness and anticipation; b) fear and sadness; c) happiness and joy; d) sadness and happiness.”)

Emotion Management Task: This task presents test takers with a hypothetical situation involving a personal emotional situation (an intra-personal, or emotion self-management situation). The test taker indicates the effectiveness of various emotional strategies in achieving a specific outcome. (For example, “Debbie returned from vacation feeling happy and content. How effective would each of the following actions be in maintaining this mood? a) start to think about her next, fun vacation; b) review her monthly expenses; c) unpack and do the laundry.”)

Emotional Relationships Task: Emotional Relationships tests the ability to get to a certain emotional outcome in inter-personal situations (involving two or more people). Effective strategies are those that result in the desired outcome, for both individuals. (For example, “Jane was asked to lead a new project team that Joe wanted to be in charge of. How effective would each of the following actions be in getting Joe to cooperate with Jill: a) Jill recognises Joe’s feelings but requests his help; b) Jill threatens to fire Joe if he does not help the team; c) Jill points out Joe’s many weaknesses to the team.”)

The importance of Emotional Intelligence

EI measured as a trait shows minimal discriminant validity above and beyond traditional personality variables (Austin, Saklofske, Huang, & McKenney, 2004; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998). EI as an ability, controlling for IQ and Big Five traits, has some predictive validity. Ability EI appears to be predictive of the quality of interpersonal relationships and inversely to the frequency of negative behaviours. However, it is critical to note that EI does not predict large amounts of variance in performance. Such claims are based on reports in the popular press, or based on ‘EQ’ measures that resemble traditional personality inventories. EI, conceptualised and measured as an ability, will predict some outcomes at levels normally found in psychological research. We next examine some of these areas.

ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

While several studies have found significant links between EI and academic performance as measured by grades in school, after one removes IQ from the equation, EI has, at most, a modest relationship with grades (Barchard, 2001; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Lam & Kirby, 2002). However, a very recent study among middle-school students has shown that academic performance was significantly enhanced in a group of students receiving training on

emotional literacy over the course of a school term (Brackett, Rivers & Salovey, 2007).

Another study examined the performance of students in a field where emotions are quite salient: clinical and school psychology. Boone and DiGiuseppe (2002) studied 90 graduate students in these areas and found that they scored above average in EI compared to the standardisation sample. More importantly, after controlling for demographic and academic variables, MSCEIT scores were still positively related to both GPA and year in the programme.

NEGATIVE BEHAVIOUR

Behaviours such as bullying, aggression, and drug use have been consistently shown to be negatively associated with EI (Rubin, 1999; Trinidad & Johnson, 2002). These studies not only found significant EI-behaviour links, but the relationships were still significant even after the impact of general intelligence and personality traits were investigated. For example, Rubin found that student-rated aggressive behaviour correlated about .45 with EI.

College students completed a life-space survey regarding hundreds of behaviours they engaged in, and the frequency of engaging in those behaviours. Behaviours such as physical fights and vandalism were significantly related to EI (negatively), and this relationship remained significant even after accounting for both IQ and personality traits (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2003).

POSITIVE BEHAVIOUR

While EI may provide psychological resources to limit fighting and aggression, does it promote pro-social behaviour? Evidence gathered to date suggests that it does so. Higher EI scores are related to the quality of relationships with friends (Lopes Salovey, Cote and Beers, 2005). This same paper included a study in Germany among college students. Higher EI students were more well-liked by others, especially by members of the opposite sex. Again, these relationships with EI held even after the influence of the Big Five traits were partialled out.

WORK OUTCOMES

EI does not have robust effects when it comes to performance in organisations. This may surprise some readers who accept at face value that EQ is a panacea for all problems, but it makes some sense. The first issue is one of selection: we have found that those higher in EI express slightly greater preference for helping careers over business careers (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2002). Anecdotally, our

coaching work finds that many senior leaders score low on the MSCEIT. However, we were able to obtain two unpublished datasets for MBA students, one from a US-based business school and one from a business school located in the UK. A group of 60 MBA students in the US had an average total MSCEIT score of 92, which is more than a half standard deviation below the mean. Scores for the 308 UK-based MBA student were higher, with a few branch scores actually above the mean for the normative sample. We are not sure what to make of these national differences—they are not terribly large as noted in Table 2, but they could be the result of how students are selected for such programs, or due to other cultural differences between the US and the UK.

MSCEIT Score	US	UK
Total	92	98
Identify	93	96
Use	92	101
Understand	95	104
Manage	94	95

Table 2: Average MSCEIT scores for US and UK MBA students

But EI does have some predictive validity for some positions, and for some outcomes. For example, Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) found performance ratings of managers in the Australian Tax Office to be related to EI only for certain outcomes: those that examined *how* a manager achieved results, but not *what* was achieved. In other words, making a sales quota, meeting certain guidelines were unrelated to EI. But, measures of communication, sharing of vision and satisfaction were related to EI.

Likewise, in a lab experiment, individuals higher in EI wrote better-quality vision statements. Again, this result remained significant after controlling for the Big Five personality traits (Coté, Lopes, & Salovey, in preparation).

The key is that EI should only predict those work outcomes that focus on long-term quality of interpersonal communications, conflicts and relationships. EI may not be a robust predictor of work outcomes such as sales performance, rank, years of experience.

The applications of Emotional Intelligence

There are a number of valuable ways to apply the ability model of EI in the workplace. Some employ assessment and others involve skills training without the use of assessment. Applications include:

- Selection and Promotion.
- Career Development.
- Executive Coaching and Leadership Development.
- Counselling and Therapy.
- Training and Development.

We next provide some examples of some of these applications.

Career development

We use the MSCEIT as part of a career development test battery which includes interest, values, style, and personality tests. The MSCEIT is not meant to replace these other measures, but to enhance the understanding of a client's skill set.

Typical interest inventories include skill self-ratings. Given that self-ratings of skills and abilities aren't always accurate, the MSCEIT offers the career counsellor an objective means of gauging a client's 'people knowledge and skills'. Those clients considering a service-oriented, or helping, career, may be well-served by higher MSCEIT scores.

One example of the utility of this approach is illustrated by Jean, a career development client. Jean was a 56 year old human resources (HR) manager who took a battery of assessments as part of an outplacement program. She was extremely confident in her skills and noted that she could teach, re-enter the corporate world, become an executive coach, or switch areas to leadership development. Jean's MSCEIT scores, reported on a scale with five levels of performance, were as follows:

MSCEIT Score	Low					High				
Total										
Identifying										
Using										
Understanding										
Managing										

Jean could speak the language of emotional development and growth. However, it was clear in her interactions with her counsellor that she was somewhat 'off' and frequently miss-read others. Jean also had difficulty connecting with people.

What the MSCEIT results added to Jean's career development picture was a suggestion that her self-perception regarding her emotional skills may not be accurate. Career options that involved the need to read others, see their perspective and manage difficult, highly-charged situations did not seem realistic for Jean.

Through career exploration activities, Jean was directed toward an HR administrative role that would better suit her profile. Some of these activities were driven by the Emotional Blueprint. The Blueprint for career development issues works something like this:

Identify: does the client pick up on subtle cues when interviewing?

Use: can a client establish rapport with others? Are they able to generate alternative plans and ideas?

Understand: can the client project how they will feel about a specific job, and predict their emotional reactions as the job search process unfolds?

Manage: will the client make a decision that considers all of the facts, no matter how uncomfortable they may be?

Using the MSCEIT in executive coaching

The MSCEIT provides a unique look at a person's management and leadership skills. While most senior executives find management assessment to be of interest and value, they are often not surprised by their assessment results. Certainly, the results are useful, but the MSCEIT consistently provides information of a *different* sort. In fact, when we get to their MSCEIT results, it is common for the client to say something like "That was the test that was a little different. What was that all about?"

The MSCEIT, like all tests, can help you to develop questions, or hypotheses, about a client. Again, leveraging the idea of the Emotional Blueprint, each of the four, key MSCEIT scores can generate discussion around key coaching objectives:

Ability	Questions to ask
Identifying	Does the person "read" others well?
Using	Do they emotionally connect?
Understanding	Do they perform adequate what-if analyses regarding people?
Managing	Are they effective interpersonal decision makers?

In addition, executives readily understand, and can apply, their MSCEIT results in a broad fashion through the use of the Emotional Blueprint. We used the MSCEIT, and the ability model, with an executive coaching client a few years ago.

Jerry was an operations manager for a major Wall Street firm. He was asked to re-locate most of his staff from New York City (NYC) to a new building across the river in New Jersey, about a 10 minute ferry ride away. Most of his staff lived in New Jersey and welcomed the move. Jerry, and a few of his staff, were remaining in NYC.

The move itself went well, but there arose a number of unusual personnel problems in the following weeks. The problems consisted mainly of complaints at first. Jerry patiently listened to these complaints, addressed them, and understood their cause. As each problem was addressed, and resolved, a new one appeared. The problems increased in frequency, and began to have a noticeable impact on the group's productivity. At this point, Jerry was referred for executive coaching to help him resolve these issues.

Jerry's MSCEIT scores were as follows:

MSCEIT Score	Low					High				
Total										
Identifying										
Using										
Understanding										
Managing										

In Jerry's case, the results of the MSCEIT provided a confirmation and clarification of the issues involved in his leadership at that point in time. Jerry's scores on the Identifying and Understanding subscales were superb. That was no surprise: Jerry was excellent at Identifying how his staff felt about the move. He understood *why* his staff felt a loss, and how these feelings were changing (Understanding Emotion).

However, while Jerry was aware of, and understood, the issues, he was not integrating this emotional information into his decision making. He did not engage with these emotions, but instead blocked them out and relegated them to a lesser standing in his thought process. Jerry addressed each concrete problem, but not the *real*, underlying emotion-based problem: the sense that the team had been split apart, and cut-off from Jerry.

The MSCEIT results, as well as the ability model, provided Jerry with both the insight and the process by which he could enhance his leadership style. Jerry was able to stay open to uncomfortable feelings, and to address the underlying, emotional employee issues. He involved staff members in all meetings so that they felt connected to the larger group, rotated the location of the weekly meetings between the two offices, visited the New Jersey location on a regular basis and even overtly discussed the "real" issue with some of his staff. Jerry brought the group back on track, and their performance returned to the previously-high level.

Conclusions

The ability model of EI can be a useful model for discussing the role of emotions in the workplace, for measuring a set of emotional skills, and for applying an emotion-based problem-solving model in a number of constructive ways. This approach to EI will not predict the majority of the variance in workplace outcomes, but it does add a new explanatory dimension to certain outcomes and behaviours.

The emotionally-intelligent manager is likely not going to be a master of the universe type of rainmaker, nor is she guaranteed to rise through the ranks to become chairwoman. But such a manager will have the tools necessary to create and share a meaningful vision, to establish and to maintain meaningful relationships and to constructively resolve critical conflicts.

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Assessing the Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Personality Traits: Implications for Development



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The concept “emotional intelligence” (EI) resonates in the business world (Domagalski, 1999), and many authors have called for more research that clearly conceptualises it (Sala, 2002; Becker, 2003, Day and Carroll, 2004). Within the controversy of defining EI, the behavioural approach, defining and measuring EI in terms of competences, has not received much attention. In response to a typical criticism, this measure of EI was assessed against a personality measure. Results suggest that the personality traits measured by the NEO-FFI and EI competences are not the same. The aim of the present study is threefold: (1) to offer a description of an EI-based intervention in medium-sized Spanish organisational settings; (2) to point out that emotional and social competences as measured by the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI-2) are different from personality traits (biologically rooted), and therefore competences may be trained and developed; and finally (3) to discuss the implications for practitioners. Data come from two medium-sized Spanish public-sector organisations (n=118).

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, competences, discriminant validity, personality.

Introduction

The concept “emotional intelligence” (EI) resonates in the business world (Domagalski, 1999), and many authors have called for more research that clearly conceptualises it (Sala, 2002; Becker, 2003, Day and Carroll, 2004). EI is a field full of controversy, and the interest of the concept has attracted a wide range of theorists and practitioners.

Several models have emerged in an attempt to study emotional intelligence in a scientific way. This paper will focus on the behavioural approach to emotional intelligence within organisational settings. If manifest and behavioural patterns are relevant, a framework related to performance is not only desirable, but necessary. This is why the model of Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) is the theoretical base used to frame the present research. The model adopted reflects on how an individual expresses emotions, and is linked to emotional competences. A competence is an ‘underlying characteristic of the person that leads to or causes effective or superior performance’ (Boyatzis, 1982), that is based on a set of related but different behaviours organised around it (Boyatzis and Sala,

2004). Figure 1 shows the theoretical model proposed by Goleman et al., 2002.



Figure 1: Theoretical model of competences.
Source: Goleman et al. (2002)

The aim of the present study is threefold: First, the paper focuses on the description of an EI-based intervention in two Spanish organisational settings. Second, it examines the relationship of emotional intelligence and personality. This is a crucial issue because, as stated, if EI can be largely predicted from other well-known constructs, its uniqueness and expected incremental utility for predicting human performance in organisations may be limited. Third, the implications for practitioners will be commented on, as the behavioural model of EI competences holds promise for its use in coaching, mentoring and development programmes.

The debate: Emotional Intelligence versus Personality

Some authors have claimed that the trait EI is not much more than personality (Davies, Stankov and Roberts, 1998; Schulte, Ree and Caretta, 2003). Others have claimed that EI can be distinguished from personality dimensions, but is definitively associated with them (Petrides and Furnham, 2000, 2001; Van der Zee, 2002; Saklofske, Austin and Minski, 2003; Dawda and Hart, 2000; Gannon and Ranzijn, 2005; Boyatzis and Sala, 2004). Finally, there are studies that have reached the conclusion that EI is not only distinct from personality dimensions, but only poorly related to them (e.g. Schutte et al. 2004). In the midst of this confusion, many authors have claimed for examining the EI discriminant validity with personality dimensions (e.g. Schulte et al., 2004, Petrides and Furnham, 2001).

"In broad terms there is an emerging consensus that emotional intelligence can be developed, but there are differing views on the extent of development possible" (Higgs and Dulewicz, 2003), but doubts about discriminant validity of EI and biologically rooted personality traits should be dispelled. We hypothesised that the correlations between the ECI-2, a self-report and informants measure of EI, and the Spanish version of the NEO (provided by TEA Ediciones) will be low.

Methods

PARTICIPANTS

The population on which the research is focused is formed by 118 managers and non-managers within two medium-sized Spanish companies. For reasons of convenience and practicality, this research is framed as a population study in which all the tenured employees of the three organisations were invited to participate. The two companies are public institutions that share a common vision, objectives and structural dimensions. 107 participants reported gender (69 women and 38 men) and 48 reported age (mean: 36.47; SD: 8.55).

THE MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

THE EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE INVENTORY (ECI-2)

The ECI-2 is a 360 instrument, a self-report and informants measure that assesses how the person expresses their handling of emotions in life and work settings (Boyatzis and Sala, 2004). The ECI-2 version of the questionnaire has 72 items with response categories based on frequency of demonstration or observation. An optional answer of 'I don't know' or 'I have not had the opportunity to observe the person in an appropriate setting' is read into the data as blank. Each item is on a scale of 1 to 5. The test specifies eighteen competences which are grouped into four theoretical clusters (see Figure 1).

The original ECI-2 is in English, but the present study used a Spanish-language version based on the translation provided by HayGroup.

"BIG FIVE" PERSONALITY MEASURE

Personality was measured with the NEO-FFI, a shortened version of the Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R). This provides a quick and general measure of the five domains of adult personality: Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Each domain is constituted by 12 items. The 60 items are rated on a 5-point scale and the test requires 10-15 minutes to complete. The Spanish version of the NEO-FFI is provided by Ediciones TEA.

DATA COLLECTION AND PROCEDURE

This study was conducted as part of a consultancy and research project on emotional competences within two Spanish organisational settings. The intervention programme within the companies was based on the self-directed learning theory (Boyatzis, 2002; Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee, 2000) and is constituted by four major stages: (1) competence assessment through the ECI-2 questionnaire; (2) a training programme that includes two sessions that offer participants a general overview on conceptual, operational and developmental issues within the emotional competences model by Boyatzis and Goleman; (3) individualised feedback and coaching sessions in order to identify learning objectives and/or improvement areas for a one-year period, and (4) follow-up of the process (see Figure 2).

We will explain briefly the consultancy stages in which the organisations that took part in the research were immersed.

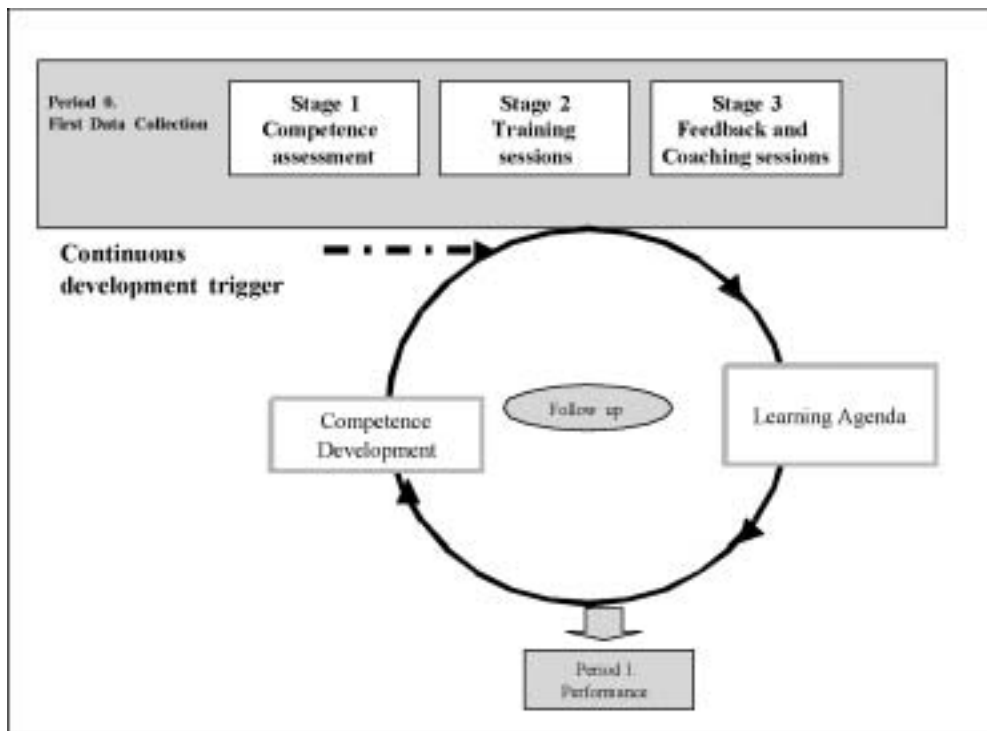


Figure 2: Intervention programs within the organisational settings

STAGE 1: COMPETENCE ASSESSMENT

Participants attended an information session and were asked to complete the questionnaires appropriately via intranet. The 118 participants rated themselves on the ECI-2. Additionally, all participants were assessed using the informants version of the questionnaire by other observers (superiors, colleagues, subordinates, others). All of them were assessed by their immediate superior and they had the opportunity to voluntarily choose additional observers from their professional environment for additional assessments.

To capture the richness of how others see the individual (see Hofstee, 1994; Jones and Nisbett, 1972), all the participants in the study held a session in which the two versions of the EI instrument (self-assessment and informants assessment) were discussed openly and frankly by the individual and the informants who work with him/her on a daily basis. The two people in charge of this session were the individual and his/her immediate superior. The individual participated voluntarily in the process and could decide to change the default profile discussion partner if he/she gave reasonable arguments (e.g. they have worked together for a very short period of time). In addition, he/she could include other people from the organisation in the discussion. The objective of this session was to gain a consensus profile of the items of the EI instrument, which are manifest behaviours displayed in the organisational setting. They were required to reach an agreement on the 72 Spanish items. The resulting profile was called the “*consensus*” profile and will be the basis for this study.

The present study deals with the qualities of these *consensus* ratings of EI. This distinguishes it from previous studies, including the ECI, in which the validation studies used informant assessments only, discarding self-assessment.

STAGE 2: TRAINING SESSIONS ON COMPETENCE CONCEPTUALISATION, OPERATIONALISATION AND DEVELOPMENT.

Two training sessions were held in order to establish the basis for competence management and development within organisational settings. 118 participants attended the training sessions on competence conceptualisation, operationalisation and development. Participants were asked to complete the NEO-FFI voluntarily in order to discuss its results in the next stage. Out of the total number of participants, 83 completed the NEO-FFI with the purpose of discussing results in the coaching sessions.

STAGE 3: FEEDBACK AND COACHING SESSION

Prior to the feedback and coaching session with an external expert, participants of the first and second organisations decided voluntarily if they wanted to continue in the project. If so, they were engaged in elaborating a

Training sessions on competence conceptualization, operationalization and development.

Activities:

Two sessions were held at this stage (1 day/session).

First session about conceptualization and operationalization:

- ✦ Explanation of the conceptual framework of competences, based on Goleman et al., 2002.
- ✦ Explanation of the ECI-2 questionnaire and its interpretation at competence level.

Second session about development:

- ✦ Explanation of the self-directed learning process.
- ✦ To provide with self-reflection tools that facilitate the trigger of personal development.
- ✦ Explanation of how to create an individualized learning plan, taking into account personal needs, job position and organizational environment.

Objectives:

- ✦ To motivate the participants and to point out the importance of competence management on a daily basis.
- ✦ To clarify how to evaluate and interpret the competence profile as measured by the ECI-2.
- ✦ To unify the language about competences throughout the organization.
- ✦ To reflect on the personal vision, personal balance and developmental objectives.
- ✦ To reflect on personal developmental opportunities within the organizational setting.

learning plan, identifying personal objectives for improvement. The feedback and coaching session is focused on how to develop emotional intelligence within organisational contexts. 78 employees participated in a one and a half hour session in order to elaborate their learning plan that would support development in their specific organisational situation. The competence profile and results of the NEO-FFI were explained and discussed.

STAGE 4: FOLLOW-UP OF THE PROCESS

A follow-up period that would promote emotional competence development within the organisational settings was initiated. The activities and objectives of this stage will be further commented on in the discussion section.

5. DESIGN AND STRATEGY OF THE ANALYSIS

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of 72 Spanish items for samples of less than 100 respondents presents serious

problems (Boomsma, 1983; Boomsma and Hoogland, 2001). We follow an alternative strategy for small samples, dividing the general EI model into smaller models (no more than three competences).

The different competence items were tested on quality together with the competences belonging to the same theoretical and empirical clusters reported in some studies (Boyatzis et al., 2000; Boyatzis and Sala, 2004; Goleman et al., 2002, Batista-Foguet, Boyatzis, Guillen and Serlavos, in press). If a theoretical cluster contained more than three competences, it was split up into submodels. Sets of two or three competences were formed following the empirical clustering reported in Batista-Foguet et al. (2006) and respecting the theoretical assemblies (Goleman et al., 2002). Transparency is a competence that was not included in the Batista-Foguet et al. (2006) research and, as we are primarily interested in item quality and not in competence relationships, a model with this single competence was formed.

The next step was the adjustment of the models and their modification by deleting invalid variables (Coenders, Batista-Foguet and Saris, 2005). These items will be omitted for further analyses for the following reasons: 1) Poor quality, as shown in the low loadings in their corresponding theoretical factors (competences); 2) Invalid

Feedback and Coaching Session

Activities:

- ✦ 1 1/2 hour sessions with a professional coach (external to the organization).

Objectives:

- ✦ To generate an environment of trust and commitment
- ✦ To include professional and personal developmental goals in a learning plan that will be approved and commented by the supervisor and reviewed on a 12-month basis.
- ✦ All the participants create a learning plan with objectives and actions for improvement. HR will manage the plans by integrating them with other HR policies such as training, payment, career planning, etc.

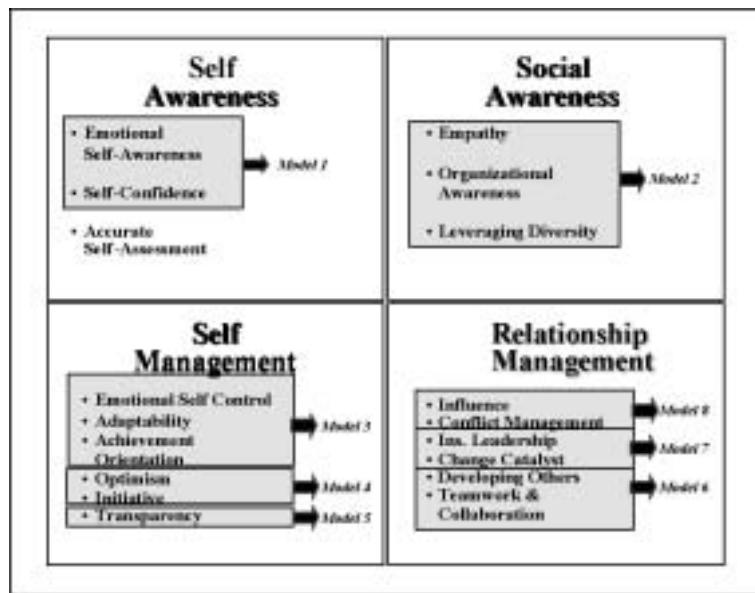


Figure 3: Empirical sets of competences based on the theoretical model by Goleman et al. (2002) and the empirical clustering proposed by Batista-Foguet et al. (2006)

variables, as shown in high loadings in factors to which they should theoretically not be associated. Unweighted summated scales (competences) were calculated only with items that accomplished these two requirements. Figure 3 shows the empirical sets of competences used in this study.

The structure and quality of the NEO-FFI measure were studied. According to the authors of the questionnaire, the short version of the NEO does not include subscales within each of the five personality traits that it is measuring (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Consequently, in theory only five factors should appear (Neuroticism, Extroversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness). Due to sample size, SPSS was used to run an exploratory factor analysis (Maximum Likelihood method). Each trait was analysed separately to respect the theoretical structure of the Big Five model and relationships. It was forced to extract only one factor per trait. Items with loadings lower than .4 were deleted. Summated scales with only the appropriate items were calculated, representing the five theoretical personality traits.

Pearson correlations between personality traits and emotional competences calculated as unweighted summated scales with only the appropriate items were calculated. Next, multiple regressions for each competence with the personality traits as independent variables were computed.

Figure 3. Empirical sets of competences based on the theoretical model by Goleman et al. (2002) and the empirical clustering proposed by Batista-Foguet et al. (2006).

Results

Results of the quality of the items are shown in Table 1. The second column in the table shows exactly which items

stand these two requirements and, consequently, they will be considered in subsequent analyses. Three competences of the model did not stand the confirmatory factor analysis and did not appear in Table 1. These items do not seem appropriate for representing a first-order factor and, consequently, Accurate Self-Assessment, Influence and Conflict Management will not be considered in further analyses of the present study.

To test the fit of the structure of the models, a parameter of goodness of fit is provided. Standardised RMR ranged from .01 (Initiative and Optimism) to .065 (Emotional Self-Awareness and Self-Confidence).

The unweighted summated scales (competences) were calculated and their correlations and reliabilities are shown in Table 2. All the competences have acceptable reliabilities ranging from .581 (Emotional Self-Control) to .845 (Organisational Awareness and Optimism). The correlations among competences ranged from .116 (between Organisational Awareness and Optimism) to .686 (between Achievement Orientation and Inspirational Leadership). The moderate values of the correlations lead us to think that the competences could be maintained as separate theoretical elements due their evaluative properties. There are no redundancies in conceptual significances of the map of competences as a sign of construct validity. The correlation matrix does not show a clear pattern, and it could be argued that some competences may be linked empirically in a different way from the theoretical proposal. Further analysis is recommended in order to refine the model of competences, but as this paper focuses mainly on the model by Goleman et al. (2002), we will not hypothesise to reduce the number of competences.

At this point, we turn to the analysis of the personality traits through the NEO-FFI questionnaire. The factor loading of the items is shown in Table 3 (only loadings

Model	ECI2 items	Loadings (Factor 1)	Loadings (Factor 2)	Loadings (Factor 3)	SRMR
Model 1: Self-Awareness and Self-Confidence	esa1s	0.64			0.065
	esa2s	0.73			
	esa3s	0.82			
	esa4s	0.6			
	scf1s		0.58		
	scf2s		0.58		
	scf3s		0.77		
Model 2: Empathy, Service Orientation and Organizational Awareness	emp1s	0.58			0.045
	emp2s	0.73			
	emp3s	0.52			
	serv1s		0.66		
	serv2s		0.85		
	oa1s			0.29	
	oa2s			0.83	
oa3s			0.69		
Model 3: Emotional Self-Control, Adaptability and Achievement Orientation	esc1s	0.56			0.046
	esc2s	0.73			
	adp1s		0.73		
	adp2s		0.82		
	adp4s		0.71		
	ach2s			0.73	
	ach3s			0.79	
Model 4: Initiative and Optimism	int1s	0.8			0.010
	int2s	0.56			
	opt2s		0.72		
	opt3s		0.74		
Model 5: Transparency	tran1s	0.49			0.061
	tran2s	0.68			
	tran3s	0.62			
	tran4s	0.85			
Model 6: Developing Others and Teamwork and Collaboration	dev1s	0.6			0.038
	dev2s	0.83			
	team2s		0.41		
	team3s		0.81		
Model 7: Change Catalyst and Inspirational Leadership	chg1s		0.79		0.052
	chg3s		0.73		
	chg4s		0.47		
	lead1s	0.72			
	lead2s	0.78			
	lead3s	0.7			
	lead4s	0.53			

Table 1: ECI-2: Items quality (n = 118) (2/2)

	Reliability	Selfconf	Selfswa	Orgawa	Empathy	Service	Selfcontrol	Flexab	Achieve	Initiative	Optimism	Transpare	Develop	Teamw	Change
Selfconf	0.694	1,000													
Selfswa	0.796	0.311	1,000												
Orgawa	0.845	0.235	0.301	1,000											
Empathy	0.627	0.358	0.542	0.396	1,000										
Service	0.723	0.512	0.416	0.523	0.484	1,000									
Selfcontrol	0.381	0.195	0.155	0.220	0.478	0.171	1,000								
Flexab	0.798	0.388	0.360	0.409	0.497	0.579	0.362	1,000							
Achieve	0.747	0.608	0.252	0.257	0.417	0.571	0.243	0.592	1,000						
Initiative	0.615	0.563	0.292	0.209	0.318	0.567	0.086	0.535	0.714	1,000					
Optimism	0.845	0.593	0.161	0.116	0.336	0.387	0.220	0.453	0.617	0.562	1,000				
Transpare	0.758	0.364	0.567	0.377	0.579	0.601	0.275	0.446	0.354	0.303	0.241	1,000			
Develop	0.666	0.522	0.143	0.329	0.247	0.405	0.049	0.350	0.421	0.446	0.315	0.318	1,000		
Teamw	0.681	0.471	0.367	0.305	0.513	0.528	0.312	0.525	0.579	0.506	0.475	0.450	0.249	1,000	
Change	0.690	0.477	0.186	0.126	0.204	0.342	0.060	0.310	0.602	0.556	0.477	0.128	0.317	0.448	1,000
Leader	0.778	0.677	0.209	0.298	0.386	0.536	0.163	0.655	0.737	0.699	0.628	0.387	0.540	0.578	0.500

Table 2: Competence reliabilities and correlations (n = 118)

Traits	Neuroticism		Extroversion		Openness to Experience		Agreeableness		Conscientiousness	
Cronbach's Alpha of the trait Based on Standardized Items	0.726		0.811		0.804		0.702		0.833	
Loadings	neo1	0.509	ext1	0.829	open1	0.787	afa1		r1	0.668
	neo2		ext2	0.481	open2	0.712	afa2	0.580	r2	0.400
	neo3	0.409	ext3		open3	0.426	afa3	0.560	r3	0.442
	neo4	0.580	ext4	0.790	open4	0.793	afa4	0.470	r4	0.684
	neo5	0.723	ext5	0.419	open5	0.560	afa5	0.414	r5	0.515
	neo6	0.586	ext6	0.508	open6	0.379	afa6		r6	0.571
	neo7	0.384	ext7	0.547	open7	0.382	afa7	0.535	r7	0.373
	neo8	0.366	ext8	0.471	open8	0.774	afa8		r8	0.644
	neo9	0.433	ext9	0.402	open9	0.672	afa9		r9	0.598
	neo10		ext10	0.416	open10		afa10		r10	0.539
	neo11		ext11	0.451	open11		afa11	0.428	r11	0.517
	neo12		ext12	0.444	open12	0.427	afa12	0.464	r12	0.540

Table 3: Scale reliabilities of the Big Five Traits and factor loadings of the items (n=83)

higher than .40 appear). Neuroticism is measured with only eight items, Extroversion with eleven, Openness to Experience with ten, Agreeableness with seven and Conscientiousness with twelve. The reliabilities of the summated scales (traits) are good, ranging from .702 (Agreeableness) to .833 (Conscientiousness).

Next, the relationships between basic personality traits and competences are calculated as shown in Table 4 (n=83). As shown in Table 4, there are no simple, linear and consistent patterns in relationships between personality traits and emotional competences.

Table 5 shows the model summary coefficients (Multiple R, R Square, and Adjusted R Square and Standard Error of the Estimate) for each competence with the five personality traits as independent variables. R Square values ranged from .444 (Self-Confidence) to .039 (Organisational Awareness), reinforcing the argument for discriminant validity.

Discussion

The intervention programme presented in this paper is still in progress and at this point, we have only cross-sectional data. Regretfully, emotional and social competences have been assessed only once. Therefore, we are not yet able to assess intervention efficacy. The main purposes of the paper have been to describe (not evaluate) an EI-based intervention program and point out that personality traits and EI competences are different constructs. Thus, competence development is possible.

The discussion section will be divided into three parts following the structure of the present paper: (1) Psychometric properties of the ECI-2 questionnaire; (2) discriminant validity of EI with personality traits, and (3) implications of the results for practitioners.

	Neuroticism	Extroversion	Openness	Agreeabl.	Conscien.
Selfconf	-0.211	0.450**	0.277*	-0.204	0.315**
Selfawa	0.201	0.147	0.205	0.038	0.107
Orgawa	-0.019	0.032	0.012	0.056	0.158
Empathy	0.103	0.136	-0.003	0.040	0.154
Service	-0.023	0.267*	0.004	-0.117	0.153
Selfcontrol	-0.082	0.029	-0.042	0.059	0.341
Flexib	0.036	0.294**	0.052	-0.105	0.394**
Achieve	-0.081	0.376**	0.224*	-0.026	0.374**
Initiative	-0.124	0.341**	0.189	-0.179	0.260*
Optimism	-0.250	0.498**	0.265*	-0.048	0.168
Transpare	0.103	0.155	-0.124	0.018	0.150
Develop	-0.142	0.375**	0.124	-0.131	0.403**
Teamw	0.134	0.403**	0.194	-0.038	0.029
Change	-0.020	0.443**	0.291*	-0.174	0.175
Leader	-0.072	0.460**	0.207	-0.053	0.338**
*	Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).				
**	Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

Table 4: Correlations of the Big Five Traits and the Emotional Competences, Clusters and a composite EI score

	Model Summary			
	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Selfconf	0.667	0.444	0.407	0.384
Selfawa	0.379	0.144	0.087	0.431
Orgawa	0.197	0.039	-0.025	0.536
Empathy	0.222	0.049	-0.014	0.445
Service	0.352	0.124	0.065	0.502
Selfcontrol	0.372	0.139	0.081	0.516
Flexib	0.523	0.274	0.225	0.387
Achieve	0.495	0.245	0.195	0.512
Initiative	0.442	0.195	0.142	0.598
Optimiam	0.544	0.296	0.249	0.494
Transpare	0.362	0.131	0.073	0.359
Develop	0.521	0.272	0.223	0.578
Teamw	0.423	0.179	0.125	0.467
Change	0.476	0.226	0.175	0.527
Leader	0.544	0.296	0.249	0.480

Table 5: Multiple regressions with competences as dependent variables and personality traits as independent variables

1. PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF THE ECI-2 AND THE NEO-FFI

The correlations among fifteen competences measured by the ECI-2 show their conceptual relevance. They also show that there are no conceptual redundancies in the model. These competences are mapped together and show good internal reliabilities. The results presented provide supporting evidence for the construct of an EI trait, although further work on development and psychometric properties is indicated. Three competences (Influence, Conflict Management and Accurate Self-Assessment) of the theoretical proposal (Goleman et al., 2002) were not considered due to invalidity or poor quality of the items with which they are measured in the Spanish version.

2. DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY

Results show, as hypothesised, that the ECI-2 scale showed evidence of discriminant validity with the NEO-FFI, because as can be seen in Table 4, most of the correlations are rather slow. It proved to be different from the Big Five personality traits.

3. IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTITIONERS

We have found support for the argument that states that personality traits and EI competences are different constructs. This has profound implications for practitioners

within a broad number of disciplines. First, because implicitly this sends a hopeful message about adult development. And second, because it gives us a clue about pedagogical tools that may help managers to effectively engage and develop their competences in their daily environments and on a continuous basis. Let us explain this in greater detail.

One of the most controversial claims of some authors is that they can adduce that intelligence and personality traits are innate. In consequence, experience and environment cannot affect them at all. In addition, they are not highly sensitive to age and maturity. Costa and McCrae (1992) have argued that the five personality traits are basic tendencies of behaviour that are biologically based. They have traced the difference between these basic tendencies or potentials of the individual and real adaptive characteristics that are culturally determined. Competences may be understood as the concrete adaptive characteristics of the individual to his/her specific environment, and they may have not only a biological root but also external influences. Competences can be conceptualised as external and more concrete manifestations of some basic tendencies throughout life. Thus, EI competences become pivotal elements to achieve success in life and convey a hopeful message. Innateness is not the only source of success in work and life. Emotional competences can and in fact must be learned (Cherniss, 2001). This message expands the impact of emotional intelligence and leaves room for some good news... yes, EI can be improved!

If competences are a critical ingredient in outstanding performance, and research supports the idea that they can be improved, adults can develop them to improve their performance in management, leadership and many other occupations and professions.

The consultancy programme on which this research is

based relies on the intentional change process (Goleman et al., 2002). Coming back to Figure 1, it has been commented that competence assessment (Stage 1), training in EI (Stage 2) and coaching sessions (Stage 3) to identify personal and professional development objectives may be the trigger for a continuous change within organisations. But after that, managers and organisations should provide the appropriate means to keep alive the project of competence development. Continuous improvement requires continuous attention and support.

Stage 4 (follow-up of the process) of the consultancy programs addressed in this paper is extraordinarily important. A number of actions to encourage this continuous change of the participants have been identified, namely: guides of resources for the competences, workshops for key competences, forums of discussion and last, but certainly not least, coaching sessions.

Guides of resources per competence are documents that study in depth the meanings and implications of the competence and are available to participants. They contain among other themes a definition of the competence, behavioural indicators, concrete actions for improvement, and movies and books related to the corresponding competence.

Workshops are practical 4-hour sessions that promote individual and group reflection about a specific competence that the participants are interested in developing. Their objectives are to discuss the meaning and impact of the competence in a specific job environment and to identify actions to improve it within these environments that can be practised on a daily basis.

The discussion forums are virtual spaces where the participants in the projects can share their experiences and look for feedback and reinforcement from their colleagues. They are a powerful source of motivation, inspiration and teamwork. They complement the workshops because they offer the opportunity of enriching developmental plans on a daily basis and bring the reflections of the workshops into practice in a more concrete and efficient way.

Finally, the coaching sessions have a more individualised role and offer an extremely powerful guide for development. The main goal is to maintain the development plan alive. But in doing so, individuals' needs may differ. The content of the coaching sessions is flexible and they are adapted to the specific desires of each participant about developmental urges.

The impact of these actions is tremendous and may expand their influence to the whole organisation. Coaching with compassion may provide a platform for sustainable leadership effectiveness and an effective approach for developing others—to teach them how to effectively engage and develop others. Thus, a domino effect may expand the benefits of coaching, compassion and leadership in a steady stream of positive continuous improvement for the organisation. This would result in more emotional intelligence shown within the organisation, and we believe more sustainable, effective organisations. The challenge for universities or corporate organisations would be to encourage an environment for

developing competences. Coaching, beyond the traditional notion of advising, would become a crucial pedagogical issue. Like leaders and managers, environments can be created in which others want to use their capabilities and competences, if we are authentic and consistent in our demonstration of our own demonstrations of these behaviours. Through the intentional change process (Goleman et al., 2002), people have the opportunity to truly make a difference.

Summing up, the primary implications of the ideas in this paper for practitioners, whether management consultants or educators attempting to develop leaders, are that leaders can actually be trained, and that coaching seems to be a powerful pedagogical tool to help others develop their capabilities.

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The Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence: A Valid, Robust and Applicable EI Model



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In this article, the Bar-On model is described and the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) compared with other models, including the MSCEIT. The author argues for the robustness and construct validity of his model as a measure of emotional-social intelligence. It is also argued that the Bar-On model is capable of predicting various aspects of human performance including physical and psychological health, social interaction, education and workplace performance. The competencies and skills associated with the model can be enhanced in order to improve individual occupational performance and organisational productivity making it a practical tool in the home, school, and workplace. A future challenge is set to create an expanded EI model that incorporates the best conceptual and psychometric aspects of existing models.

Keywords: EI models, EI instruments, EQ-I, human performance, emotional health

Emotional intelligence (EI) has become a major topic of interest since the publication of a bestseller by the same name in 1995 (Goleman). Despite the heightened level of interest in this *new idea*, scholars have been studying this construct for the greater part of the twentieth century; and its historical roots can be traced to the nineteenth century (Darwin, 1872/1965).

From Thorndike to the present (1920), a number of different conceptualisations of this construct have appeared creating some degree of confusion regarding the way it should be defined, measured and applied. To help clarify this situation, the *Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology* (Spielberger, 2004) suggests that there are currently three major

EI models: (a) the Mayer-Salovey model (1997) which defines this construct as the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions to facilitate thinking, measured by an ability-based measure (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002); (b) the Goleman model (1998) which views it as an array of competencies and skills that contribute to managerial performance, measured by multi-rater assessment (Boyatzis, Goleman & HayGroup, 2001); and (c) the

Bar-On model (1997b) which describes it as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behaviour, measured by self-report (Bar-On, 1997a) and multi-rater assessment (Bar-On & Handley, 2003a, 2003b).

Numerous findings will be presented in this article to demonstrate that the Bar-On model represents a valid, robust and applicable conceptualisation of “emotional-social intelligence” (as I prefer to refer to this construct). It will be shown, moreover, that this model has stronger psychometric properties than those of the other two EI models referred to in the previous paragraph. I will not only focus on the application of the Bar-On model in organisations, which is the focus of this special issue of *Organisations and People*, but in additional areas of human performance that are related to performance in the workplace.

The first part of the article describes the Bar-On model and measure of emotional-social intelligence and how it was developed. The second part describes how well this model describes what it was designed to describe, and the third part describes what it predicts and how well. In

the concluding section, I summarise the key points regarding the Bar-On model, discuss its applicability as well as its limitations, and briefly discuss how a more comprehensive and robust EI model might be developed.

The theoretical foundation of the Bar-On model and how it was developed

Darwin's early work on the importance of "emotional expression" for survival and adaptation (1872/1965) has influenced the ongoing development of the Bar-On model, which also stresses the importance of emotional expression and views human behaviour as influenced by the basic need to survive and adapt in an increasingly complex world. Additional influence on my thinking can be traced to Thorndike's description of "social intelligence" (1920) and its importance for human performance as well as Wechsler's observations related to the impact of "non-intellective factors" on intelligent behaviour (1940). Sifneos' description of "alexithymia" (1967) on the pathological end of the EI continuum and Appelbaum's conceptualisation of "psychological mindedness" (1973) on the emotionally healthy end of this continuum have also had an impact on the ongoing development of the Bar-On model.

From Darwin to the present, most conceptualisations of emotional-social intelligence have included one or more of the following key components: (a) the ability to recognise and understand emotions and to express feelings; (b) the ability to understand how others feel and to relate with them; (c) the ability to manage and control emotions; (d) the ability to manage change, adapt and solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature; and (e) the ability to generate positive affect to be self-motivated.

The Bar-On conceptual model of emotional-social intelligence represents the theoretical basis for the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i; Bar-On, 1997a), which was originally developed to assess various aspects of this construct as well as to examine its conceptualisation. According to this model:

emotional-social intelligence is a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands and challenges.

The emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators referred to in this conceptualisation include the five key components described in the previous paragraph; and each of these components comprises a number of closely related competencies, skills and facilitators that are described in the Appendix.

Description of the instrument used in developing and measuring the Bar-On model. To better understand the Bar-On model and how it was developed, it is important to briefly describe the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i).

The EQ-i is a self-report measure of emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour that provides an estimate of emotional-social intelligence. The EQ-i was the first EI measure to be published by a psychological test publisher (Bar-On, 1997a) and the first such measure to be peer-reviewed in the *Buros Mental Measurement Yearbook* (Plake & Impara, 1999). A detailed description of the psychometric properties of this measure and how it was developed is found in the *Bar-On EQ-i Technical Manual* (Bar-On, 1997b), *Buros Mental Measurement Yearbook* (Plake & Impara, 1999) and in *Measuring Emotional Intelligence* (Geher, 2004).

The EQ-i contains 133 items and employs a 5-point response scale ranging from "very seldom or not true of me" (1) to "very often true of me or true of me" (5). The EQ-i is suitable for individuals 17 years of age and older and takes approximately 40 minutes to complete.

The individual's responses to the EQ-i render a total EQ score and scores on 5 composite scales and 15 subscales, which are described in the Appendix.

Scores are computer-generated. Raw scores are automatically tabulated and converted into standard scores based on a mean of 100 and standard deviations of 15.

The EQ-i has a built-in correction factor that automatically adjusts the scale scores based on scores from two of the instrument's validity indices, which increases the accuracy of the results.

The rigorous development of the EQ-i helped create a valid and robust EI model. The EQ-i was originally developed to examine a theory of emotional and social functioning (Bar-On, 1988). At that time, I hypothesised that effective emotional and social functioning eventually leads to a sense of psychological well-being.

The development of the EQ-i proceeded in six stages: 1) identifying and logically clustering various emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators thought to impact human effectiveness and well-being based on my experience as a clinical psychologist and review of the literature; 2) defining the individual clusters of competencies, skills and facilitators that emerged; 3) generating approximately 1,000 items; 4) determining the inclusion of 15 primary scales and 133 items in the published version of the instrument based on a combination of theoretical considerations and statistical applications; 5) norming the final version of the instrument on 3,831 adults in North America; and 6) continuing to norm and validate the instrument across cultures. The EQ-i has been translated into more than 30 languages, and data have been collected from a wide variety of settings worldwide.

Numerous reliability and validity studies have been conducted, a number of which will be referred to in the following sections to describe the validity, robustness and applicability of the EQ-i and the construct it measures. This approach of examining the reliability and validity of a concept by examining the psychometric properties of scales that measure the concept is common in psychology and in the specific area of emotional intelligence (Newsome, Day & Cantano, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Salovey et al., 1995; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2006).

An analysis of variance of the North American normative sample was conducted to examine the effect of age, gender and ethnicity on EQ-i scores (Bar-On, 1997b). It was found that older individuals score significantly higher than the younger individuals on most of the EQ-i scales. Similar increases in EI with age have been reported by other researchers (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000; Saarni, 1999; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2006; Zeidner, Matthews, Roberts, & MacCann, 2003). With respect to gender, it was found that women are more aware of emotions, demonstrate more empathy, relate better interpersonally and are more socially responsible than men (Bar-On, 1997b). Men, on the other hand, appear to have better self-regard, are more self-reliant emotionally, manage emotions better, are more flexible, solve problems better and are more optimistic. Similar trends have been observed using the MSCEIT and ECI (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2006). EQ-i scores are not significantly affected by ethnicity based on the various ethnic groups that were compared in North America (Bar-On, 1997b, 2000). Similar research findings regarding the impact of ethnicity on MSCEIT and ECI scores have not yet been published (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2006).

The 15-factor structure of the EQ-i was examined by factor analysis on the North American normative sample of 3,831 adults (Bar-On, 1997b). The results confirmed the theoretical structure of the Bar-On model for the most part, which was re-confirmed on a much larger sample of 51,623 in United States and Canada (Bar-On, 2004). The factorial validity of the EQ-i compares favorably with that of the MSCEIT and ECI. While the 4-metafactor structure of the MSCEIT has been confirmed by factor analysis (Brackett & Salovey, 2004), an examination of the structure of the eight tasks within the measure's four branches is not found in the literature. Additionally, the 18-factor structure of the ECI does not appear to be empirically justified; rather a 9-factor structure has emerged from factor analysis (Boyatzis & Sala, 2004).

A consensus of research findings suggests that the EQ-i is consistent and stable (e.g., Bar-On, 2004; Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2002; Newsome et al., 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000). More specifically, the overall internal consistency coefficient of the EQ-i is .97 based on the North American normative sample (Bar-On, 1997b). This well exceeds the .90 minimum for total scores suggested by Nunnally (1978). Internal consistency was recently re-examined on 51,623 individuals, revealing very similar results with a slight mean increase of .025 in consistency coefficients (Bar-On, 2004). An overall retest reliability examination of the EQ-i revealed .72 for males and .80 for females at six months (Bar-On, 2004). These findings compare favorably with those of other EI measures. Brackett and Salovey, for example, reported split-half reliability correlations of .93 and .91 for the MSCEIT's total score and a retest reliability of .86 after three weeks (2004).

The EQ-i's construct validity confirms that the Bar-On model describes EI

In order to demonstrate how well a concept or measure is describing what it was designed to describe, its *construct validity* needs to be examined. In the case of the Bar-On model, this was done by demonstrating that the EQ-i correlates higher with measures of emotional intelligence than with measures of cognitive intelligence and personality. It has fairly consistently been shown that the EQ-i correlates *lowest* with measures of cognitive intelligence followed by a *relatively low* correlation with personality tests (Van Rooy, Pluta & Viswesvaran, 2004; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004, 2006). However, the *highest* degree of correlation has been shown to exist between the EQ-i and other EI measures (Bar-On, 2004, 2006c; D. L. Van Rooy, personal communication in April 2003). This process of comparing *divergent* with *convergent* evidence empirically demonstrates that the Bar-On model is most likely measuring emotional-social intelligence (36% of its variance) and least likely measuring cognitive intelligence (4% of its variance) with a minimal domain overlap with personality (15% of its variance) (D. L. Van Rooy, personal communication in April 2003; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004).

The above findings suggest that EQ-i possesses good construct validity, meaning that this instrument is measuring what it was designed to measure for the most part (i.e., it is a valid measure of emotional-social intelligence). In contrast to the extensive construct validation that the EQ-i has undergone, the construct validity of the MSCEIT and the ECI has not yet been examined as thoroughly (Geher, 2004; Matthews et al., 2002; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2006). With respect to the MSCEIT, most of the studies focus primarily on divergent rather than convergent evidence when examining its construct validity (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2006). Regarding this near lack of convergent evidence, Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2006, p. 283) caution that it is "insufficient" to determine the construct validity of a measure by examining only its divergent construct validity (i.e., what it is *not* measuring) stressing that convergent construct validity must be examined as well to determine what it *is* measuring, which is axiomatic in test development (Anastasi, 1988; Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Therefore, it would be inconclusive to claim that the MSCEIT is measuring emotional intelligence.

Based on the Bar-On model's predictive validity, emotional-social intelligence has a significant impact on various aspects of human performance

In addition to demonstrating that the Bar-On model is describing what was designed to describe (emotional-

social intelligence), it must also be shown that it is capable of predicting various aspects of human performance in order to be considered a valid, robust and usable concept. I have summarised more than 20 predictive validity studies conducted on more than 23,000 individuals (Bar-On, 1997b, 2000, 2001, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006a, 2006b, 2006c, 2007; Bar-On, Handley & Fund, 2006; Krivoy, Weyl Ben-Arush & Bar-On, 2000). Based on the findings that have emerged to date, the average predictive validity coefficient is nearly .60, which compares quite favorably with other EI measures such as the MSCEIT and the ECI (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2006). Summarised below are the major findings related to the predictive ability of the Bar-On model. When similar findings appear in the literature for the MSCEIT and ECI, they are discussed together with those of the EQ-i to compare the predictive validity of the two measures.

The impact on physical health. Findings from five studies (Bar-On, 2004, 2006c; Ebersöhn & Maree, 2006; Krivoy, Weyl Ben-Arush, & Bar-On, 2000) suggest that there is a moderately high relationship (.47) between emotional intelligence and (a) general physical health, (b) the ability to cope with medical problems and (c) the ability to be resilient in the face of life-threatening health conditions. The most powerful EI factors involved are self-regard, independence, stress tolerance, problem solving, assertiveness and optimism.

The impact on psychological health. EI demonstrates a moderate impact (.39) on psychological health (Bar-On, 1988, 1997b, 2000, 2003, 2004, 2006c). Based on the Bar-On model, the strongest EI predictors of psychological health are stress tolerance, reality testing and self-actualisation. The MSCEIT has generated correlation coefficients ranging from .25 to .33 with measures of anxiety and depression (Brackett & Salovey, 2004).

The impact on social interaction. In addition to a number of older studies that have indicated a significant relationship between EI and social interaction (Bar-On, 1997b), recent studies (Bar-On, 2006c) have revealed a higher degree of correlation (.69) between the two constructs. These results compare quite favorably with those generated by other EI measures. For example, Brackett and his colleagues described correlations in the .28 to .45 range between the MSCEIT and the "quality of interpersonal relationships" (2003).

The impact on performance at school. I have recently summarised the findings from four studies (2006b) demonstrating a significant relationship between EQ-i scores and grade point average with correlation coefficients ranging from .41 to .45. The EI factors that impact academic performance the most are the following: stress tolerance, reality testing, problem solving, self-actualisation and optimism. These findings suggest that the Bar-On model is capable of identifying and predicting who will perform well at school and who will not. These findings compare quite favorably with those generated by other EI measures. Brackett and Salovey, for example, describe correlation coefficients between the MSCEIT and scholastic performance in the .20 to .25 range (2004).

The impact on performance in the workplace. In a number of studies that my colleagues and I have summarised over the past decade (e.g., Bar-On, 1997b, 2004, 2006a, 2006c; Bar-On, Handley & Fund, 2006; Handley, 1997; Ruderman & Bar-On, 2003), the EQ-i has shown that there is a highly significant relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational performance. The average predictive validity for these studies is approximately .55, meaning that about 30% of occupational performance is based on EI as described by the Bar-On model (Bar-On, 2006c); and when leadership is examined separately from general performance, this figure increases to about 67% meaning that two-thirds of this type of performance is dependent upon EI (Bar-On, 2006a). The results generated by the EQ-i compare quite well with those generated by other EI measures in predicting occupational performance. For example, the correlation between the MSCEIT and occupational performance range between .22 and .46 (Brackett & Salovey, 2004). A consensus of findings in the studies summarised to date using the EQ-i indicate that the most powerful EI contributors to occupational performance are: (a) the ability to be aware of and accept oneself; (b) the ability to be aware of others' feelings, concerns and needs; (c) the ability to manage emotions; (d) the ability to be realistic and put things in correct perspective; and (e) the ability to have a positive disposition and outlook on life. EI profiles based on this type of information are increasingly applied in selection, training and succession planning worldwide. This approach increases the chances of receiving high performing employees who collectively tend to increase organisational productivity.

The impact on self-actualisation. Self-actualisation involves the process of actualising one's potential. It requires the ability and drive to set and achieve goals. It is not merely performing well but striving to do one's best. In a recent publication (2006c), I described findings from four studies that examined the relationship between EI and self-actualisation. The degree of correlation was found to range from .64 to .80. A near 100% overlap between the findings indicates that in order to achieve personal goals and realise one's potential, the following EI factors are the most important: optimism, happiness, self-regard, independence, problem solving, flexibility, social responsibility, assertiveness, and emotional self-awareness.

The impact on giftedness. In a study that was recently submitted for publication (Bar-On, 2007), it was shown that the Bar-On model is significantly associated with human giftedness. More specifically, EQ-i scores demonstrated a significant correlation with the cognitive and academic components of giftedness as well as with creative problem solving and a strong drive to excel in whatever one enjoys doing. Moreover, it was shown that the gifted are more adept than their peers at managing emotions, expressing themselves and their feelings, validating their feelings and keeping things in correct perspective, flexibly solving problems of a personal and interpersonal nature, and being sufficiently self-motivated in doing their best and actualizing their potential.

The impact on subjective well-being. In another study

(Bar-On, 2005), it was shown that the EQ-i correlates significantly high (.76) with subjective well-being. Based on the Bar-On model, the five strongest EI predictors of well-being are the following: emotional self-awareness, self-regard, self-actualisation, and reality testing. In contrast to these findings, the correlation between the MSCEIT and well-being ranges from .27 to .36 (Brackett & Mayer, 2003).

The findings presented in this section suggest that the Bar-On model is a better predictor of human performance than the other existing models of emotional intelligence referred to in the present article. Additionally, this model appears to predict a wider range of human performance than the other two models. Based on the findings in this section, it is logical to assume that an organisation will have a better chance of being more productive if it contains a *critical mass* of employees who are physically and emotionally healthy, have well-developed social skills, are good learners, perform well, do their best, lean towards giftedness, and possess a good sense of well-being. According to the empirical evidence presented here, it is suggested that the Bar-On conceptual and psychometric model of emotional-social intelligence can be applied to achieve higher organisational productivity by hiring, promoting and training those individuals who possess higher than average EI in general and specifically in the above-mentioned areas.

After demonstrating that the Bar-On EI model significantly impacts various aspects of human performance, it is important to stress that the competencies and skills associated with this model can be enhanced in order to improve individual occupational performance and organisational productivity. This claim is supported by more than a half dozen studies that clearly demonstrate that emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour can be enhanced by individual coaching as well as group training (Bar-On, 2003, 2006b; Bharwaney-Orme, 2003; Dunkley, 1996; Freedman, 2003; McCown, Jensen & Freedman, 2006; Sjölund & Gustafsson, 2001; Stohl et al., 2006). Not only do these programmes significantly increase overall EI, but most of the factorial components of EI increase significantly as well by applying simple didactic methods over a relatively short period of time. Those EI factors that increase the most tend to be the following: self-regard, empathy, stress tolerance, reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving.

Discussion

This article has shown that emotional-social intelligence, as conceptualised by the Bar-On model, is a multi-factorial array of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that influence our ability to recognise and manage emotions, to relate with others, to adapt to change and solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature, and to efficiently cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. It has also been shown that the development of this model has been rigorous, and that the

outcome of this process has produced a valid, robust and highly applicable EI concept and measure. This model describes adequately the construct it was designed to describe (emotional-social intelligence). The usefulness and applicability of the Bar-On model has also been demonstrated by examining its ability to predict a wide array of human behaviour and performance; additionally, showing that the EI factors involved can be developed and enhanced highlights the usefulness of this model.

Many of the studies presented in this article need to be replicated on more culturally diverse samples. Future studies should also use a wide variety of methods to examine the relationship between the Bar-On model and an even wider variety of human performance over time.

Hopefully, the Bar-On model and the findings it has generated will more routinely make their way into the home, school and workplace. Parents and educators can benefit from this by raising and educating children to be more emotionally and socially intelligent, effective, productive and pleased with themselves, significant others and with what they enjoy doing. Human resources personnel could also make more widespread use of this model and measure in hiring, training and succession planning in order to increase individual effectiveness and organisational productivity. Additionally, healthcare practitioners could benefit from focusing on the above-mentioned EI components of the Bar-On model in diagnostic, remedial and preventive work. Such an approach could be used in mapping out those EI areas that need to be enhanced in order to increase individual effectiveness, self-actualisation and general well-being.

One particular EI model, no matter how valid, robust and applicable it might be, provides a limited view of the individual's capacity for emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour. In order to receive a more comprehensive description of the capacity for this type of behaviour, we should consider creating an expanded EI model that incorporates the best conceptual and psychometric aspects of existing models. This could be attempted by factor analysing responses to an experimental battery comprising the MSCEIT, EQ-i and ECI. This would provide us with an excellent opportunity to map out the EI domain methodically. An additional future challenge in this area, moreover, will be to explore how best to create a multi-dimensional model that captures both the potential (or ability) for emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour as well as a self-report and multi-rater assessment of this type of behaviour. Our ability to more fully describe this construct will be incomplete until we succeed in creating this type of a multi-dimensional and multi-modal approach to EI assessment. Encouraging such an approach is also the best way to discourage the proliferation of ungrounded theorising that abets misconceptions and false claims of what EI is and is not and what it can and cannot predict.

APPENDIX

The EQ-i Scales and What They Assess

EQ-i SCALES	The EI Competencies and Skills Assessed by Each Scale
Intrapersonal	Self-awareness and self-expression:
Self-Regard	<i>To accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself.</i>
Emotional Self-Awareness	<i>To be aware of and understand one's emotions.</i>
Assertiveness	<i>To effectively and constructively express one's feelings and oneself.</i>
Independence	<i>To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others.</i>
Self-Actualisation	<i>To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one's potential.</i>
Interpersonal	Social awareness and interpersonal relationship:
Empathy	<i>To be aware of and understand how others feel.</i>
Social Responsibility	<i>To identify with one's social group and cooperate with others.</i>
Interpersonal Relationship	<i>To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others.</i>
Stress Management	Emotional management and control:
Stress Tolerance	<i>To effectively and constructively manage emotions.</i>
Impulse Control	<i>To effectively and constructively control emotions.</i>
Adaptability	Change management:
Reality-Testing	<i>To objectively validate one's feelings and thinking with external reality.</i>
Flexibility	<i>To adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations.</i>
Problem-Solving	<i>To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature.</i>
General Mood	Self-motivation:
Optimism	<i>To be positive and look at the brighter side of life.</i>
Happiness	<i>To feel content with oneself, others and life in general.</i>

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BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

Reuven Bar-On, PhD. is an internationally acknowledged expert and pioneer in emotional intelligence and has been involved in defining, measuring and applying various

aspects of this concept since 1980. He coined the term "EQ" (emotional quotient) in 1985 to describe his approach to assessing emotional and social competence and created the Emotional Quotient Inventory (the EQ-i). Over one million EQ-i assessments were conducted worldwide in the first five years of its publication. He co-authored the EQ-i:YV, the first commercially available test designed to assess emotionally and socially intelligent behavior in children (2000); it has been selected by a team of psychometricians at the University of Oxford as the EI test of choice for children and recommended for use in schools in the UK (2003). He also co-edited the Handbook of Emotional Intelligence (2000), one of the first academic texts on this topic to be published. With Richard Handley, he also developed the EQ-360 and the EQ-Interview (2003).

Emotional Intelligence and Organisation Culture



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Much of the debate around Emotional Intelligence focuses on the nature of the concept and its relevance to individuals. In addition we read a wide range of articles on how Emotional Intelligence may be assessed and debates around either the feasibility of developing EI or the efficacy of approaches designed to achieve such development. One aspect which has received far less attention is the extent to which the culture of an organisation can impact on the extent to which individual members may develop, or indeed, exhibit behaviours associated with high levels of Emotional Intelligence. An analysis of an existing database provides evidence that high average levels of Emotional Intelligence are associated with high levels of organisational performance. Furthermore an exploratory study of nine organisations provides some evidence which shows a relationship between organisational culture and the average levels of Emotional Intelligence of members of the organisation. Taking these two findings together suggests that organisations should initiate actions which will build cultural elements to support the development of individual Emotional Intelligence.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, organisational culture, organisational performance, development

Introduction

Since the publication of Daniel Goleman's book about Emotional Intelligence (EI) (1996), there had been an explosion of interest in the subject (Higgs and Dulewicz, 2002) and the emergence of hundreds of web-sites and many books which examine the construct or offer self-development tips. The most compelling theme from Goleman's book was the proposition that higher EI leads to greater 'life' success. Perhaps this is because measures of intelligence have been able to account for only around 20 to 25 per cent of variances in success.

Whilst the concept has been the subject of significant challenge and debate in academia, in the corporate world the construct has been received with enthusiasm. In a world where the only certainty is uncertainty and the drive for innovation is relentless, the themes of EI have clearly struck a chord.

The majority of the research and writing on the topic of EI has been focused on individuals and the relationship between EI and individual performance. Yet it is clear that individual success cannot be seen in isolation from the organisation in which they work (Goffee and Jones, 1998;

Higgs and Dulewicz, 2002). This article sets out to move beyond individual EI and to explore the relationship between the Emotional Intelligence of individuals and the organisational context.

In doing this the article will draw on two areas of research:

- An analysis of average individual EI profiles in different organisations.
- A study of nine organisations in which data on individual emotional intelligence was compared with an organisational culture questionnaire designed to assess the presence of cultural elements likely to impact on the exhibition and development of individual Emotional Intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Performance

Over the last decade, in response to the rapidly changing business environment, we see new concepts and metaphors entering our dialogue. Instead of a steadfast

commitment to rational thought processes and command and control management styles, we see the importance of feelings, trust, relationship building, knowledge sharing and cultural awareness taking centre stage. We see this theme emerging in many areas of business thinking. For example, in the area of Knowledge Management, Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), discuss the importance of tapping into the tacit knowledge of the individual to achieve improved performance for the company. They cite many examples which emphasise the importance of dialogue, teamworking and sharing of ideas.

This increasing emphasis on new ways of constructing work and performance may explain the explosion of interest in the subject of Emotional Intelligence. In the exploration of the concept of Emotional Intelligence there have been a range of definitions offered and means proposed for its assessment. It is beyond the scope of this article to review the range of the definitional and measurement debate. In order to explore the relationships between individual EI and organisational performance, one specific model of EI has been employed. This is the model developed by Malcolm Higgs and Victor Dulewicz (2002). They define Emotional Intelligence as:

“The capability to achieve one’s goals (particularly long-term goals) by:

- being aware of one’s emotions and their impact on behaviour and using this awareness to manage their behaviours;
- being sensitive to the needs and emotions of others; and
- acting in a conscientious and ethical manner.”

Building from this definition they developed a questionnaire (the EIQ-Managerial) which measures (either on a self-assessed or 360 degree basis) an individual’s Emotional Intelligence. The questionnaire assesses the following seven dimensions which comprise the Emotional Intelligence of an individual:

SELF-AWARENESS

The awareness of one’s own feelings and the ability to recognise and manage these feelings in a way which one feels that one can control. This factor includes a degree of belief in one’s ability to manage one’s emotions and control their impact in a work environment.

EMOTIONAL RESILIENCE

The ability to perform consistently in a range of situations under pressure and to adapt behaviour appropriately. The ability to balance the needs of the situation and task with the needs and concerns of the individuals involved. The ability to retain focus on a course of action or need for results in the face of personal challenge or criticism.

MOTIVATION

The drive and energy to achieve clear results and make an impact and to balance short and long term goals with an ability to pursue demanding goals in the face of rejection and questioning.

INTERPERSONAL SENSITIVITY

The ability to be aware of and take account of the needs and perceptions of others in arriving at decisions and proposing solutions to problems and challenges. The ability to build from this awareness and achieve commitment of others to decisions and action ideas. The willingness to keep one’s thoughts on possible solutions to problems and to actively listen to, and reflect on, the reactions and inputs from others.

INFLUENCE

The ability to persuade others to change a viewpoint based on the understanding of their position and the recognition of the need to listen to this perspective and provide a rationale for change.

INTUITIVENESS

The ability to arrive at clear decisions and drive their implementation when presented with incomplete or ambiguous information using both rational and ‘emotional’ or intuitive perceptions of key issues and implications.

CONSCIENTIOUSNESS

The ability to display clear commitment to a course of action in the face of challenge and to match ‘words and deeds’ in encouraging others to support the chosen direction. The personal commitment to pursuing an ethical solution to a difficult business issue or problem.

In a wide range of research studies the reliability and validity of the EIQ-Managerial has been clearly established. Furthermore, these studies have consistently shown significant correlations between EI and individual performance.

A sizeable database has been built up from this wide range of studies. In reflecting on linkages between EI and organisational performance it became apparent that the database could be used to explore the relationship. Data on a reasonable number of managers (50 or more) was identifiable in twenty-three different organisations. In

	High Performing Organisation	Low Performing Organisation
Overall EI	7	3
Self-Awareness	6	3
Emotional Resilience	7	4
Motivation	7	3
Interpersonal Sensitivity	8	2
Influence	7	4
Intuitiveness	7	2
Conscientiousness and Integrity	7	3

Table 1: Average Managerial Emotional Intelligence in High and Low Performing Organisations (Standardised scores on a STEN scale)

order to assess organisational performance the list of organisations was reviewed by four ‘experts’ on organisational performance from the academic and business world. The organisations were split between high and low performing organisations based on this assessment. For each organisation the average score of managers on overall EI and the seven elements was calculated. The results of the subsequent analysis are shown in the Table 1 below.

This showed clearly that levels of Emotional Intelligence are significantly higher in the high performing organisations. This does provide some evidence that EI can make a difference in terms of organisational performance. However, it does not tell us anything about the causality. Furthermore, it raises intriguing questions around the impact of the organisation’s culture on the development of people’s Emotional Intelligence.

In order to further explore the potential linkages between EI and culture it is first necessary to reflect on what is known about organisational culture in general. There is a high level of agreement that this is a complex and difficult area. However in spite of these difficulties its importance is widely recognised.

The role culture plays in performance seems obvious since all businesses are people businesses... Not only their hands, but their heads and hearts are engaged in the enterprise’s mission
(Deal and Kennedy, 1999)

It is also clear that culture is the link between the individual’s experiences and values and how they are mediated by the expectations and value systems within their society (e.g. Schein, 1985). Culture cannot be viewed in absolute terms, there is no right or wrong culture, merely different manifestations, some of which will closely match our own experiences and some of which are at odds with our own experience.

Since all culture is about the way we relate to each other, the model that Goffee and Jones (1998) propose is compelling as it explores the social architecture of organisations, in relation to two conceptually distinct types of social relations—those of sociability and solidarity.

Sociability, for example, refers to the networks we develop by choice or those we inherit such as family. These are natural networks where there is a sharing of values, backgrounds, interests, family ties, etc. *Solidarity* describes relationships that exist in the public sphere. These will be based on common tasks, clear goals and shared functions. It would not be so important that people like one another, as long as they are working effectively towards their chosen goal. Both of these dimensions can be either positive or negative.

This model results in four cultural categories which are:

Networked: Typically these organisations will have a friendly feel. Importance is placed on getting along together. Achieving results are important, but also of equal importance is how these are done and how people have been treated along the way.

Mercenary: The opposite of Networked enterprise. In this type of organisation it is the function and purpose of the relationship that is important, rather than the social nuances of interactions.

Fragmented: In such organisations it is the individual freedom that is important. Homeworking or outsourcing is heavily relied upon.

Communal: With high levels of sociability and solidarity, this is an organisation where relationships are important and teamwork is common.

Both EI and corporate culture are constructs which attempt to explain variation in performance. Whilst some have focused on demonstrating the links between organisation culture and performance, others focus on the individual and, in particular their levels of EI, and performance. However, it is clear from much of the work in this area that whilst EI will account for some of the variations in performance of individuals, their performance does not occur in isolation from their environment, but is likely to be directly or indirectly influenced by the organisation’s culture. By placing EI and its effects on an individual’s performance in the context of Corporate Culture, we can develop a contextual model of EI which can have an impact on performance at both individual and organisational level (Higgs and Dulewicz, 2002). However, to further our understanding of the role that corporate culture may have on an individual’s level of EI, we need to explore what if any relationship exists between the two. Indeed Higgs and Dulewicz (2002) have developed this as a theoretical framework by looking at how cultures are likely to harness or punish components of Emotional Intelligence. In particular they have related this to the Goffee and Jones (1998) framework. Their hypothesised model is shown in Table 2 below.

In order to explore the relationship between EI and organisational culture more directly Higgs and Dulewicz developed a culture questionnaire designed to assess elements of an organisation’s culture which would be likely to have a notable impact on individuals in terms of exhibiting or developing EI behaviours (Higgs and McGuire, 2001). The questionnaire was developed from an extensive review of culture, human resource management and performance management literatures. The elements of the EI

Culture (Goffee and Jones culture types)	EI Components		
	Likely to be rewarded	Likely to be punished	Neutral
Networked	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Interpersonal Sensitivity - Conscientiousness and Integrity - Influence - Self Awareness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Motivation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Decisiveness
Communal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Self Awareness - Conscientiousness and Integrity - Interpersonal Sensitivity - Decisiveness - Influence 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Motivation - Emotional Resilience
Mercenary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Motivation - Emotional Resilience - Decisiveness - Influence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Interpersonal Sensitivity - Conscientiousness and Integrity - Self Awareness 	
Fragmented	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Decisiveness - Motivation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Conscientiousness and Integrity - Interpersonal Sensitivity - Self Awareness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Emotional Resilience - Influence

Higgs and Dulewicz (2002)

Table 2: Cultural Components of Emotional Intelligence

Culture questionnaire are:

Self Awareness: The organisation has processes in place which make it aware of how it feels about its business, products, markets and stakeholders at any time. This awareness is based on a clear self-image which is widely shared within the organisation. It is aware of how stakeholders and other outsiders perceive the organisation and its actions.

Emotional Resilience: The organisation has processes in place which enable it to absorb attack and criticism (particularly if it is perceived as unfair or unjust). It is able to manage internal communications in a way which ensures that such attacks do not deflect it from its strategy. It recognises potential damaging shifts in its internal climate and has systems for controlling and managing these.

Motivation: These are clear, well understood and shared long term goals. Events which appear to threaten or deflect performance are responded to in a way which

ensures that the long term strategy remains intact. Actions which are short term are avoided if their benefits will damage achievement of long term aims. Business setbacks are seen as problems to be managed rather than leading to the abandoning of long term goals.

Interpersonal Sensitivity: The organisation has established processes which enable it to understand the feelings, need and motivations of its stakeholders. It uses this information to underpin its strategies, actions and decisions. Processes are established to manage relationships with all stakeholder groups.

Influence: Structures are in place to ensure that in interactions with all stakeholder groups the organisation is able to present persuasive arguments which support the achievement of goals deemed to be aligned with the vision, values and business strategy.

Intuitiveness: Processes which are in place to encourage individuals and teams to make decisions which are perceived as essential to business performance when

faced with incomplete or ambiguous information. The extent to which the organisation values and supports the use of individual experience and intuition, based on this experience, in the decision-making process.

Conscientiousness: What the organisation says in public, its advertising, PR and espoused values are consistent with how people experience the organisation. In addition, the organisation's behaviours are perceived to be in line with the prevailing ethical behaviour that society expects.

A study to explore the EI : Culture relationship was designed using the EIQ-managerial questionnaire to assess individual EI and the EI Culture questionnaire to assess the organisational culture. In total nine organisations agreed to participate in the study. On average 20 managers in each organisation completed an individual EI assessment. Each organisation also provided around 20 respondents who completed the EI Culture questionnaire. For each organisation the average individual EI scores and average culture scores were used for the analysis. Analysis of the structure of the EI Culture questionnaire showed it to be a very reliable instrument. The results of the analysis (t-tests) showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between high average levels of individual EI and high scores on the EI Culture questionnaire. These results are summarised in Table 3.

The data was further analysed in order to explore whether company size (based on annual turnover) or total staff employed had any impact on the findings. However, these analyses showed that there were no differences based on the size of the organisation.

More detailed analysis of all of the questionnaires indicated that the broad elements of culture having the most notable relationship to higher levels of Emotional Intelligence were:

- Having a relationship focus.
- Strong customer focus.
- Balance between task and people needs.
- Both what is achieved and **how** it is achieved and rewarded.
- Open communication and discussion.

Paired Comparison	Significance of Differences
EI Overall: Culture Overall	Highly significant
EI Self Aware: Culture Self Aware	Highly significant
EI Resilience: Culture Resilience	Highly significant
EI Motivation: Culture Motivation	Highly significant
EI Sensitivity: Culture Sensitivity	Highly significant
EI Influence: Culture Influence	Highly significant
EI Intuitiveness: Culture Intuitiveness	Highly significant
EI Conscientiousness: Culture Conscientiousness	Highly significant

Table 3: Average Individual EI Compared to Culture Scores

- Absence of blame culture (i.e. constructive attitude to mistakes).

Conclusions

One of the reasons that Emotional Intelligence is so compelling as a construct is that it provides some insights which help to explain the difference between outstanding and average levels of managerial performance (Goleman, 1998; Higgs and Dulewicz, 2002).

Emotional Intelligence has been shown to be an important variable in accounting for variance in both advancement and performance in an organisational context (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000). This is the significance of harnessing this capacity within an organisation that could be a crucial differentiating factor in the struggle to achieve sustainable competitive advantage.

The results of the above exploratory studies do provide some evidence to support the view that attention to Emotional Intelligence can have significant benefits for an organisation. Given the indicated link between average levels of individual EI and organisational performance the second study would suggest that organisations should examine elements of their culture in order to promote and support the development of individual Emotional Intelligence.

The potential significance of the culture: EI linkage could be seen as being important in the light of the growing evidence that both employee engagement and talent management have strong linkages to the competitiveness and performance of organisations.

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BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

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Enhancing Team Performance Through Emotional Intelligence Coaching



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We report the findings of a case study exploring how the development of project team leader's emotional intelligence (EI) resulted in increased self and subordinate ratings of team effectiveness and productivity. A total of thirty-seven project team leaders, 19 males and 18 females, operating within an information technology (IT) and software-integration environment participated in a five-month program to develop their workplace EI. The described programme consisted of both group and one-on-one cognitive-behavioural oriented coaching aimed at addressing the following three issues: inconsistent demonstration of EI behaviours by project team leaders, misalignment between project team leaders and direct report's perceptions of the project team's effectiveness and, poor team processes and interpersonal effectiveness. Pre-and-post emotional intelligence and team effectiveness assessments were completed by all participants and twenty-five randomly selected project team members ('subordinates'). Using both One-Way and Repeated-Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), results indicate project team leaders emotional intelligence significantly improved as a result of the EI development intervention, with the greatest improvement being for the EI facet of decision making; $F(1, 34) = 40.07, p < .001$. Significant improvements in self and subordinate ratings of team effectiveness were also realised, with no significant difference in project team leader and project team member's perceptions of the project team's effectiveness and performance post intervention. The generated results support the designed EI development programme's efficacy in fostering more emotionally intelligent ways of leading a project team.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, coaching, teamwork, team performance

Introduction

Emotional intelligence (EI) contributes to a number of important workplace performance indicators, such as: leadership style and effectiveness (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Palmer, Gardner & Stough, 2003); creativity, problem solving and workplace innovation (Jordan & Troth, 2004); interpersonal skills and the capacity to foster positive relationships with work colleagues (Ciarrochi, Forgas & Mayer, 2001; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Jordan & Troth, 2004; Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter & Buckley, 2003); motivation and enthusiasm (Abraham, 2004; Carmeli & Josman, 2006; Gardner & Stough, 2003); and team productivity (Ilarda & Findlay, 2006; Prati et al., 2003). Indeed, research exploring the role of emotional intelligence in individual and organisational performance consistently identifies the need to recognise, develop and foster those attitudes and behaviours underpinning effective EI at work.

Much of the research relating to emotional intelligence, however, has centred on the individual. Within a workplace context, less research has examined whether an individual's emotional intelligence is the same as that of the group in which they operate (Gant & Agazarian,

2004). Put another way, the popular sporting analogy: "a team of champions does not necessarily result in a champion team" may also apply to the emotional intelligence of a group. It is important for future research to investigate group emotional intelligence as doing so furthers our understanding of group processes.

In a recent pilot project with a large Australian retail organisation, we set out to assess whether developing project team leader's emotional intelligence resulted in improvements in self and subordinate ratings of project team effectiveness. The case study that follows outlines the team effectiveness issues particular to the project, key design considerations pertaining to the project's EI development intervention, measures used to assess the efficacy of the EI development intervention, details of the project's key activities and durations, the project's pre-and-post EI intervention results and, finally, future considerations for conducting similar EI-grounded interventions.

The case study is very much based on a practical application of emotional intelligence within a specific work context—project team leaders operating within an information technology (IT) and software-integration environment. However, it is hoped that designed

intervention and subsequent lessons learned will further support the premise that emotional intelligence development has utility in facilitating improved team functioning and performance for work teams implementing organisational change.

Setting the scene

A total of thirty-seven project team leaders, 19 males and 18 females, responsible for the IT and software integration of two multi-million dollar projects within the same organisation participated in the project. The project team leaders operate within a matrix reporting structure and are responsible for the daily coordination of over 300 project-focused staff. The two projects involved the integration of employee payroll and supplier invoicing software systems across a geographically dispersed organisation consisting of over 3,000 offices and retail outlets.

Typical of many project environments, the project team leaders who participated in the emotional intelligence development programme operated within an environment that involved juggling multiple and competing priorities, whilst adhering to time, human resource (HR) and budgetary pressures; and managing competing expectations from each project's many internal stakeholders and external suppliers and software vendors.

We were invited to meet with human resource professionals responsible for each project's people management issues to discuss how emotional intelligence development might enhance team cohesion and team leader-team member interpersonal interactions. In the months leading up to our involvement, the two projects had experienced significant project milestone slippages, increasing employee turnover and absenteeism and sub-standard work output (as assessed by key stakeholders to each project). A feasibility study had commenced regarding the abandonment of one of the two projects.

In addition, a recent employee satisfaction survey generated feedback from project team members that project team leaders were indecisive with poor lateral thinking skills, ineffective as role models, inconsistent when communicating current and pending work demands, and had demonstrated disharmony as a senior leadership group.

Considering the context, in collaboration with the human resource professional and key stakeholders to both projects we identified the following three desired outcomes from implementing an emotional intelligence grounded intervention:

1. Enhanced demonstration of EI behaviours by project team leaders.
2. Greater alignment in perceptions of the team's effectiveness and performance between project team leaders and their direct reports (i.e., project team members).
3. Improved process (e.g., work quality and output; problem solving, creativity and innovation) and interpersonal (e.g., team leader role-modelling and interpersonal communication) aspects of team effectiveness and performance.

The remainder of this case study will outline how emotional intelligence development was implemented to address each of these key aspects. To this end, pre-and-

post assessments of the above aspects were undertaken. Significant positive changes in each aspect's selected assessment post-intervention were used to determine the programme's success.

Key design considerations pertaining to the project's EI development intervention

In developing an appropriate emotional intelligence oriented intervention, we reviewed current methods for developing individual emotional intelligence (for a list of useful resources, see Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Dasborough & Ashakansy, 2003; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Gantt & Agazarian, 2004; Goleman, 1998; Greene & Grant, 2003; Neenan & Dryden, 2002.) Our review yielded the following six programme design considerations: the establishment of emotional intelligence team norms, a blended approach consisting of both individual and group interventions, emotional intelligence development methodologies based on traditional short-term therapies, high cross-participant consistency in the programme's delivery, an intervention conducted over a period of time, and the identification and addressing of each individual project team leader's specific areas of emotional intelligence strength and deficiency.

Research undertaken by Druskat and Wolff (2001) suggests that most high performing work teams have established attitudinal and behavioural norms related to effective emotional intelligence. The researchers subsequently outlined example emotionally intelligent norms which, they suggest, are critical for the effectiveness of any high performing team. Emotionally intelligent team norms underpin the building of trust, identity, team belief and the recognition of the team's role within a larger organisational system. Therefore, the intervention design needed to guide project team leaders towards collectively identifying the project team's emotionally intelligent team norms.

Although the development of team emotional intelligence is—obviously—constructed within a group, the specific emotional intelligence development needs of individual group members might best be addressed in a different forum (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Goleman, 1998). For example, one project team leader may find it difficult to understand and empathise with the feelings, motivations and drives of his or her team whilst another might recognise the need to enhance his or her capacity to manage and regulate feelings of stress and frustration at others not meeting agreed-to timelines. Therefore, one-on-one coaching sessions were also integrated into the design of the EI development intervention. Further, to maintain continuity of the programme's focus between project team leaders all coaching sessions followed a pre-determined agenda, purpose and content. The session coach assisted project team leaders to apply the session's content to his or her individual EI development needs.

Emotional intelligence still remains an emerging construct in psychology and business (Zeider, Matthews & Roberts, 2004). As a result, methodologies underpinning development of individual and team emotional intelligence should be grounded in research validated psychological principles, be outcome-focused and evidence-based. Emerging research focused on emotional

intelligence suggests that like counselling methodologies related to resolving an individual's emotional distress; the development of emotional intelligence is best implemented via a blend of the following psychology-based coaching methodologies: Cognitive Behavioural Coaching (CBC), Rational Emotive Behaviour Coaching (REBC) and Solution Focused Coaching (SFC) (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Greene & Grant, 2003; Neenan & Dryden, 2002). In the design of the present emotional intelligence development intervention, cognitive-behavioural coaching was adopted as the programme's guiding methodology for both group and individual coaching sessions.

Research undertaken by Pearce and Sims (2002) into the effectiveness of change management teams found that when a team's size increased the consistent demonstration of behaviours underpinning team effectiveness decreased. To address this issue, standardised EI-based support materials and practice activities were developed. These materials were modular in format, specific to each group and individual coaching session and followed a set agenda: the session's purpose and anticipated outcomes; pre-reading and support material related to the session's purpose; an activity designed to highlight specific EI behaviours; and the identification and planning of appropriate post-session 'homework' activities to further reinforce the session's content. To further foster consistency in the programme's delivery we implemented two further programme design initiatives: first, the use of minimal coaching resources to mitigate potential differences in coach's styles (only two coaches to work with all project team leaders) and, second, the active participation in all aspects of the programme by the HR professional assigned to each project.

Due to the present intervention's use of a cognitive-behavioural approach to developing project team leader's emotional intelligence it followed that the programme would be conducted over a period of time (Neenan & Dryden, 2002). However, no previous research had been undertaken to determine the 'ideal' duration of an EI development intervention. The programme's duration was, therefore, determined by the number and type of facets making-up the behaviourally-based emotional intelligence assessment utilised (Palmer & Stough, 2001). Further, the duration of the programme was such to provide project team leaders with opportunities for relevant practice homework.

The final consideration for this programme related to establishing a statistically valid and psychometrically sound base-line measure of the individual project team leader's emotional intelligence (MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2003). Assessing a project team leader's emotional intelligence at the programme's commencement provided a twofold benefit: first, we could accurately identify the specific facets of each project team leader's emotional intelligence strengths and deficiencies and, second, we could effectively assess each project team leader's relative emotional intelligence development post intervention. The programme utilised a cognitive-behavioural coaching methodology and, therefore, utilised a behaviourally oriented measure of workplace emotional intelligence.

In summary, the emotional intelligence development intervention adopted for this programme consisted of the

following attributes:

- A focus on the identification and implementation of emotionally intelligent norms of thinking and behaving as a group.
- A blend of group and individual coaching sessions grounded in psychological principles such as cognitive behavioural coaching.
- An intervention conducted over time (approximately five months) with consistency maintained via pre-developed coaching agendas and session modules.
- A suitable emotional intelligence assessment and targeted emotional intelligence development personal action plan.

Assessing the efficacy of the EI development intervention: Assessment measures

To evaluate any improvements in team effectiveness as a result of the EI-development intervention, a questionnaire battery was completed by all project team leaders pre-and-post the programme. Further, twenty-five randomly selected project team members (i.e., direct reports to the project team leaders) also completed the same questionnaire battery. In addition, project team leaders also completed a behaviourally based emotional intelligence self-assessment. The questionnaire battery was completed via the Internet during work hours and took each respondent approximately 30 – 35 minutes.

The following pre-and-post assessments were used to measure individual project team leader's workplace emotional intelligence and team effectiveness and performance.

Genos Emotional Intelligence Assessment Scale (Workplace Version). Emotional Intelligence was assessed by the Genos Emotional Intelligence Assessment Scale (GEIAS) (Palmer & Stough, 2001). The GEIAS (formerly the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test; SUIET) is a self-report instrument comprising sixty-four items, with a balanced number of positively and negatively phrased items. The GEIAS was specifically designed for use in the workplace, which indexes individuals' perceptions of the way they feel, think and act at work, with emotions, and on the basis of emotional information. Respondents are instructed to indicate the extent to which each statement is true of the way they typically think, feel and act at work using a five-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). An example item is: "I can tell how colleagues are feeling at work".

The GEIAS provides scores on five facets of Emotional Intelligence (EI): Emotional Recognition and Expression, the extent to which the respondent perceives their own emotions and how effectively they express those feelings to others at work; Understanding Emotions, the extent to which the respondent perceives and understands the emotions of others in the workplace; Decision-Making, the extent to which the respondent considers how they feel about different options when making decisions and how those different choices might affect both themselves and others emotionally; Emotional Management, the

extent to which the respondent is able to repair negative moods and emotions and to maintain beneficial positive moods and emotions both within themselves and others at work and, Emotional Control, the extent to which the respondent is able to control strong emotions (e.g., frustration, anger, sadness or hostility) experienced at work (Palmer & Stough, 2001). The authors claim good reliability with reported reliability coefficients (α) as follows: Emotional Recognition and Expression ($\alpha = .73$); Understanding of Emotions External ($\alpha = .63$); Emotions Direct Cognition ($\alpha = .83$); Emotional Management ($\alpha = 0.72$); Emotional Control ($\alpha = .72$); Total EI Score ($\alpha = 0.88$) and good scale validity (Palmer & Stough, 2003).

Team Effectiveness Scale. Team effectiveness and performance was assessed using the Team Effectiveness Scale (TES) (Pearce & Sims, 2002). The TES is a self and other rated measure consisting of 26 items measuring seven facets underpinning high team performance. Respondents are instructed to indicate the extent to which each statement is true of their current work team using a five-point scale ranging from 1 (definitely not true) to 5 (definitely true). All items are positively phrased. Example items include: "The team delivers on its commitments", "The quality of the team's output is very high", "The team keeps everyone informed", and "The team is making very good progress on the team's charter".

The scale was designed to measure the high cross-functional and interdependent nature of change management teams. The scale consists of the following seven facets: Output Effectiveness, whether the team delivers its objectives on time, within budget and at a high standard; Quality Effectiveness, whether the team consistently produces a high quality of work output; Change Effectiveness, whether the team is able to effectively overcome problems by solution finding and cognitive and/or behaviour adaptation; Organising and Planning Effectiveness, whether the team sets goal and generates workable plans for the achievement of their objectives; Interpersonal Effectiveness, whether the team proactively communicates its progress to other members of the team; Value Effectiveness, whether the team's contribution to the greater good (the organisation) is perceived as valuable and; Overall Effectiveness, whether the team is generally making good progress towards its objectives. The scale authors indicate a total (or 'Global') measure of team effectiveness can be generated by summing the scores for each of the seven facets of the TES. The scale authors claim good reliability with a reported reliability coefficient (α) for the *Global* team effectiveness measure of $\alpha = .98$.

The project also used coach and project team leader specific activity and programme evaluation forms.

The results of the programme and general discussion

The data collected was analysed using SPSS Version 11.5.0. The theoretical range, pre-and-post intervention means (M) and standard deviations (SD), and t -scores for each measure and sub-scale are presented in Table 2. No gender differences were found. Combined responses for males and females are used in the data analysis of this study.

Objective 1: Enhanced individual demonstration of EI behaviours at work by project team leaders. Using Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), the results presented in Table 2 show a significant enhancement in project team leaders' self-assessed demonstration of workplace emotional intelligence as a result of the EI development intervention. All five facets of emotional intelligence are significant at the $p = .05$ level. The EI facet of Understanding Others Emotions is significant at the $p = .01$ level and the EI facets of Emotional Recognition and Expression and Decision-Making are significant at the $p = .001$ level. This result suggests that the designed EI development intervention significantly improved project team leaders' workplace emotional intelligence.

Project team leader's strongest EI enhancement is for the EI facet of decision making; $F(1, 36) = 40.07, p < .001$. The result indicates that post-intervention project team leaders are more likely to demonstrate they have considered how they feel about different options when making workplace decisions. Recent research into effective workplace problem solving, creativity and innovation suggests that considering one's own and others' emotions when resolving workplace problems results in increased lateral thinking, better quality decisions, more effective negotiation and, greater buy-in from others impacted by the decision (Downey, Papageorgiou & Stough, 2006; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Fulmer & Barry, 2004).

Objective 2: Greater alignment in perceptions of the team's effectiveness and performance by both project team leaders and their direct reports. One-Way ANOVA was used to determine if a significant difference between project team leader and project team member's perceptions of the team effectiveness and performance existed prior to the commencement of the emotional intelligence development initiative. Project team leader versus project team member perceptions of team effectiveness and performance was assessed using the *Global Team Effectiveness* variable of the TES. Results indicate a significant difference between each group, $F(1, 48) = 9.75, p < .01$ with project team leader's perceptions of the team's effectiveness greater than their subordinates. Post intervention results indicate no significant difference in project team leaders and project team member's perceptions of the team's effectiveness and performance $F(1, 44) = 2.69, p = ns$. Result indicates stronger alignment regarding the project team's effectiveness and performance between project team leaders and project team members as a result of the EI development intervention.

Objective 3: Improved process and interpersonal aspects of team effectiveness and performance. As presented in Table 2, using a Repeated Measures ANOVA the results suggest a significant difference between pre-and-post intervention team effectiveness. Building on the programme's second objective (above), the results indicate creating a shared understanding in team effectiveness and current and expected performance between all members of a team results in improved work output and quality; an enhanced capacity to manage change, as well as organise and plan work tasks; greater interpersonal and relationship skills; a stronger perception that the team is providing value to its many stakeholders and the broader organisational system; and a recognition that team is generally making good progress towards the team's goals and objectives.

The structure, key activities and duration of the emotional intelligence development intervention

Table 1 outlines the emotional intelligence development interventions five phases and the overall duration of the programme; key activities within each phase; the timings for each activity and; the role of the coach, project team leader and human resource professional for each activity and phase.

Table 1: The emotional intelligence development intervention for project team leaders and project team members

<i>Roles and accountabilities</i>							
Project's weekly timings	Activity	Activity explanation	Activity/Session (1-12) objective	Delivery	Coach	Project Team Leader	HR support
Phase 1							
Week 1	Programme briefing workshop	Programme's purpose and expected outcomes outlined	Programme's participants made aware of the structure and purpose of the EI development intervention	Workshop format (one-hour)	Conduct briefing session	Attend briefing session	Outline how HR will support programme participants
Phase 2							
Week 2 - 4	Pre-programme assessment	Programme participants and subordinates complete relevant assessments	Baseline assessment of team effectiveness and EI established	Online (30-35 minutes)	Administer the assessments	Complete the required assessments	Follow up non-compliance
Phase 3							
Week 5	Group coaching session	Establish the team's emotional intelligence norms	1) Identify and agree on the effective and ineffective EI behaviours ('norms') underpinning the team's effectiveness	Group coaching session (four hours)	Prepare and conduct the session	Identify and agree on the effective and ineffective EI behaviours and establish expectations moving forward	Administer post session evaluation
Week 6 - 9	One-on-one coaching session	Conduct modularised EI development coaching sessions	2) "About your emotional intelligence" 3) "Recognising what you feel at work, and why" 4) "Effectively expressing how you feel to your immediate team" 5) "Connecting, understanding and empathising with your immediate team"	Four weekly one-on-one coaching sessions (60 minutes)	Prepare and conduct coaching session	Attend coaching session and identify appropriate 'homework' activities	Administer post session evaluation
Week 10	Group workshop/ coaching session	Groups focus on how emotions impact team creativity and innovation	6) Using team EI to solve problems, engage others and demonstrate creativity and innovation with your immediate team	Group coaching session (four hours)	Prepare and conduct the session	Determine how emotions impact team innovation, and plan team's enhancement	Administer post session evaluation
Week 11 - 14	One-on-one coaching session	Conduct modularised EI development coaching sessions	7) "Managing and regulating your own emotions at work" 8) "Influencing the emotions and motivating your immediate team" 9) "Demonstrating effective EI behaviours with key project stakeholders" 10) "Review your EI development personal action plan"	Four weekly one-on-one coaching sessions (60 minutes)	Prepare and conduct coaching session	Attend coaching session and identify appropriate 'homework' activities	Administer post session evaluation

Table 1: The emotional intelligence development intervention for project team leaders and project team members....continued

Project's weekly timings	Activity	Activity explanation	Activity/Session (1-12) objective	Delivery	Roles and accountabilities		
					Coach	Project Team Leader	HR support
Phase 4							
Week 16 - 18	Post-programme assessments	Project team leaders and direct reports complete relevant assessments	Post intervention measure of team effectiveness and performance, team commitment and EI	Online (30-35 minutes)	Administer the assessments	Complete the required assessments	Follow up non-compliance
Phase 5							
Week 19	Group workshop/coaching session	Group coaching session focused on the team's progress	11) Review the progress of the team's EI development, the impact on team effectiveness and performance, and planning for sustained change	Group coaching session (four hours)	Prepare and conduct the session	Identify EI changes and plan for sustained behavioural change	Administer post session evaluation
Week 20	One-on-one coaching session	Conduct modularised EI development coaching session	12) "Review the progress of your individual EI development and planning for sustained change"	One-on-one coaching session (60 minutes)	Prepare and conduct coaching session	Attend coaching session and identify appropriate 'homework' activities	Administer post session and overall programme evaluation

Contrary to expectations, results indicate that project team leaders did not perceive a significant improvement in the team's interpersonal effectiveness as a result of the emotional intelligence development intervention; $F(1, 36)=3.28, p=ns$. This result is surprising as the intervention was focused on creating greater interpersonal effectiveness within the team. However, as all one-on-one coaching sessions focused on how individual project team leaders could develop greater harmony and interpersonal connectedness with their immediate work teams; perhaps this may have resulted in a reduced emphasis on developing stronger relationships with peers. Future studies should address this anomaly.

Future considerations for conducting similar EI-grounded interventions

A post EI development intervention review meeting between the researchers, coaches, selected project team leaders and HR professionals sponsoring the pilot programme suggested the following future considerations:

Increase the duration between the programme's activities from one to two weeks to allows programme participants adequate time to reinforce the specific EI behaviours practiced within group and one-on-one coaching sessions.

Due to the cyclical nature of project environments, reduce the number of one-on-one coaching sessions to allow participants to complete the programme in three months.

To better understand and address specific relationship issues, utilise a multi-rater (i.e., 360-degree) assessment of emotional intelligence to better identify a participant's specific areas of EI strength and development.

Conclusion

Project team leaders operating within an information technology (IT) and software-integration environment participated in this emotional intelligence development programme. The intervention focused on establishing emotional intelligence team norms, the identification of individually demonstrated emotionally intelligence patterns of thinking and behaving, and the demonstration of those EI patterns of interactions with each project team leader's immediate team. The generated results support the programme's efficacy in fostering more emotionally intelligent ways of leading a project team and the resulting improvements in team effectiveness and performance; thus demonstrating the utility of emotional intelligence development within the workplace. Returning to the guiding premise of this case study—to ascertain whether a collection of emotionally intelligent individuals translate into an emotionally intelligent team—our findings suggest that enhancing individual's emotional intelligence does improve a team's demonstration of effective EI behaviours. This subsequently generates a positive flow-on effect regarding important organisational outcomes, a highly practical outcome indeed.

	<i>Theoretical range</i>	<i>Pre Intervention</i>		<i>Post Intervention</i>		<i>F</i>
		Mean (<i>M</i>)	<i>SD</i>	Mean (<i>M</i>)	<i>SD</i>	
GEIAS ^{a b}						
Emotional recognition/expression	1 - 99	48.83	25.99	73.43	23.05	19.29***
Understanding others' emotions	1 - 99	49.46	27.93	69.20	26.64	11.21**
Decision-making	1 - 99	31.27	26.79	72.80	24.79	40.07***
Emotional management	1 - 99	55.32	32.90	71.63	26.71	5.15*
Emotional control	1 - 99	60.70	30.72	75.06	24.81	5.48*
TES (Project Team Leader rated) ^c						
Output effectiveness	5 - 25	23.54	4.61	29.45	4.25	25.91***
Quality effectiveness	3 - 15	13.81	3.26	19.90	2.85	16.56***
Change effectiveness	3 - 15	11.96	2.58	13.70	1.56	13.04**
Organising & planning effectiveness	4 - 20	19.15	4.21	23.55	3.55	18.39***
Interpersonal effectiveness	4 - 20	18.58	4.59	20.65	6.27	3.28 ^{ns}
Value effectiveness	3 - 15	16.08	2.51	18.70	1.95	30.78***
Overall effectiveness	4 - 20	17.62	2.38	19.65	2.68	10.98**
Global Team Effectiveness	26 - 130	120.73	21.95	142.6	18.24	21.69***
TES (Project Team Member rated) ^d						
Output effectiveness	5 - 25	19.46	3.31	26.65	3.90	45.38***
Quality effectiveness	3 - 15	11.83	2.16	16.00	2.37	46.00***
Change effectiveness	3 - 15	12.33	1.62	13.31	1.69	4.51*
Organising & planning effectiveness	4 - 20	16.25	1.76	31.34	3.70	44.95***
Interpersonal effectiveness	4 - 20	15.17	2.71	20.12	4.83	20.75***
Value effectiveness	3 - 15	13.21	1.79	17.46	2.25	50.48***
Overall effectiveness	4 - 20	16.50	2.00	18.81	2.56	13.34***
Global Team Effectiveness	26 - 130	104.75	12.59	133.69	18.31	44.60***

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, *ns* = not significant

Note: ^a Means, standard deviations and theoretical range for each sub-scale of the GEIAS represent percentile scores from a normative benchmark; ^b Degrees of Freedom (1, 34); ^c Degrees of Freedom (1, 19); ^d Degrees of Freedom (1, 23)

Table 2: Theoretical ranges, means, standard deviations (SD) and t-test results for the different measures

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BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

Richard Harmer is a workplace coach and facilitator with experience in the development and implementation of emotional intelligence enhancement programmes. He has expertise in the assessment and development of leadership capability, sales performance, team effectiveness and individual self-awareness. Richard is also a psychologist and Full Member of the Australian Psychological Society. He also holds a Masters degree in Psychology from Swinburne University of Technology where he completed research in emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction, work-life balance and well-being. He is published in this area. Richard is currently a PhD student in Psychology at Australian Catholic University (ACU) where he is exploring how individuals create meaning in life and work through spiritual practice. (rjharm001@student.acu.edu.au).

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From Show and Tell to Listen and Learn A Consulting Team's Journey of Applied Emotional Intelligence



STEPHEN E. GARBER CEO, of Third Level, Ltd

A high-powered consulting firm uses the power of applied emotional intelligence delivered through training and coaching to improve their internal and external relationships, thus improving performance, profit and sustainability of practice. Rather than an academic exercise or report, this article is a narrative of the transformation of the individuals and the improvement of the team's results. This article is intended to give some colour to the EI model, and inspire the use of the tools of EI and coaching in the most intellectually challenging and sophisticated of business environments.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, leadership development, client relations, engagement, retention and recruiting, sustainable teamwork

The first thing you notice is that James' internal motor is always running. You can almost hear the engine's wheels whirling when sitting across from him. His left leg is bouncing up and down, and even at the rare moment when there is no computer under them, his fingers drum away constantly. He's built solidly, emanating a sense of strength, and through his thick, horn-rimmed glasses you find eyes that are as intelligent as you've seen. And there's always a smile in them. That is a very good thing, because he speaks so quickly, it's hard to catch his words. And, he often is simultaneously on the phone, tapping out emails, and chatting with someone standing near his open desk. So, knowing if he's even talking to you is often a challenge, and when you get his point, sometimes you just feel a bit stupid...

Paul gets your attention. He is tall, handsome, athletic and has a very kind smile. He speaks in soft tones, and pays attention to you with his eyes, and has a quiet about him that is more than interesting. When he speaks, he is very bright, and seems to be on point. Men feel good in his presence, and women are charmed. After a few chats, you realise he isn't taking many risks. He's playing it safe...

Christine speaks with a well-heeled London accent. She has fine features and dresses professionally and elegantly. In one-to-one chats she comes through as bright, insightful, and full of great ideas. When you see her in any group situation, she has a tendency to fade into the background—and you find yourself wondering when the powerhouse inside will be revealed for her bosses, colleagues and clients to see. She clearly holds back, and her career is stalling...

These are truly the best and the brightest in the consulting world. They've been overachievers at every level – or at least since they decided to put their incredible talents to work. Oxford, Cambridge, LSE, and other top-tier schools have provided the academic education for these amazing minds—and those of their colleagues. They have a proven work ethic that has helped them to survive the cutthroat competition and the mind-numbing, personal life-debilitating demands of the consultant's career. Every few years the firm chooses some to move up, others to move on. They started 12-15 years ago with a large pool of their intellectual and academic peers. They have survived to be poised for achieving the holy grail, the position

formerly known as 'partner', now as a 'shareholder' in one of the most prestigious firms in The City—and the consulting world. They each desire to get to the next level—only...

Working harder and smarter is not enough. They need to:

Lead—inspirationally and effectively – huge teams that are pouring in the hours and pounding out the code, the plans, the work that makes up the largest business process/IT platform transformation of its type in the world—all while keeping the client's business running.

Collaborate—graciously—with their counterparts on the client's management team. The 'client' is anyone who still have a day job of running the business, most with years of working normal hours in a stable, conservative environment. They see themselves largely as employees for life in the same location, and who are less than *overjoyed* to see these flashy-car-driving, hard-living, fast-talking, and bouncing-around-the-world consultant-types come in and tell them what they ought to be doing.

Cooperate—as a team with their colleagues while competing for recognition, promotion and perhaps most importantly – resources to get their work done.

Influence—in the nicest sort of way—their clients to buy more work, and their bosses to support their candidacy for promotion.

In short, their work ethic and intellectual prowess is no longer enough. They need to add to their tool kits to get to the next level of success. That is where Emotional Intelligence comes into the picture.

The firm decided to explore a coaching/training initiative to help take their people, the project and the firm to its next level of success. As consultants, we would need to demonstrate a great return on:

The time the firms' people were investing (by far the highest cost),
The fees and expenses we commanded, and
The potential losses of efficiency through attrition and confronting of seemingly 'dormant' or benign issues. People might find the courage to leave to follow their dreams.

We interviewed 42 people to identify three core areas of growth potential:

- Personal/Career.
- Internal Team Development.
- Client Relations/Business Development.

We learned that the opportunity for success was profound.

Personal/Career: Most of the client population had never had anyone guide or advise them with an agenda that was solely and confidentially about them. We asked,

'How will you define your success?'

'What can we do to help you achieve your greatest success?'

'What is in the way of your success?'

'Whose help do you need to reach your goals, and how can you best enlist their support?'

They started the process of building and executing a personal plan for the success that they described.

The firm was happy with this approach, as they knew that retention and attraction of talent required a satisfied and motivated workforce. Happy people cooperate with and inspire others.

Internal Team Development: One of the most interesting outcomes was that there was very little of the normal office gossip, back-biting or politicking for advantage or promotion. That was very good news which meant little time was required to clean up relationships that were harming performance. In fact, it made identifying team 'pressure points' (areas where people are operating with agendas for personal/emotional reasons that are harming the greater good) much more challenging. It required some creative probing. Only when we asked how each of the teams were getting along/supporting each other did we uncover some areas of dysfunction. When we separately asked for perceptions of the relations between the leaders of those areas (higher up the organisation chart), did we begin to see a connection between some of the lack of openness, sharing and mutual support required for team success, and the perception of the relationships above. In other words, the poorly cooperating teams were led by people seen to be at odds with one another—or seemingly 'not getting along'. People see their leaders behave, listen to their leaders speak, and model those behaviours for approval and favour.

The firm wanted the project to move to its next level of cooperation, as many of the independent team efforts now had to be integrated into a larger cohesive 'holistic' approach. Our goal was clear: Improve the relationships among the leaders, and have everyone see themselves as leaders of a cooperative venture.

Client Relations/Sales: This area was of paramount importance to the firm.

Sales and revenues are the lifeblood of any organisation. The firm had a traditional paradigm that seemed not to be working as well as it had before. The reputation of the firm, its intellectual and technological advantage over its competitors, and its long-standing relationships with customers had allowed it to move from strength to strength in the dot com boom and beyond. Now, however, it had a few poor deliveries under its belt, the competition in the marketplace had seemingly caught up in process and technology (if not totally with the intellectual prowess of the people), and the customers were far more sophisticated in their demands for partnering, collaboration and risk.

What we did:

Demonstrate, Train, Coach. *Repeat*

As our own sessions with the team and individuals progressed, we first demonstrated the power of EI and the

coaching modality through our own connecting, listening and probing. We then trained and coached on some fundamentals of success as we see them in the new paradigm of business:

1. Technological superiority is short-lived, if existent at all. It becomes commoditised over time.
2. People drive success at firms where they are engaged with their managers and management. They don't drive at all where they are neutral, and they leave where they are dis-engaged.
3. People do business with people they like. 'Liking' is an emotional (if not intuitive) assessment of relationships that is informed by attitudes and behaviours.
4. Emotional Intelligence is about insights, behaviours and skills that can be learned and applied.
5. Applying EI will demonstrably improve engagement, performance and client relations/sales.

Applied EI skills

We worked over 18 months with people who were lightly involved with us (occasional coaching sessions) to those who committed to becoming change agents. The Change Agent Programme was designed to influence how the firm relates and communicates with its people and clients, learning the skills over a nine month period.

- I. Learn about yourself**—your hot buttons and your behaviours – as you yourself describe them
- II Get honest and reliable feedback** on how your behaviour is perceived at all levels through an EI 360 Assessment. Perception *is* reality.
- III Be Vulnerable**—
 - a. Be aware that you cannot do it alone, that you need others' guidance support and sometimes even help.
 - b. Remember that people want to help people they like and respect.
 - c. Sharing fears and doubts is actually a strength.
- IV Listen at three levels**—

connect personally to what is being said;
be clear about what is being said,
connect with the values, feelings and underlying issues that are being conveyed.
- V Ask empowering questions**—questions that are open-ended (not yes/no), draw out the thoughts and opinions of others, and which lead people to their own solutions.
- VI Teach a colleague to fish**—help others solve problems, don't be or see yourself as the problem-solver, or they will never solve problems without you (and that is NOT a good thing!)
- VII Think, Speak and Reward 'We'**
- VIII Celebrate Success**

We will discuss points 1-4 in this article.

- I. Learn about yourself**—your hot buttons and your behaviours—as you yourself describe them. Virtually all

systems of personal leadership development start with a foundation of understanding self. We have developed a system of helping a client in identifying his or her own hot buttons, as we believe that understanding one's own world view, the way we interpret and react to that view, and the result of our view/interpretation/behaviour, is the best way to take responsibility for our results.

Hot buttons, or emotional hot-spots, and the beliefs they give rise to form our core emotional outlook on life. We make deeply-felt decisions, that become our buttons, at a very young age. As we move into adulthood, we are unconsciously driven by decisions that we made when we were very young (experts debate whether it is from birth, at one to two, or five top six-years old) and we keep growing them. We repeat patterns of behaviour over and over again, very often expecting a different result.

Our buttons and beliefs colour our perceptions. Whether we know it or not, we constantly scan our world to gain evidence that we are right both about ourselves and about how the world works. This gives us a feeling of safety and security: *What we believe to be true, is true.* It feels comfortable to be familiar and even 'right' at some level, even when it creates uncomfortable actions, situations and results. Looking at the world today, it is painfully easy to see that most of us would rather be dead than wrong about our buttons and beliefs!

If we have a 'disregarded button', for example, and someone is five minutes late for a meeting, we are likely to perceive this as yet more evidence that 'people will disregard me'—then we react with anger, sullenness or even sabotage. People with a small *disregarded* button, on the other hand, may simply feel curious about why the other person is late and put it down to traffic. Those of us with a 'not good enough' button may find it hard to receive praise or acknowledgement for a job well done and may seek out environments in which praise is scarce—or create one by leading a team and giving scant if any praise. Engagement, retention and recruitment all suffer. When we perceive through our buttons, and allow them to control our behaviours, we create stress in self and others, and performance suffers. It is not events that drive our behaviour and cause us stress, it is our perceptions that do so.

In the situations above, we may protect, for example, our *disregarded* button by pretending it doesn't matter (although we are actually feeling rather resentful and know it will affect the relationship) or we may simply react in anger and accuse the other person of being disrespectful. Either way, our button is in control and our response is driven by it.

True leaders and self-actualised individuals consciously decide how we will behave when our buttons get pushed and our beliefs get challenged. Will we attack and defend? Clam up and close down? Or will we decide to recognise our buttons and reactions and consider other ways to view/interpret/respond to the evidence?

Understanding the concept that it is all perception and how our response is chosen is the key way forward into self and team leadership success.

How do we know if we are seeing and being seen in the external world where we do our interacting, creating,

and leading as we think we are in our own internal world?

II. Get honest and reliable feedback on how your behaviour is perceived at all levels through an EI 360 Assessment. Perception *is* reality.

When applied to the workplace, EI involves thinking 'intelligently' about our own and others' emotions and how they influence our thoughts and decisions, behaviours and results at work.



- IQ typically predicts 20-25% of the variance in workplace performance variables.
- Personality typically predicts 10-15% of the variance in workplace performance variables.
- EI predicts between 12-36% of the variance in workplace performance variables.

The Seven Dimensions of Genos EI

The coaching and training change agent programme centered on the Genos EI 360 assessment (Palmer, B.R., Gardner, L., & Stough, C. 2003). Participants were asked to nominate their managers, peers and direct reports to anonymously assess their behaviour, moods and attitudes through the use of the 360 tool. We then sat with each individual in one-to-one feedback sessions and reviewed their results. There were consistently areas where each participant recognised their opportunities for growth and change, and each identified the benefits of that change. They also came up with strategies for learning more from their colleagues, and making the appropriate behavioural change. Profound conversations resulted amongst the group in the group sessions and, more importantly, out 'in the business' as people discussed how best to lead, manage, motivate, and achieve client satisfaction and delight.

1. Emotional Self Awareness: The skill of **perceiving and understanding one's own emotions**

- People high on this dimension at work:
- Are more 'in-tune' with their moods, feelings and emotions at work.
- Demonstrate greater awareness of how their emotions may be influencing their thoughts and decisions.
- Demonstrate greater awareness of how their emotions may be influencing their behaviours and performance at work.
- More 'in-tune' with how their demeanour and behaviour may be impacting on colleagues.

2. Emotional Expression: The skill of **effectively expressing one's own emotions**

People high on this dimension at work:

- Effectively communicate how they feel about various issues at work; that is, in the right way, to the right degree and at the right time.
- Effectively utilise non-verbal emotional cues e.g., body language, tone of voice etc, to communicate how they feel.
- Create greater understanding about themselves amongst their colleagues.
- Are often described by colleagues as 'genuine and trustworthy'.

3. Emotional Understanding: The skill of **perceiving and understanding others emotions**

People high on this dimension at work:

- Are adept at reading others' non-verbal emotional cues at work.
- Understand what typically makes people feel various ways in the workplace e.g., annoyed & frustrated, satisfied and content, positive & optimistic.
- Are adept at reading others' emotional/mood states at work, e.g., bored or stressed with a given task, environment, etc
- Understand the approach to take with people to gain maximum effect, e.g., leadership, engagement, and communication styles.

4. Emotional Reasoning and Decision-Making: The skill of **utilising emotional information (from self and others) in reasoning and decision-making**

People high on this dimension at work:

- Consult others' feelings on issues at work to help derive solutions.
- Consider their own feelings on issues at work when decision-making, e.g., hiring decision.
- 'Think before they speak'.
- Account for the emotional/mood state of others prior to interacting or communicating with them.
- Achieve greater buy-in to decisions they implement in the workplace.

5. Emotional Self Management: The skill of **regulating and managing one's own emotions**

People high on this dimension at work:

- Maintain an optimistic and positive disposition at work.
- Move on quickly from events that cause them adversity.
- Don't ruminate on issues.
- Cope well with occupational stress.
- Implement strategies to help them maintain positive moods and emotions in the workplace.

6. Emotional Management of Others: The skill of **influencing the moods and emotions of others**

People high on this dimension at work:

- Create environments that make people feel more optimistic and positive in the workplace.

- Communicate and interact in ways that motivate and engage others at work.
- Help others see things from different perspectives.
- Help people think differently about things that are causing them adversity in the workplace.
- Help people identify more effective ways of responding (behaving) to events that are causing them adversity.

7. Emotional Self-Control: The skill of **effectively controlling strong emotions experienced at work (within one's self)**

- People high on this dimension at work:
- Have a long 'fuse'.
 - Overcome anger at work by thinking through what's causing it.
 - Find it easy to concentrate on a task when really excited or upset about something.
 - Express anger in the right way, at the right time, and with the right person.
 - Control their emotional reactions so that they achieve positive outcomes more often in challenging situations.

III. Be Vulnerable—be aware that you cannot do it alone, that you need others' guidance support and sometimes even help. Remember that people want to help people they like and respect.

No More Show and Tell

This was a huge challenge in the consulting workspace. Most consultants are educated and developed to provide answers to issues, having helped to uncover those issues in the first place. They are taught to **show and tell** the urgency of these issues, how great the firm's solutions have been for others and that their team are the perfect people to solve the problems. The firm and its people had a reputation in some arenas as arrogant and robotic. WE KNOW YOU NEED. OUR SOLUTION WORKS!

This was showing up not just in the sales process, but also in the client relations, daily problem-solving spaces. The client would report an issue, and the consultants would either immediately launch into problem solving, or suggest that it was the client's own issue, and, therefore, the firm had no responsibility in the matter—or BOTH!

Our programme helped them to see that more often than not, listening is the key. Defense is seen as attack, and just being empathetic, open, and listening solves all or most of all or most problems. Taking risks internally ('I need your help to solve the problem, boss; here is what I have tried/thought of...'), and with the client ('What would you like to do?' 'How can I help you?') often takes them much further. Vulnerability *is* strength, as the martial arts teach.

IV. Listen at three levels—

- connect personally to what is being said;
- be clear about what is being said,
- connect with the values, feelings and underlying issues that are being conveyed

'Listening effectively to others can be the most fundamental and powerful communication tool of all. When someone is willing to stop talking or thinking and begin truly listening to others, all of their interactions become easier, and communication problems are all but eliminated.'

(Blanchard & Johnson, 1982)

- How can I grow if I do not help?
- How can I help if I do not understand?
- How can I understand if I don't hear?
- How can I hear if I do not listen?
- How can I listen if I am busy speaking and proving my worth?
- People who listen, learn.
- People who feel listened to, trust the relationship more.

First Level Listening: Subjective Listening—It's all about me! ... A battle for air-time.

Consider a casual conversation: Each person brings an agenda to the interaction. This agenda may be as simple as a desire to be entertained (or to entertain), and thereby pass the time. It is a fun way to get to know each other, and to discover common interests. The agenda of the listener, consciously or unconsciously, becomes the subjective filter for anything said by the other person. How many times have you forgotten someone's name before they have even finished saying it? Why does that happen?

The listener's internal focus is on the listener's own concerns, such as what they want to say, rather than on hearing what the other person is saying. Ironically, if both people in a conversation are listening only at this level, it is likely that neither will hear the other.

Second Level Listening: Objective Listening—It's only about what *is* being said.

Objective listening takes place when the listener gives complete attention to the speaker. There is no thought given by either to how what the speaker is saying affects the listener. The listener is 'in the moment' with the speaker. He reframes the statements that he heard, and repeats the information. Internally, this level of listening is *characterized by feelings of curiosity and intellectual involvement*.

Third Level: Power Listening—It's about what the whole person is communicating!

Often what a person is saying is only a part of what is being communicated. With Power Listening, the listener is open to other cues: tone of voice, energy level, feelings, and pauses – even what isn't being said by 'reading between the lines'. This is where true empathy and emotional understanding of others comes in to play.

Meanwhile . . .

Our friend *James* got feedback that he was always running and never stopping to express his feelings. It was drive, drive, drive. His multi-tasking caused people to feel disregarded and not understood. People did not feel heard. His very high self-control made it hard for people to warm up to him – and as he was so bright and quick, they often felt stupid. In the need for speed, he gave answers, rather than teaching how to solve problems.

James now knows that he will get far more long-term results by addressing the emotions in a situation and that listening has a benefit far beyond the information shared and decided upon. It builds rapport and trust, aspects of a relationship that can be drawn upon in times of stress and need. He often finds the time to teach and coach.

As a result of James' career of hard work, delivery success, and new EI skills, he was one of the last people afforded a double promotion, and he has been asked to lead the delivery of the project in its final, critical stage. He is also the proud father of a new baby boy, who will likely get lots of loving attention.

Paul learned that whilst people generally feel good about him, few felt that they really knew him—and as such, had a bit of trouble trusting him. He was seen by some as self-promoting. He himself was hungry to grow, and recognised that to do so in the firm, he would have to write his own way forward. He started paying much more attention at the third level, particularly to his subordinates. They started performing at a much higher level, and his ratings as a manager soared. By opening up to his colleagues and managers, and taking the risk of not knowing and asking lots of questions, he became a prime business developer for the firm, and also was rewarded with the other double promotion – the last to be offered in the firm, by new policy. Paul is engaged to be married.

Christine came out of her shell. In the programme group, she demonstrated the power of vulnerability by sharing where her fear of standing out in a class or group came from, and making the connection that it was holding her career back. Contrary to her expectation of rejection/ridicule from her peers and managers in the group, she was acknowledged for her courage and for her leadership. With that new connection and warmth in her relationships, Christine had the courage to participate in a sales process which she helped shape in an innovative way, and was asked by the client to be part of the team going forward. The project was a great success, and Christine's

internal ratings have soared in the firm. Christine is now on maternity leave, as the proud mum of a baby boy...

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- See also the Genos EI website: <http://genos.com.au>.

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

Stephen Garber, Executive Coach and founder of ThirdLEVEL is a well-known international executive coach, facilitator, mediator, trainer and speaker on change management, relationship building and executive team effectiveness. Garber leads individuals, teams, and organisations to replace conflict and dysfunction with effective communication and functional relationships, causing increased profitability and productivity through enhanced emotional intelligence. He has successfully helped executive teams at Accenture, British Nuclear Group, Rolls Royce, The South Florida Business Journal and medical professionals from the USA and Europe to dramatically improve their team experience, employee engagement and business results.

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Enhancing Sales Performance Through Emotional Intelligence Development



SUE JENNINGS, Manager Tools and Methodologies, Organisational Effectiveness and Management Development, Qantas Airways Limited

DR BENJAMIN R PALMER, Director of Research and Development Genos Pty Ltd



Front line sales managers and sales representatives were put through a learning and development programme on emotional intelligence designed to enhance their sales performance. The emotional intelligence and sales revenue of participants was measured before and after the programme and compared to that of a Control Group who were only assessed before and after the programme (i.e., given no development). The emotional intelligence of the participants was found to improve by a mean of 18% while the Control Group decreased by 4%. In addition, the total sales revenue of the participants was found to increase by an average of 12% in comparison with the Control Group. While several studies have reported positive relationships between emotional intelligence and sales performance, this study is one of the first in the world to report improvements in sales revenue resulting from emotional intelligence development. The methodology of the programme is outlined and the way in which it could be adapted to improve other human capital variables, such as leadership and employee engagement, are discussed.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, sales performance, learning and development

Introduction

Sales professionals who achieve mediocre performance typically suffer from poor interpersonal skills. Most of us at one stage or another have experienced the sales person who:

- Does not listen or communicate effectively.
- Focuses on the sales process rather than the client responses.
- Focuses on the merits of the product rather than listening to and addressing clients' concerns.
- Does not pick-up on the way their sales behaviour and approach is being perceived by clients.

These characteristics and behaviours, and others like them, often result from poorly developed interpersonal skills and are common amongst sales staff. A large number of sales development programmes focus on improving sales professionals' interpersonal skills.

In recent times, the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has become popular as a medium to develop sales professionals' interpersonal skills and performance. This

rise in popularity can be attributed to a number of factors not least of which include a growing body of research studies on the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance. For example, the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence (www.eiconsortium.org) reports that:

Partners (in a multi-national consulting firm) with high EI produced \$1.2 million more profit from their accounts than their less emotionally intelligent peers.

At L'Oreal selecting a cohort of sales professionals on the basis of high EI led to a net revenue increase of \$2,559,360.00.

New sales professionals at Metlife high in EI sold 37% more life insurance in their first two years than their less emotionally intelligent peers.

This and other research of its type has led leading authors in the area to postulate that EI may be a strong determinant of sales performance (Goleman, 1995). Indeed EI may be a better predictor of sales success than how much experience people have in sales; how bright sales people are (IQ); the behavioural preferences and styles they have (personality); and other popular measures

used in the recruitment of sales people such as the SPQ Gold, a measure of sales call reluctance (Bernstein, Dudley & Goodson, 2001). Despite this notion, few studies have examined whether EI can be developed and whether the development of sales professionals' EI results in enhanced sales performance.

We set out to answer these two questions with a large pharmaceutical company. To ensure the programme got a fair trial we took a best practice approach to implementation that included:

- Using pre-and-post programme assessments (of EI, sales revenue and sales performance indicators).
- Selecting a large cohort of sales people to participate who were similar only in terms of their pre-programme sales performance and experience.
- Ensuring key executive buy-in, support and involvement in the programme.
- Linking the initiative to corporate strategy.
- Removing any competing learning initiatives.
- Properly branding the initiative with appropriate logos and brand materials including note pads, drink bottles, pens and stress balls.
- Sourcing external expertise to assist in the design and delivery of the programme.

Following an extensive vendor selection process the company selected Genos as their partners in the project. Genos were chosen to assist in the design and delivery of the programme over other vendors for three salient reasons:

1. The Genos model and measure of EI best aligned with purpose of the initiative.
2. Genos was able to provide examples of where they had designed and delivered similar programmes and the return on investment achieved.
3. Genos proposed a programme that involved a blend of their expertise in the assessment and development of EI with the company's expertise in pharmaceutical sales.

The emotional intelligence development programme

The programme was collaboratively implemented with the Learning and Development team, drawing on their expertise in learning mediums and approaches that were known to work well with company staff. Two versions of the programme were designed: 1) a Sales Manager Version; and 2) a Representative Version. Twenty Sales Managers each had two Sales Representatives from their team participate in the Representative Version (for a total of 40 Sales Representatives). Both programmes comprised a series of workshops, one-on-one and small group coaching sessions.

In the Manager Version, Genos coached Sales Managers on how to develop their own emotional intelligence. Sales Managers were presented with theory on emotional intelligence and behavioural rehearsal activities

to practice. In these sessions Sales Managers were also coached on how the theory and activities could be utilised to improve sales performance with their Sales Representatives in the Representative programme.

Coaching Sales Managers on how to develop emotionally intelligent sales skills in their Sales Representatives was a core component of the programme. This component was designed to ensure accountability for, and sustainability of, the learning and development programme.

In the Representative Version, Genos also coached Sales Representatives on how to develop their own emotional intelligence. In addition, their Sales Manager helped them construct and practice the implementation of emotionally intelligent selling techniques (as conceptualised by their Sales Manager in the Manager sessions). Both programmes were conducted over a period of six months with the flow and content of both programmes following the seven skills of the Genos model as diagrammed in Figure 1.

The Genos model of emotional intelligence comprises a set of seven skills that define how effectively people perceive, understand, reason with and manage both their own and others' emotions. This is shown in Figure 1. These seven skills of emotional intelligence were identified from a large factor analytic study of other models and measures of emotional intelligence and represent a taxonomy of the construct (Palmer, Gignac, Ekermans & Stough, in Press). Drawing from Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original conceptualisation of emotional intelligence, the model also shows that in the workplace, as with other areas of life, moods, feelings and emotions influence people's decisions, behaviour, and performance. The Genos model purports that the skills of emotional intelligence help individuals deal effectively with their own and others' emotions and can be used to enhance decisions, behaviour and performance at work. According to this model the Managers programme involved (in order), the following activities:



Figure 1

1. Time 1: 360-degree Genos Emotional Intelligence Assessment of their emotional intelligence; Managers self-assessed and were also rated by their manager, several peers and all of their direct reports. These results were used to benchmark Sales Manager's EI at the start of the programme.
2. One-on-one feedback regarding their assessment results. Action plans were developed using these results.
3. A one-day programme launch (large group workshop).
4. Small group coaching sessions (5 x 2 hours conducted 2-3 weeks apart) covering the development of:
 - a) Emotional self-awareness—*the skill of perceiving and understanding one's own emotions.*
 - b) Emotional expression—*the skill of effectively expressing how you feel.*
 - c) Emotional awareness of others—*the skill of perceiving and understanding the emotions of others'.*
 - d) Emotional reasoning—*the skill of utilising emotional information from one's self and others in decision-making.*
 - e) Emotional Management and Control (self & others) —*the skill of effectively managing and controlling one's own emotions and positively influencing the emotions of others.*
5. Time 2: Re-assessment of their emotional intelligence using the Genos 360 Emotional Intelligence Assessment and the same raters as Time 1.
6. One-on-one feedback regarding their Time 2 assessment results. Action plans for sustaining developments and self-coaching were developed in this session.
7. One-day debrief workshop (large group workshop).

The Representatives programme was similar to this approach. It involved:

1. Time 1: 360-degree Genos Emotional Intelligence Assessment of their emotional intelligence; Sales Representatives self-assessed and were also rated by their managers and several peers. These results were used to benchmark Sales Representative's emotional intelligence at the start of the programme.
2. One-on-one feedback regarding their assessment results. Action plans were developed using these results.
3. A one-day programme launch (large group workshop) facilitated by Genos.

4. Emotionally intelligent sales coaching sessions with their Sales Managers (five sessions conducted 2-3 weeks apart) covering the same five skills as in the Manager programme but with a selling focus that included:
 - a) How to be emotionally self-aware in the sales environment.
 - b) How to effectively express yourself with clients to build rapport and trust.
 - c) How to effectively gauge your clients reactions using the skill of emotional awareness of others.
 - d) How to use emotional reasoning to make effective sales decisions and problem solve with clients.
 - e) How to use emotional management to manage your own emotions and positively influence the emotions of clients.
5. Time 2 (or re-assessment) of their emotional intelligence using the Genos 360 Emotional Intelligence Assessment and the same raters as Time 1.
6. One-on-one feedback regarding their Time 2 assessment results. Action plans for sustaining developments and self-coaching were developed in this session.

Results—Correlations

First we examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and Sales Representatives performance. The company measured the performance of Sales Representatives according to five variables:

1. Performance to budget, i.e., the actual amount of product sold measured in dollars per month.
2. Days on Territory, i.e., the number days per month spent on sales calls.
3. Long Call Average, i.e., the number of long sales calls made per month.
4. Short Call Average, i.e., the number of short sales calls made per month.
5. Call Rate Average, i.e., the average quality of sales calls, self-rated by the Sales Representatives.

Table 1 below, shows the relationships between Sales Representatives Total Emotional Intelligence, that is, the average emotional intelligence score across all seven skills as rated by others (manager and peer ratings) and these performance variables.

	Total EI	Performance to Budget	Days on Territory	Long Call Average	Short Call Average	Call Rate Average
Total EI	1					
Performance to Budget	.43*	1				
Days on Territory	.05	.32*	1			
Long Call Average	.22	.55*	.72**	1		
Short Call Average	.08	.27	.78**	.86**	1	
Call Rate	.28	.21	-.04	.65**	.65**	1

* = significant at the $p < .05$; ** = significant at the $p < .001$

Table 1: Emotional intelligence and sales performance

As shown in Table 1 Sales Representatives' total emotional intelligence as rated by others, was positively correlated with their Performance to Budget results ($r = .43, p < .05$). Consistent with previous research, this finding suggests sales people high in emotional intelligence are likely to achieve greater sales revenue than their less emotionally intelligent peers. Interestingly, emotional intelligence was not found to correlate with any other performance variable used to determine Sales Representatives performance. Furthermore, the only other sales performance variable found to correlate more strongly than emotional intelligence with sales revenue (performance to budget results), was Long Call Average. In other words, emotional intelligence was found to be a stronger determinant of Sales Representatives sales revenue than other measures of sales performance.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and sales revenue found in the current study is greater than that typically observed between IQ and sales performance (e.g., $r = .04$, Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer & Roth, 1998); personality and sales performance (e.g., $r = .41$, with Achievement a component of Conscientiousness Vinchur et al.); and other popular measures used in the recruitment of sales representatives such as the SPQ Gold ($r = .15$, Bernstein et al., 2001). However, this finding requires replication in other studies before this notion can be more definitely claimed. Yet, it does lend weight to the assertion that emotional intelligence may be a better predictor of

sales success than how much experience people have in sales; how bright sales people are; the behavioural preferences and styles they have; and their tendency to be reluctant in making sales calls.

Results—Emotional Intelligence Development

To evaluate the efficacy of the learning and development programme (in terms of whether it improves individuals' emotional intelligence), pre- and post-programme 360 Assessment results were compared. Sales Representatives' results on the Genos Emotional Intelligence 360 Assessment Scale were compared to those from a 'Control Group' of Sales Representatives who undertook assessment only. The Control Group comprised 30 Sales Representatives matched to the participant group in terms of their sales performance and experience. Chart 1 below, presents the results for the participants in the Development Group and the Control Group respectively (average of ratings from others shown). Also presented is the industry benchmark and percentage of change in emotional intelligence assessment result assessments were completed in March 2006, three months after the completion of the programme. Percentile scores range from 1 to 99, with a population mean of 50.

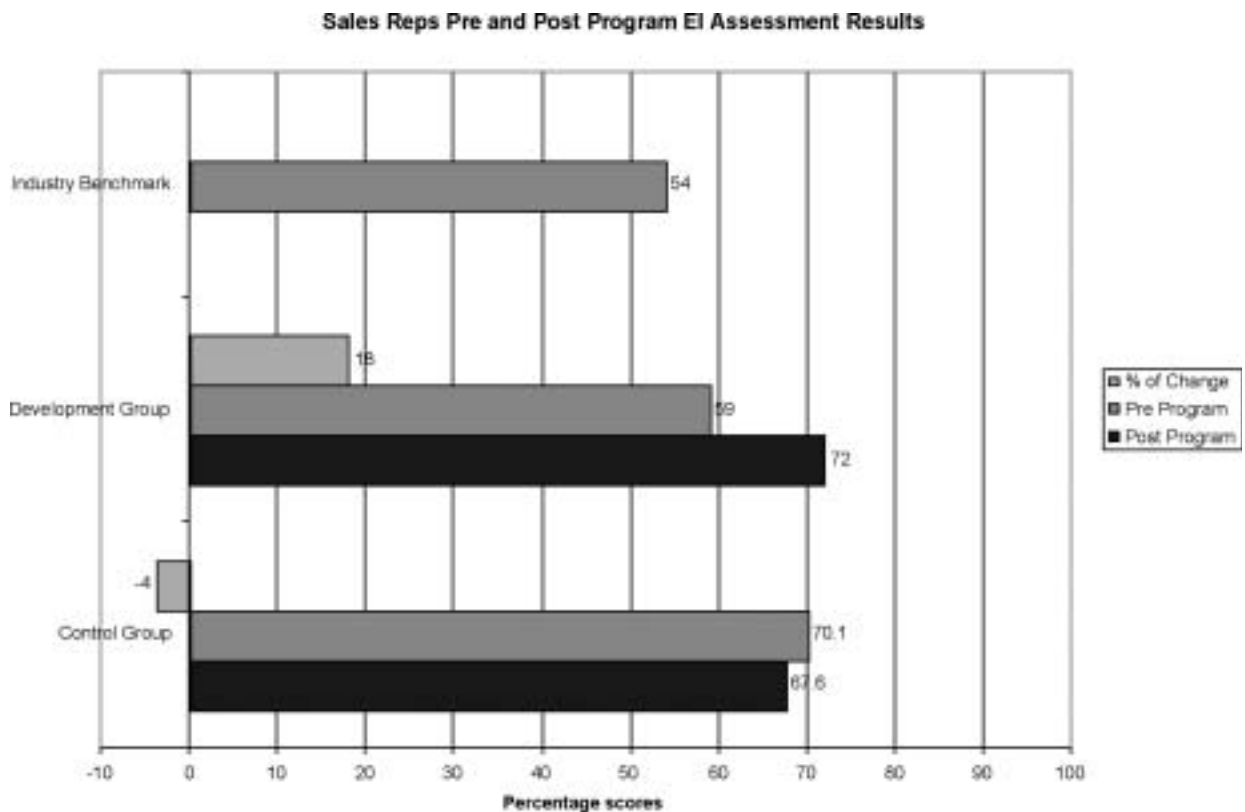


Chart 1: Pre and Post Program Emotional Intelligence 360 Assessment Results

Both the Development and Control groups were found to have higher mean levels of emotional intelligence than that found in the industry (i.e., Australian sales professionals' benchmark). The mean emotional intelligence of the Sales Representatives in the Development Group was found to improve by 18% as a result of the intervention programme. In contrast, the mean emotional intelligence of the Sales Representatives in the Control Group was found to decrease by 4% over the seven-month period of the programme. It can be confidently concluded that the emotional intelligence of sales professionals can be improved through the emotional intelligence training and development programme.

Chart 2 below, presents the pre- and post-programme 360 degree emotional intelligence assessment scores for the Sales Managers who participated in the development programme. Also shown is the industry benchmark and percentage of change in emotional intelligence assessment results.

As shown in Chart 2, the pre-programme mean emotional intelligence of Sales Managers who participated in the development programme was found to be above the industry benchmark. Sales Managers' emotional intelligence was found to improve as a result of the development intervention, however, not to the same degree as the Sales Representatives. Sales Managers' emotional intelligence was high at the outset of the programme and higher than that of Sales Representatives. This finding is consistent with previous research showing that EI is a key underlying

determinant of success and typically high in individuals that make it to management positions (Palmer, Gardner & Stough, 2003).

Results—Enhanced sales performance

To evaluate whether improved emotional intelligence results in enhanced sales performance, the average performance to budget sales figures of the Development and Control groups were compared. At the outset of the programme the sales performance of these two groups was approximately equal. The Control Group participants were chosen to match the Development Group in terms of their pre-programme performance to budget results and experience with the company. Chart 3 below shows a performance to budget comparison of the Development and Control Groups post the commencement of the programme.

As shown in Chart 3, the Development Group was found to be out performing the Control Group on average by approximately 12%. Following the November results major restructures of Sales Representatives occurred within the business and most participants changed territories, products and managers. As a result further comparisons were not possible. The finding would have been more conclusive if the trend in enhanced sales revenue continued for a greater period of time (e.g., during December and the fourth quarter of the financial year). The increase in sales

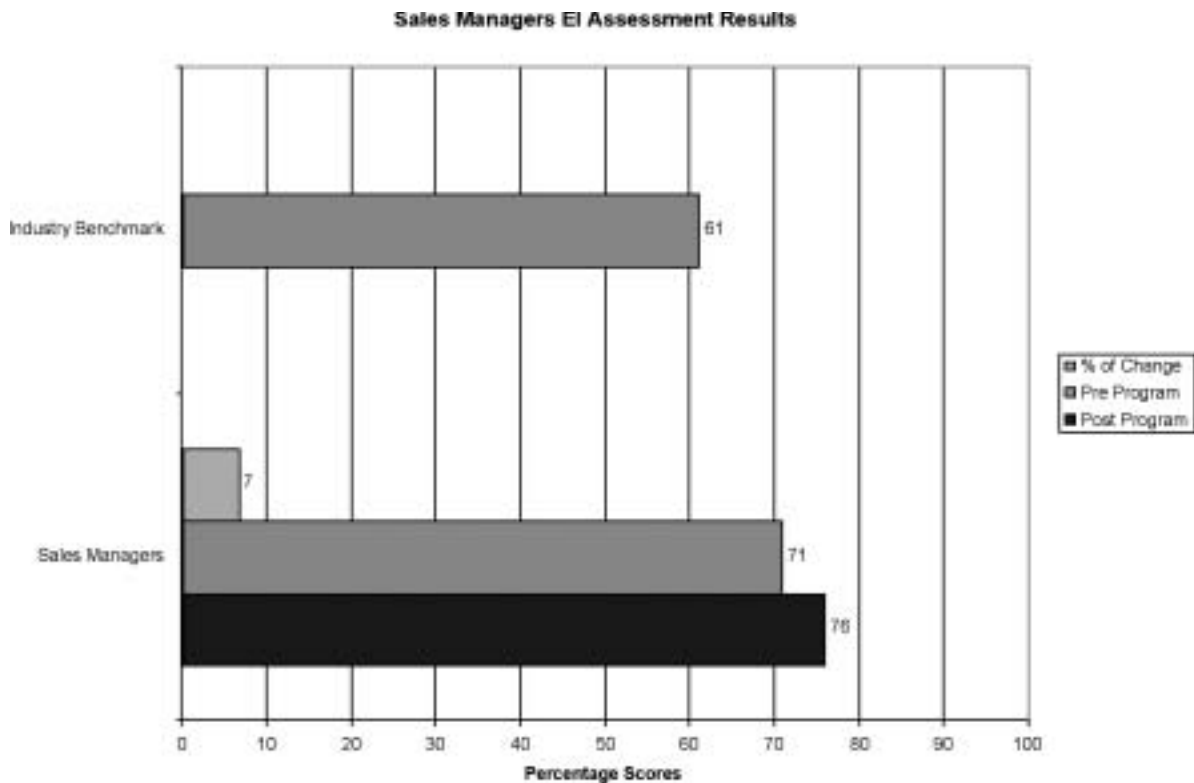


Chart 2: EI assessment scores for the Sales Managers

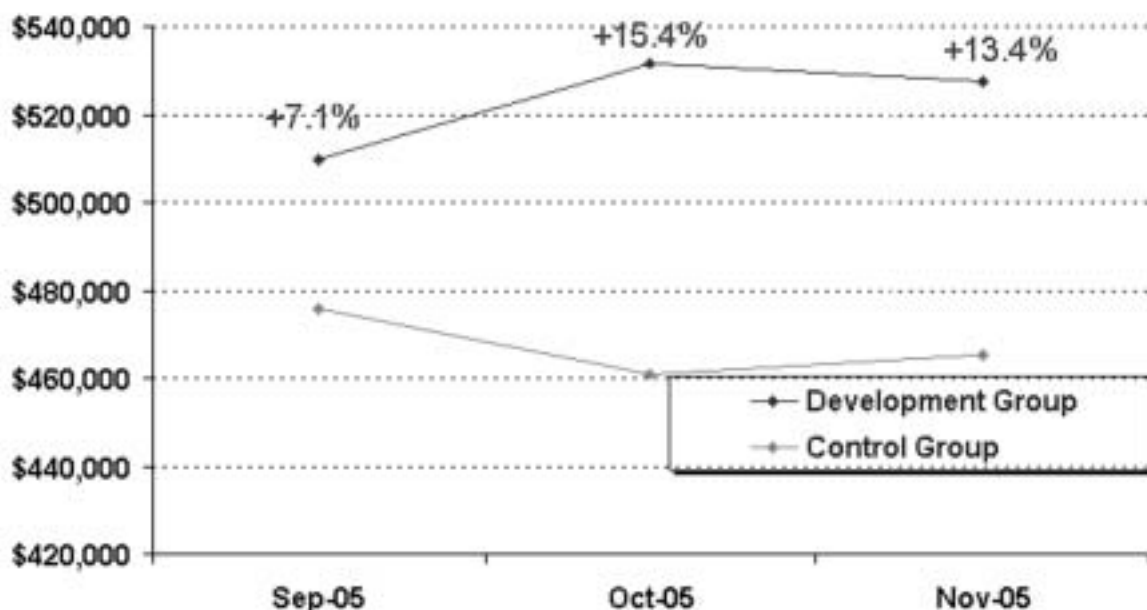


Chart 3: Performance to Budget Results Comparison

revenue meant that the programme returned approximately five dollars for every dollar invested in the programme within a six-month period. Furthermore, qualitative analyses of the programme made by the Development Group suggested that the programme was beneficial in improving: 1) Sales Managers leadership capability; 2) relationships between Sales Managers and Sales Representatives, and 3) and participants job satisfaction.

Results—Summary

This programme is one of the first in the world to show that improvements in emotional intelligence can lead to increased sales revenue. In summary, the study found that:

- Emotional intelligence was significantly correlated with Sales Representatives sales revenue ($r = .43, p < .05$) explaining more than 18% of the variance in this objective measure of sales performance.
- Mean levels of emotional intelligence were found to improve by 18% in the Development Group as a result of intervention and decrease in the Control Group by 4%.
- The development programme was of significant benefit to those who participated in terms of performance and job satisfaction.

Conclusion

This study makes a significant contribution to our knowledge about the construct of emotional intelligence and its utility as a learning and development medium. A number of academic research studies have found emotional intelligence to be positively correlated with sales performance.

However, to-date there are no known studies or learning and development initiatives that conclusively show whether sales performance can be improved through emotional intelligence development.

There are a number of unique attributes regarding the design of the learning and development methodology that we feel led to the success of the programme and could be utilised to improve other human capital variables. Firstly, the programme utilised pre- and post-programme assessments of both the development medium (i.e., emotional intelligence) and the desired outcome (i.e., enhanced sales performance) to determine the return on investment. The use of assessment results like these provide:

- Participants with insight into their pre- and post-programme level of skill and the amount of change achieved as a result of their efforts.
- Accountability and responsibility on the part of participants and facilitators to achieve enhanced assessment results.
- Facilitators and coaches with insight into individual's strengths and weakness allowing them to focus more time and attention on specific areas of need.
- Insight into the relationship between the development medium and the outcome helping participants understand the intrinsic value of focusing time and effort in the programme.

We recommend the use of pre- and post-programme assessment results in learning and development programmes for these aforementioned reasons. The use of a Control Group also allowed us to more directly measure the impact the learning and development programme had on the desired outcome. Using a Control Group provided more conclusive evidence that the enhanced sales results were not simply a result of market influences.

A second factor that greatly contributed to the success of this programme was the use of Sales Managers in the development of Sales Representatives sales performance. We feel this component contributed to the success of the programme because:

- It helped hold the Sales Managers accountable for their own development (i.e., “having to walk the talk” of what they were coaching their Sales Representatives on).
- Sales Managers constructed meaningful and applicable development activities for their Sales Representatives. This so-called “blend of expertise” may be one of the factors that contributed not only to enhanced sales but indeed greater development in mean levels of EI amongst the Sales Representatives.
- It contributed to enhanced working relationships between Sales Managers and Sales Representatives.
- It provided Sales Managers with tools and techniques they could apply in the continued professional development of their Sales Representatives (e.g., presentation skills).

There is an old-age-adage that nothing teaches you something like having to teach it to others and we drew upon this knowledge in the design of our programme. The use of internal and external expertise could be similarly used in the development of other human capital variables such as leadership, customer service, and teamwork. Although not tested we also feel this approach may contribute to the sustainability of the development.

This research study requires replication with larger sample sizes and sales professionals from different industries, before it can be concluded that emotional intelligence development can contribute to improvement in sales revenue. We used an assessment of emotional intelligence that measures how often individuals display emotionally intelligent workplace behaviour rather than emotional intelligence as such. Although we showed improvements in emotional intelligence scores, that is, participants in our study more frequently demonstrated emotionally intelligent workplace behaviour, the question remains as to whether we developed our participants’ actual emotional intelligence. A multi-trait-multi-method study comprising different types of emotional intelligence measures (e.g., such as the MSCEIT, Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000), would help answer this more academic and intriguing question.

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BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

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Emotional Intelligence (EI): How We Manage Our Personality



JO MADDOCKS, Centre of Applied Emotional Intelligence and JCA

An oft-heard criticism of EI is that it is nothing new. This article aims to identify how EI is different from, and adds value to, already existing psychological concepts of performance including personality, IQ and behavioural competencies. We propose that EI is the mechanism employed in managing all aspects of our behaviour including in our relationships, and how we engage our cognitive capacities. EI is, therefore, what differentiates all aspects of human performance from the mundane to the extraordinary. The key determinants of being emotionally intelligent are our attitudes and the habits that we apply through self and other awareness.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, attitudes, habits, self awareness, other awareness, personality, IQ, behavioral competencies.

Having used personality, intelligence and competency measures for many years in both selection and development settings I was often left with a sense of there being something missing. It was only when I became aware of EI in 1996 that I saw this as the missing link. Personality, IQ and competencies are the 'what' and EI explains the 'how' we can be effective through making best use of our personality and cognitive abilities. In this article I will examine how EI is different from and adds value to these established performance factors of personality, IQ and competencies.

Using EI to manage our personality

We define EI as 'the practice of using thinking about feeling and feeling about thinking to guide what we do, which is largely determined by our attitudes'. A key word here is the 'practice' of doing. Personality measures tend to measure general traits and predispositions rather than what the person actually does in practice. EI is a verb, not a noun, and addresses the processes we use to manage our behaviour in the present. Practically speaking, there is nothing to stop a person from changing their behaviour right now and behaving differently from their 'typical selves' if they chose to. The barrier to doing this has very little to do with our personality and is almost entirely to do with the following four aspects of EI.

- Changing our thinking e.g. reframing negative self-talk to be more positive.
- Changing our emotional state e.g. to be more engaged, calm or confident.
- Changing our behaviour e.g. rehearsing new habits.
- Changing our attitudes e.g. learning from experience.

All these areas are interdependent and underpinned by being aware of our own feelings and the feelings of others.

A description I have found to be useful and practical for EI is 'how we manage our personality'. It is useful because it emphasises that personality and EI are different and practical because it indicates that they are more powerful when applied together. There are two main differences between EI and personality:

1. EI is about our effectiveness, while personality is about our style or preference.
2. Personality is relatively fixed while EI is changeable and developable.

The first difference explains why personality measures predict precious little about performance—a maximum of 9% (Hunter, 1984). What determines whether they are effective is not our personality but how well we manage our personality which is the function of our EI. For example, being an extravert does not make a person effective at

doing extraverted things such as communicating with people, just as being an introvert does not make someone ineffective at communicating with people. How effective we are in our behaviour has little to do with personality and much more to do with our attitudes. Holding an attitude such as 'people don't want to hear what I have to say' will inevitably interfere with being an effective communicator. In my experience, different personalities can achieve equally competent performance but in different ways, on condition they use their emotional intelligence.

The second key difference is that personality is relatively fixed while EI is changeable and developable. Personality theories typically focus on measuring enduring and stable characteristics such as traits and type preferences in order to predict how a person will behave in the future. EI is not focused on a person's disposition but rather their attitudes and habits, both of which are changeable, attitudes we adopt and habits we can learn. EI is about the present, and how we manage our behaviour by being self-aware at that moment in time to choose our behaviours.

Giving people feedback on personality questionnaires will usually increase a person's self understanding and knowledge, which tends to happen in their thinking brain (neo-cortex). Improving a person's Emotional intelligence however, happens in a different part of the brain called the limbic system. This is where we learn from emotional experiences and where attitudinal change takes place. This is why people who may know themselves at a cognitive level do not develop or change until they have embedded the change at an emotional level. Personality is often useful at raising cognitive awareness, but this must be followed up by emotional experience if a person is to change their behaviour. This may also explain why many training and coaching programmes do not create change back in the workplace.

Using EI to manage our Cognitive Intelligence

Research consistently shows that cognitive intelligence (IQ related measures) predicts no more than 25% of performance begging the question what is the other 75% (Hunter, 1984). In his seminal book *Why EQ matters more than IQ* (1995), Daniel Goleman suggests that this is related to EI. Indeed if we look at most competencies or job advertisements they are largely dominated by EI attributes.

Having already said that EI is about how we manage our personality, I would go further and suggest it is also about how we manage our cognitive intelligence. In my experience our ability to think clearly, make sound decisions, analyse information and all the other IQ related areas, can vary dramatically day to day and moment to moment. When we feel anxious, stressed or hurried our cortical functioning can be severely impaired, but when we are relaxed, alert and present we may see things more in perspective, learn more easily and have more creative insights. In essence how a person is feeling will dramati-

cally affect their cognitive performance. Enabling a person to become more aware of how their feelings affect their thinking then how to manage their emotional state is fundamental to cognitive performance. An interesting aside to this is 'neuro-economics' which examines how people make decisions based on rational and irrational forces. For example, given the choice of accepting a share of £10 or getting nothing, people will often turn down what they see as an unfair share. Based on economic theory people always try to maximise their rewards, yet in practice our decision making is strongly influenced by our emotions.

One of the problems with the IQ approach is that we measure intelligence under standardised conditions to assess people's 'maximum performance' rather than their 'typical performance'. With EI we are more concerned with how a person will perform in practice than in laboratory settings. I would suggest that a person's actual cognitive performance is far more dependent on their emotional intelligence than on their cognitive intelligence. This has been demonstrated by a recent study showing that children's exam results were correlated twice as strongly with their 'impulse control' than their IQ scores (Psychological Science, 2005, 16, 939-44). If this is the case, it suggests that rather than trying to predict a person's IQ it would be far more productive to focus on developing their EI.

Although EI is seen as a relative newcomer to IQ, the reverse is in fact true. EI is based on the basic premise of human emotional needs such as for connection with others; IQ is based on society's far more recent demands for differentiating and predicting educational achievement.

Using EI to develop behavioural competencies

Another area with which EI is often confused is competencies. Competencies focus on behaviours while EI is underpinned by attitudes and feelings. Competencies provide a useful reference point for benchmarking what is required and whether this is being achieved, but does not give any indication as to how these behaviours may be achieved. In my experience behaviours are only achieved if backed up by the right attitudes and intentions, in that people are drawn to behave in ways that are consistent with their attitudes. Changing behaviours is often short-lived and futile if it is not supported by a parallel change in attitude. To give an example: a schoolboy who didn't want to wear a tie chose to wear it with the top button undone. The school then introduced a rule that the top button must be done up, so the boy decided to wear the tie backwards. The school then introduced another rule on this, so the boy cut off the pointed end of his tie, and so it continued. If a person doesn't want to do something they will tend to find ways of subverting the rules (competencies).

An organisation introducing customer service competencies is unlikely to succeed if its employees do not want to be of service to others. On the other hand people who do want to be of service to others will quickly acquire the desirable behaviours that integrate with their attitudes. In practice behavioural competencies are an inevitable out-

come of someone who has complimentary attitudes, but are a futile endeavor for those whose attitudes are different. Emotional intelligence enables people to understand their attitudes and align them with their behaviours. When people behave in ways that are inconsistent with their attitudes this will create anxiety and stress until either they change their behaviour or their attitude. For example, a recent study on the emotional intelligence of prison officers (Maddocks, 2004) found that those officers who had low regard for prison inmates (their attitude) but were required to treat inmates with respect (behavioural competencies) suffered considerably more stress and burnout than officers who had regard for prison inmates. The key therefore to developing behavioural competencies is to adopt the appropriate attitudes through the process of emotional intelligence.

The further added value of EI

Personality, IQ and competencies are commonly confused with EI. Far from being synonymous with EI, personality, IQ and competencies are dependent on EI if they are to be applied effectively. There are a number of other specific misunderstandings that undervalue the potential utility of EI, including:

EI is something you are born with:

As explained above EI is based on attitudes and habits, neither of which we are born with. The great benefit therefore is that EI can be developed by everyone.

EQ is a single score:

Emotional Quotient is a single score given to represent an individual's overall level of EI. However, EI is not one thing, it is multifaceted and people can be strong in some areas and less strong in others. Reducing EI to a single score is unhelpful in understanding individual differences.

Women are more emotionally intelligent:

There is some evidence that females score higher on some aspects of interpersonal effectiveness, which is only one half of EI. The other half of EI is personal effectiveness e.g. personal power and goal directedness, in which males traditionally score higher.

EI is new (a fad):

Although EI was popularised in 1996, it has been used widely within education since 1980, and different terms have been around for similar concepts since 1920.

EI is just naval gazing:

Developing EI requires emotional awareness, but the next part to EI is doing something about that and taking action.

EI is just the soft stuff:

The soft stuff is often the hard stuff, e.g. having a difficult conversation with someone, disagreeing when it will make you unpopular, and accepting critical feedback.

EI is another term for soft skills:

Skills such as assertiveness can support EI, but need to be backed up by deeper attitudes e.g. someone who learns assertiveness skills like saying 'no', will soon return to their old behaviour if underneath they still feel insecure.

EI is just about being nice to people:

EI is about having regard for others, this does not mean you have to like their behaviour. The difficult part is still valuing a person despite maybe disapproving of their behaviour.

EI is about letting all your feelings out:

For people who bottle emotions in until they explode, it may be useful to learn how to notice and express the emotions sooner. But people who allow their emotions to control them may benefit from learning how to manage their feelings e.g. to calm down.

Despite EI being a relatively new concept of performance it has been rapidly taken on by businesses. Organisations should be cautious however as there is still much confusion by academics and practitioners of what EI is and what EI is not. Before applying EI we would advise having a clear understanding as to how it differs from and adds value to other established approaches such as personality, IQ, competencies and soft skills. It may be useful to keep in mind one key difference, that EI is a verb, it is the practice of doing something in the present moment, and may be described as *'the practice of managing our personality and intelligence to be both personally and interpersonally effective'*.

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He began his career with Employment Services rehabilitation teams, before co-founding JCA (Occupational Psychologists) Limited in 1993. His experience with JCA has ranged from creating and delivering psychometric training, developing the MAPS motivation and self-esteem programmes, team facilitation, and organisational consultancy.

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Embedding Emotionally Intelligent Behaviour For Sustainable Success



MAUREEN BOWES, Centre for Applied Emotional Intelligence and Director of Peopleintelligence.com

Two case studies, taken from opposite ends of a team effectiveness continuum, illustrate how the same key features and principles combine to make change and development last. In one study, four surgeons describe their professional relationship as 'dysfunctional, infighting and untrusting'. The other team, the CEO, three directors and 11 senior managers of a housing association, claimed in complete contrast to be performing well and keen to improve. During a 12 – 15 month period, both teams participated independently in EI-based team development which addressed team members' attitudes and habits. This article identifies which features and underlying principles of the interventions used promoted lasting success. It explores both what the difference is and what makes the difference.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, team effectiveness, performance, development, professional behaviour

Introduction

The measure of a successful developmental intervention is the extent to which it makes a lasting difference to the team or organisation. In practical terms this means participants integrating their new awareness and learning into their long term memory and continuing to demonstrate the importance of the learning long after the final day of the development programme.

In the article *Why development training doesn't work* (Sparrow 2006), Tim Sparrow draws attention to the fact that most organisations predominantly address knowledge and skills when providing staff training. He asserts that the four determinants of the quality of human performance are Knowledge, Attitudes, Skills and Habits (KASH) and that each of these elements needs to be right to generate effective performance.

Sparrow's article about the KASH model highlights the failings of conventional training and development programmes if development time is not devoted to attitudes and habits. Some examples: if we are trained in assertion

techniques but our attitude towards ourselves and/or others is negative, the techniques will not be sustainable. If a manager attends a management development programme, gets ideas and suggestions for change, but then loses the confidence to communicate these ideas upwards, the potential benefit to the organisation will be lost. If, however, we believe our views are valued and important to our directors, if we experience them welcoming and implementing our suggestions, our behaviour and attitudes change for good.

When our knowledge, skills, attitudes and habits are newly aligned, we have a 'can do' approach, which brings new benefits and, if sustained, brings longer term profits.

In this article I share my experience of working with two teams who recognised the need for more than knowledge and skills, who required a development programme that would make a lasting difference. Here is one approach which has evolved from Sparrow's determinants of effective performance, with examples of the differences resulting from embedding emotionally intelligent practice into the core culture of a team.

Three underlying principles

RELATIVE REGARD (LIFE POSITION)

My approach is based on the importance of each individual in a team demonstrating a respectful attitude and accountability for team success. The Transactional Analysis *OK Corral* model (Ernst, 1971) is my preferred choice for both increasing understanding of what attitude means and for facilitating the practice of *I'm OK, You're OK* interactions.

Life positions	
I'm not OK, You're OK.	I'm OK, You're OK.
I'm not OK, You're not OK.	I'm OK, You're not OK.

Figure 1: "OK Corral"

Individual Effectiveness (IE) Profile

My preferred choice for self development, for raising personal awareness of attitudes and how they link to intrapersonal and interpersonal behaviour, is the Individual Effectiveness (IE) Diagnostic Profile (Maddocks and Sparrow, 2000). To my knowledge, this is the only instrument that measures 'OKness'. The first three scales - Self Regard, Regard for Others and Relative Regard enable the facilitator/coach and participant to become aware of, and develop, *Relative Regard* - how an individual values her/himself contrasted with how the same individual values other people. (*Relative Regard* is a measure of a person's Life Position in the "OK Corral".) Because individual attitude and levels of emotional intelligence can be developed, *Relative Regard* offers a unique starting point for personal development, performance improvement and cultural fit. An individual's self perception ratings from the IE questionnaire compared with the 360° ratings from other people, forms a powerful starting point for self development and leadership development. (see Figure 3 Example of Self perception and 360° feedback graphs) Coaching in, and practice of, *I'm OK, You're OK* behaviours, individually and as a group, raises individual levels of self and team esteem, which in turn boosts effectiveness—if we feel good about ourselves and our team, our performance improves.

Performance = Potential—Interference

(*The Inner Game of...* series, Timothy Gallwey)

Timothy Gallwey's formula highlights how such inner obstacles as fear of failure, self doubt, resistance to change, get in the way of learning, improving and achieving potential. The IE profile reveals an individual's potential and interference. The surfacing of individual interferences, along with support and formulation of individual action points, brings steady and continuous improvement. Similarly, through facilitated team sessions, team interferences

surface and are progressed towards solution and success.

THE CASE STUDIES

The surgeons were independent consultants whose expertise and practice brought them together in one unit. Four strong individuals, with very different personalities. Instead of valuing their differences and using them as mutually supportive strengths, they had allowed their differences to generate tensions and conflict between them. Quick fix interventions hadn't worked.

The Chief Executive, three directors and eleven senior managers of a housing association were performing well but were keen to do better. The team was a mix of local authority personnel and building developers from the private sector. This was a tolerated cultural mix. However, a tendency towards silo behaviour, arising from different cultures and values, was identified as a performance inhibitor.

STEP BY STEP PROCESS

All the team members in both teams took the following steps:

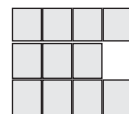
1. Self assessment

Each team member completed an on-line self perception questionnaire to assess their emotional intelligence. The questionnaire includes:

Self Regard, Regard for Others, Relative Regard, Self Awareness, Awareness of Others, Emotional Resilience, Personal Power, Goal Directedness, Flexibility, Personal Openness, Invitation to Trust, Trust, Balanced Outlook, Emotional Expression & Control, Conflict Handling, Interdependence and Self Assessed EI.

Self perception

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10



Scale 8 Flexibility

Scale 9 Personal Openness

Scale 10 Invitation to Trust

Figure 2: Example of self perception results

2. 360° feedback

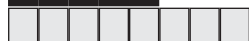
Each team member invited 5 – 6 people (colleagues, managers, direct reports) to complete an on-line summary version of the IE. The combined results from the 360° raters are presented as one bar graph for each scale. The graphs are sent to the accredited facilitator/coach who can interpret and discuss the results face to face, by telephone and via a narrative report. The 360° feedback allows a comparison of perceptions.

Scale 10 Invitation to Trust

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10



Self perception



360° feedback

Figure 3: Example of Self perception and 360° feedback graphs

3. Self Directed Learning

Each team member met with the facilitator for a one to one interview, received her/his personalised narrative report, and explored the implications of her/his IE profile. In response to what the IE profile revealed, s/he decided what areas of development are most immediately important, and then created a personal development plan with the facilitator which, together, they revisited every 1-2 months.

4. Action points

The priority area of development was itemised into specific action points or behaviours that the individual wanted to achieve. S/he committed to practising this action point regularly over the next month.

Example

Development area—(IE Scale - *Regard for others*)

Remembering my regard for others even when I feel critical of something someone has done.

Action point

To make my comments constructive by considering my vocabulary and the impact of my communication style on others.

Habits are changed through applying the action points—each person can replace old patterns of behaviour with new habits of choice.

5. Support

To assist in making the action point happen, each person chose another team member as a support to discuss personal progress and receive objective feedback. Where possible, to add to this support, action-learning groups formed to discuss individual challenges and personal development more fully.

6. Accountability

While the Individual Effectiveness Profiles were confidential, the action points were not. A list of the team members' action points was circulated within the team so that each team member was aware of what each colleagues was aiming to improve on, and, importantly, could understand and make allowances for their different behaviour.

7. Coaching

During the course of the intervention, team members had one to one coaching every 1 – 2 months to ensure individual development needs were supported and met.

8. Team development

The whole team participated in a one day facilitated session each month. This is where key learning points were

introduced, current team and organisational issues identified and addressed, and emotionally intelligent behaviour put into practice.

Examples of themes included *You get what you tolerate*, *Interdependence*, *A courageous culture* and *Inspirational Leadership*.

Improvement means change. In any team, the areas for development result not just from one person's attitude, behaviour, knowledge or skills but from how everyone else responds to that person and how the group behaviour is managed. Both of the case study groups made choices about which limiting patterns of behaviour to replace. The facilitated sessions and the group interventions introduced new ways of working, reinforcing the practice of *'I'm OK, You're OK'* behaviours, which raised individual levels of self-esteem and created healthy interpersonal dynamics.

9. Facilitation

Regular contact and consultation, expertise, flexibility and appropriate timing from the facilitator played a crucial part in achieving the programme's objectives.

10. Review

A separate benchmark tool, recording each team member's perception of the team's effectiveness, completed at the beginning and the end of the intervention, enabled the team to measure progress. (Woodcock, 1979) This involved each person giving true / false answers to 132 questions and measured team effectiveness against 11 criteria:

Balanced roles, Clear objectives & agreed goals, Openness & confrontation, Support & trust, Co-operation & conflict, Sound procedures, Appropriate leadership, Regular review, Individual development, Sound inter-group relations and Good communications.

A review day six months after the programme gave team members the opportunity to showcase their successes, evaluate the programme and consider what difference the programme has made. Some examples were:

I'M OK, YOU'RE OK CULTURE

Team members had problem solved from a basis of accepting difference (different needs, wants and styles). This level of congruence at the core of the team / organisation had created a change in culture.

Successful implementation of change

Authentic leadership, peer commitment and strong communication processes (the right people talking together) had brought engagement, suggestions, solutions and the will to make things happen.

More efficient meetings

The right people meeting with productive processes in place to facilitate open and honest communication saved time and resulted in more effective decision making.

Respect for true deadlines

Targets had been achieved because of transparent communication and negotiation of needs between departments. Money had been saved.

Managerial time saving

Improved team communication, staff finding solutions and more face to face communication (less email) had resulted in fewer conflicts and demands on management time.

Feeling good about work

Interpersonal tensions erode the quality of working life. Because team members were confident that differences would be aired fairly and constructively, they felt safe, valued and optimistic about work.

SO WHAT MADE THE DIFFERENCE?

In my experience, people change during this type of intervention, usually becoming more satisfied and productive. Dissatisfaction results from team members not sharing the same values and / or feeling particularly vulnerable from the intervention. The flexible nature of the programme and key principles means individual and team vulnerabilities really can be accommodated into workable solutions.

Many factors contribute to the difference made in this intervention, from ownership and buy in to appropriate levels of support and challenge. The following five differentiators are key and carry equal importance in sustaining success.

Developing helpful attitudes towards change

Developing teams that function well or to go from good to great means winning hearts and minds. Providing knowledge, skills and awareness can win minds, but shifting attitudes so that people are willing to embrace change, take on different approaches and new practices, requires commitment from the heart. Change triggers feelings, and, to progress through change, we have to progress through feelings. Getting from *'It's just the way I am.'* or *'But we've always done it this way.'* to *'We'll do whatever it takes.'* or *'We can do that and more.'* requires an attitude shift.

The intra-personal development required to move from rejection and denial towards acceptance involves increased self-esteem and self-awareness, combined in equal measure with awareness of, and respect for, others. External influences to tip the balance in favour of change include inspiration, meaningful discussion, steps towards feeling safer and peer example. This type of intervention creates a climate of opportunity for these internal developments and external influences to occur.

Feelings affect behaviour

Achieving a willingness to change means replacing feelings that demotivate with feelings that motivate. The surgeons did not trust one another. They knew that mutual trust was essential if they were to work effectively

together. They knew rationally that they should demonstrate trust for one another but found themselves emotionally unable to do so. They were at a dead end. Turning this around isn't a quick, easy or rational process. Workable solutions required give and take, a recognition of personal vulnerability, a willingness to behave differently, plus time and evidence to feel safe enough to trust again. They achieved this with courage, commitment and integrity, by sharing their self-development through the action points and team sessions. In so doing, they increased their self-awareness and personal openness and improved their interpersonal relations. The surgeons became more connected, they got to know one another better and respected their differences. Consequently, team member commitment grew with the momentum of the programme, making it much easier to deliver on the consensus decisions they had agreed as peers.

In house delivery

When individuals attend courses externally, they often struggle to apply what they have learned on their return, especially if this involves new practices or behavioural differences. Whole team intervention always has a better chance of succeeding as every team member receives the same continuity of content and shares the same, appropriately challenging, experience.

The group profile of the housing association's top team indicated low levels of personal openness. Combine this trait across four departments, some in different buildings, and the tendency towards silo working became self-evident. This collective experience brought the senior managers from all the departments together, one day a month for six months. It involved facilitating groupwork where people connected, generated ideas across teams and had time away from their day-to-day environment to raise and address issues. Personal openness increased naturally. Pairing up with the Chief Executive or Director, as equals, in a safe and structured activity (e.g. reducing silo working) brought a fresh perspective, added value to company development and increased team esteem.

Open communication and exploration of conflicting interests brought tensions to the surface and allowed the departmental heads to voice their frustrations constructively, to recognise how truly interdependent they were and the importance of demonstrating their company value—*We do what we say.*

Accountability

Group accountability was built in from the start with a review day six months after the end of the programme. The top team reviewed their progress by showcasing the results of their development. They presented ideas for sustaining their success as a group and across the company. They were equipped with principles, resources, techniques and personal experience to influence company culture right through to front line staff. They ended the programme with their plans for the future and the all important next steps in place.

Both teams completed a benchmark questionnaire (Woodcock, 1979) at the beginning and the end of the

intervention. The team of four surgeons described themselves at the start as dysfunctional, infighting and untrusting. The same questionnaire one year later shows a 70% - 90% improvement in their team development areas of *Conflict, Support & Trust* and *Agreed Goals*. They describe themselves now as effective, co-operating and directed.

The Housing Association top team of fifteen, who were performing well at the start, showed an 18% - 48% improvement in their team development areas of *Communication, Inter-Group Relations* and *Conflict* by the end of the programme. They say now: *We came to the programme from all points of the compass—now we all know where 'north' is.*

Commitment to regular review and to taking action builds sustainable success.

Sound development processes

Emotionally intelligent behaviour demonstrates intra-personal and inter-personal intelligences. To be effective in these areas we need to start with awareness and progress through reflection to knowledge and management. These interventions are based on sound developmental processes. (see Figure 4)

Effective self management and relationship management are essential to sustain success within any team or company. The developmental stages illustrated behind the Self Management and Relationship Management 'arrows' are necessary to embed emotionally intelligent behaviour. When this level of knowledge, skill, attitude and habit sustains a team's practice, the team become authentic and congruent. When the team concerned is the top team, this authentic and congruent practice influences the culture of the whole organisation.

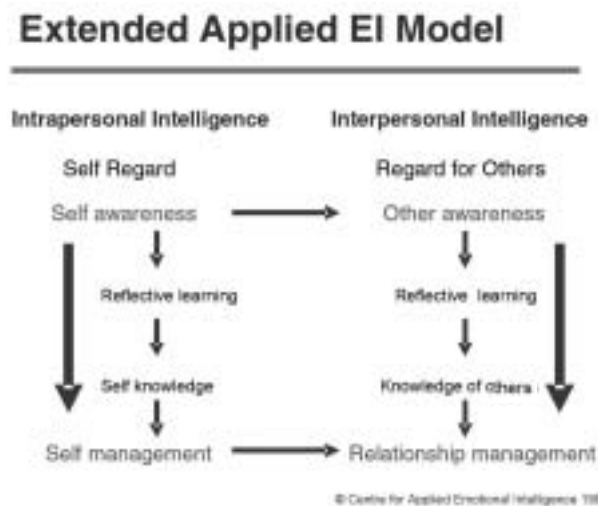


Figure 4: Extended Applied EI model

CONCLUSION

The extent to which any individual or team is motivated to change, develop or continuously improve is directly influenced by each person's feelings. Rational argument or persuasion may win over the sceptical but most people are moved to action through feelings. In turn, feelings are deeply rooted in personal attitudes (the extent to which people value themselves and others). Individuals may be told they need to change their attitudes, or trust more, or be more approachable, they may be aware of this themselves but unaware of how to adapt their behaviour, to be more or less of.

Personal development or team interventions can bring sustainable success when:

- They address individual (team and company) attitudes.
- They make the connections between (individual and group) feelings, thoughts, behaviour and attitudes.
- They facilitate real opportunities to practise "how to".

The costs and long term gains of investment in developmental programmes combining all the KASH elements can be weighed against the costs and long term gains of only investing in knowledge and skills based programmes.

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BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

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Improving Occupational Stress Through Emotional Intelligence Development



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Statistics imply that occupational stress is increasing. Whilst certain stressors may transcend individual differences, it is now generally accepted that the experience of stress or negative emotions is moderated by the way in which individuals appraise and perceive their relationship with the environment. Attention is directed to the concept of EI as a moderating variable in the stress process with emerging interest in the role emotions play in the way individuals appraise and respond to potentially threatening events or situations. Theoretically, a higher level of EI results in less occupational stress and better psychological and physical health. The authors developed a stress management programme combining traditional aspects of stress management with EI development (SSMP). The SSMP is described in its use as a training tool that incorporates modification of the stress-causing environment, and skill training in emotional self-management.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, occupational stress, psychological well-being

Introduction

In recent years there has been a worldwide increase in work-related mental disorders, affecting all industries and professions. In Australia, stress related claims increased by 37% from 1996-97 to 2002-03 (National Occupational Health and Safety Commission [NOHSC], 2003). While the percentage of stress related claims relative to all other claims is still low, the cost per claim is generally much higher, as is the time absent from work. For example, in 2005-06 mental stress claims accounted for just 5 per cent of all claims but nearly 21 per cent of total claim costs (Comcare, 2006). Reports also indicate that between 1996-97 and 2002-03, employees with compensated claims for mental stress were also absent from work for the longest duration, with the median time lost increasing from seven weeks in 1996-97 to 9.8 weeks in 2001-02 (NOHSC, 2003).

In Australia, the cost of workers' compensation claims for stress-related mental disorders is estimated to exceed \$200 million every year. More importantly, there are other problems associated with work-related stress that surpass the financial considerations (Quick et al., 1986). The

human costs in individual suffering and organisational morale cannot be reduced to quantitative terms. The stress of overwork has been associated with psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, and burnout; physiological health problems, such as hypertension and heart attacks; and organisational problems, including workplace violence and accidents (Quick et al., 1997). Workplace stress may also result in behavioural problems, such as increased alcohol consumption and smoking (Dollard & Winefield, 2002).

The human and financial costs of occupational stress provide a strong mandate for conducting research into the factors that precipitate occupational stress and to identify effective interventions that can be implemented to treat, manage, and, ultimately, prevent the occurrence of this phenomenon.

Occupational Stress. Stress can be defined in a number of ways (Cox, 1993). The *stimulus* definition of stress characterises the construct as characteristic of the environment (e.g. work-related stresses, life events such as bereavement and daily hassles). The *response* definition characterises stress as a person's response to environmental characteristics. *Stimulus* and *response*

based definitions of occupation stress, assume that any stimulus which produces the stress response is a stressor. The problem with these conceptualisations of stress is that neither takes into account individual differences. For example, not all students find University examinations stressful and those that do may have completely different reactions to them. Utilising a *stimulus* or *response* definition of occupational stress for this scenario would assume that all students do experience University examination stress and all students 'experience' that stress in exactly the same way.

In contrast to the *stimulus* and *response* definitions of stress, transactional models of stress emphasise the role of individual factors in moderating the stress response. According to this model, a person experiences stress when the perceived demands of the environment are greater than their perceived ability to cope with them (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Importantly, this approach emphasises an individual's perception and evaluation of demands and coping abilities rather than actual demands and actual ability to cope. Whilst certain stressors may transcend individual differences, it is now generally accepted that the experience of stress or negative emotions is moderated by the way in which individuals appraise and perceive their relationship with the environment. The features of the transactional model of stress within the work environment are summarised in Figure 1.

The transactional model of stress has become the leading model in psychological stress research (Vollrath, 2001). Research studies have focused on the role played by individual characteristics such as type 'A' behaviour (Friedman & Rosenman, 1974), locus of control (Parkes, 1984), hardiness (Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa et al, 1982), easy-goingness (Holahan & Moos, 1986), optimism (Scheier & Carver, 1992) and self-esteem (Rector & Roger, 1997) on stress and stress outcomes. In addition to these personality and dispositional variables, stress research has also investigated individual differences in coping resources and styles (Endler & Parker, 1994). Significantly less consideration has been given in the stress-related literature to the investigation of Emotional Intelligence (EI) as an individual difference (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002).

Emotional Intelligence: Emotional intelligence is a relatively new and growing area of behavioural research (Ziedner et al., 2004). Broadly speaking, EI is a set of conceptually related psychological processes involving the

processing of emotion and emotion-related information (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). These psychological processes include the perception and expression of emotion, the integration of emotion with thoughts, understanding emotion, and the regulation and management of emotion.

While there are a number of competing models and measures of EI, the general consensus amongst the academic fraternity is that self-awareness, self-confidence and self-acceptance are fundamental to the development of EI (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995). Through increased self-awareness, individuals are more able to cognitively 'detach' themselves and the emotions they experience from environmental events. This, therefore, allows individuals to regulate their emotions in order to prevent being 'hijacked' by their emotional reactions (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002). Given emerging interest in the role emotions play in the way individuals appraise and respond to potentially threatening events or situations, attention is turning to the concept of EI as a moderating variable in the stress process (Slaski & Cartwright, 2003).

The relationship between occupational stress and emotional intelligence. Recent research supports a negative relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational stress. Typically, employees who report having higher levels of emotional intelligence report suffering less occupational stress, and report better psychological and physical health (Gardner, 2005; Nikolaou, 2002; Pau & Croucher, 2003; Slaski & Cartwright, 2002, 2003). Research has also found that employees who have higher levels of emotional intelligence are more satisfied with their job and more committed to their organisation (Abraham, 2000; Carmeli, 2003; Gardner, 2005; Nikolaou, 2002). In theory, developmental EI training offers a potentially effective technique for improving individual stress resilience. A seminal study by Slaski and Cartwright (2003) tested this theory and found that EI training was successful in improving EI skills, reducing stress and improving measures of health and well-being in a sample of UK managers.

Based on the theoretical and empirical links between EI and occupational stress, Dr Lisa Gardner and Professor Con Stough from Swinburne University developed a psycho-educational programme to teach employees to manage occupational stress through the development of EI (Gardner, 2005). The guiding premise of this of this programme was that teaching employees to better use EI

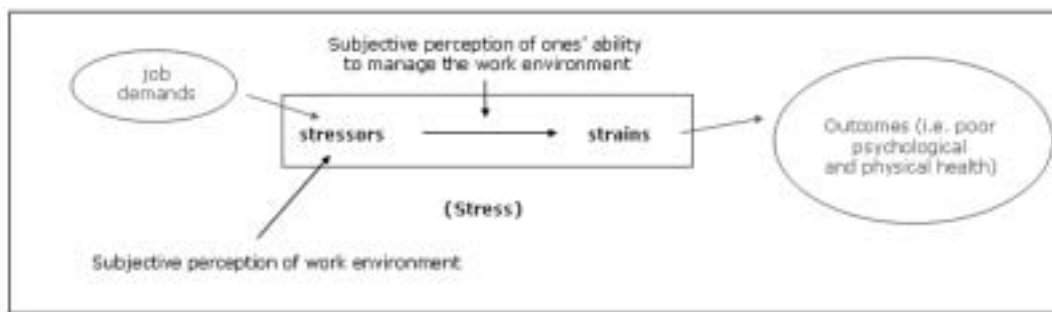


Figure 1: Transactional model of occupational stress

at work will be better equip them to deal with occupational stress. This research culminated in a PhD level dissertation evaluating the efficacy of the emotional intelligence development program, now called the Swinburne Stress Management Programme (SSMP). The SSMP incorporates traditional aspects of stress management (such as learning how to identify stressors and learning to use relaxation techniques to deal with stressors) with EI development (learning how to deal with emotional reactions of the self and others more effectively).

The SSMP aims to equip employees with the skills necessary to deal with the emotions that arise from feelings of stress and to use these skills to prevent health strains, promote more positive feelings of satisfaction, and promote more commitment to the workplace. The programme is a combination of occupational stress and EI measurement, personalised feedback and a small-group psycho education programme.

The SSMP uses the Swinburne University developed model and measure of emotional intelligence (also known as the Genos model and measure of EI) as its framework (Palmer & Stough, 2001). This model of emotional intelligence consists of five factors. The specific factors and underlying capabilities of the Swinburne developed model of EI are presented in Table 1.

How the Swinburne Stress Management Programme educates individuals in how to manage occupational stress

Approaches to managing organisational stress are typically classified as either *primary*, *secondary*, or *tertiary* interventions (Kendall et al., 2000). *Primary* interventions include strategies that aim to prevent the occurrence of work stress (e.g. work design or ergonomics), *secondary* interventions include activities designed to change an individual's reaction to stressors (e.g. relaxation training, cognitive-behavioural techniques and team building), and *tertiary* interventions are those that are used to treat the symptoms of stress and strain after they have been

identified (e.g. Employee Assistance Programs). Whilst organisations can focus on the immediate work environment (primary intervention) and the provision of organisation-wide support (tertiary intervention), the SSMP is designed to provide organisations with a *secondary* intervention to stress management. As such, the SSMP complements both *primary* and *tertiary* intervention approaches

Important features of stress interventions is that they be comprehensive; address the individual, the organisational environment; and the interface between the individual and his or her organisation (Hurrell, 1995). In using EI as the framework for the SSMP, participants receive both traditional stress management strategies to assist them in dealing with work stressors, as well as the opportunity to develop skills to improve his or her organisational environment and relationship they have with the organisation.

Components of the Swinburne Stress Management Programme

The SSMP consists of three primary components: conceptual information about the nature of stress, including its relationship to the emotional intelligence construct and the value of developing emotional intelligence in the workplace; self-assessments as tools to build awareness of individual EI strengths and deficiencies; and skills training to develop personal strategies to improve emotional intelligence and to manage work stressors.

1. *Conceptual components.* The conceptual components include information about: (1) the interaction effect between environmental demands and personal characteristics in an individual's initial reaction to stressors; (2) the influence of an individual's stress reaction on his or her subsequent thoughts, feelings and actions; (3) the individual consequences of prolonged or chronic stress; (4) how occupational stress is measured; (5) the construct of emotional intelligence; (6) the Swinburne University developed model of emotional intelligence; (7) the five

Dimension	Definition
Emotional Recognition and Expression	The capacity to identify one's own feelings and emotional states and the ability to express those inner feelings to others.
Understanding Others' Emotions	The capacity to identify and understand the emotions of others and those that manifest in response to workplace environments, staff meetings, literature, artwork etc.
Emotional Reasoning	The extent to which emotions and emotional knowledge are incorporated in decision-making and problem solving.
Emotional Management	The capacity to manage positive and negative emotions both within oneself and others.
Emotional Control	The capacity to effectively control strong emotional states experienced at work.

Table 1: The Swinburne University developed model of emotional intelligence

factors of the Swinburne University developed model of emotional intelligence; (8) how emotional intelligence is measured and, (9) specific strategies for developing the five factors of the Swinburne University developed model of emotional intelligence.

2. Self-assessment components. Self-assessments allow participants to personalise the conceptual information provided and the related skills training. Within the SSMP, the self-assessments provide information regarding the frequency with which the participants demonstrate behaviours underpinning the five factors of emotional intelligence, subjective stress levels related to six specific organisational roles, general psychological well-being, and physical health. The self-assessment package consists of the Genos Emotional Intelligence Assessment Scale (formerly the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test; SUIET), a self-assessed behaviour based assessment of workplace EI (Palmer & Stough, 2001); the Occupational Roles Questionnaire from the Occupational Stress Inventory—Revised Edition (Osipow, 1998); the General Health Questionnaire—12 (Goldberg & Williams, 1988) and; a Physical Health Symptoms Questionnaire (adapted from Winefield, Gillespie, Stough, Dua & Hapuararchchi, 2002).

The results generated from the self-assessment questionnaire battery are used to develop an individual's understanding of the relationship between his or her personal characteristics and work stressors. Further, the assessment results are used to improve an individual's self-awareness and self-management capabilities.

3. Skills training components. The skills training focuses on developing stress-management, self-management and emotional intelligence skills. The three main stress management skills taught within the SSMP are: approaches for modifying the environment or situation causing the stress; strategies for how stressful situation(s) are interpreted; and mastering additional skills for deal with stressful situations. Further, the skills training also incorporates three aspects of emotional self-management: *situational, renewal and preventative*.

Finally, the emotional intelligence skills training within the SSMP involves developing the five dimensions of the Swinburne University developed model of EI. Specific strategies include developing a more expansive emotional vocabulary to improve interpersonal communication; identifying and practicing skills underpinning active listening, such as attending and reflecting skills; practicing the emotional reasoning skills; learning emotional management strategies, such as keeping an emotions diary and using an emotional management planning sheet; and rehearsing better ways to control strong emotions when experiencing stress. The specific components, sequence and specific timings for the SSMP are presented in Figure 2 below (Gardner, 2005).

Evaluating the efficacy of the Swinburne Stress Management Programme

Following the design of the program, a comprehensive empirical evaluation of the program's efficacy was under-

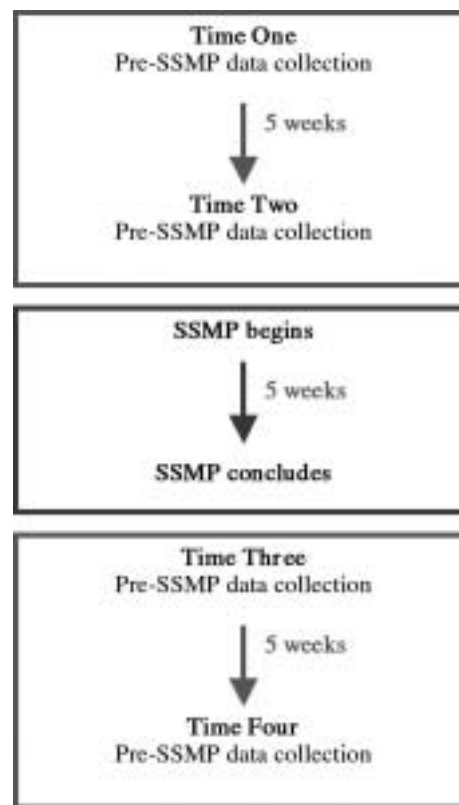


Figure 2: Design of the EI Training Programme

taken (Gardner, 2005). The EI training programme was evaluated in terms of its impact on the following variables: EI enhancement, reductions in reported occupational stress, improvements in psychological health, and physical health. Measures of job satisfaction and organisational commitment were also recorded.

The sample used to evaluate the efficacy of the SSMP consisted of 79 primary and secondary teachers. As shown in Figure 2, baseline measures were taken at two time intervals prior to participation in the EI training program. Participants were also assessed immediately after participation in the programme and at a five-week follow-up interval.

The results indicated that the programme was successful in improving the participant's EI (figure 3), reducing their occupational stress (figure 4) and improving their psychological (figure 5) and physical well-being (figure 6) (Gardner, 2005). These changes were evident immediately after completion of the training programme and were maintained (or improved upon) at the follow-up time period.

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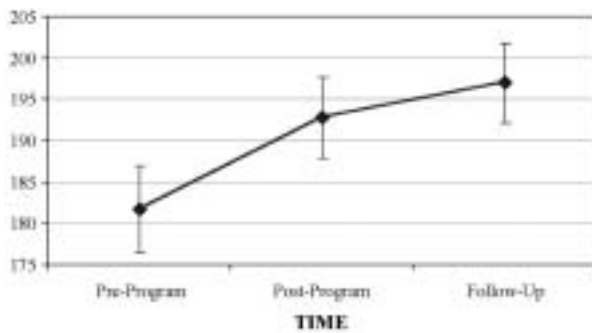


Figure 3: Improvement in EI from pre-programme to follow-up

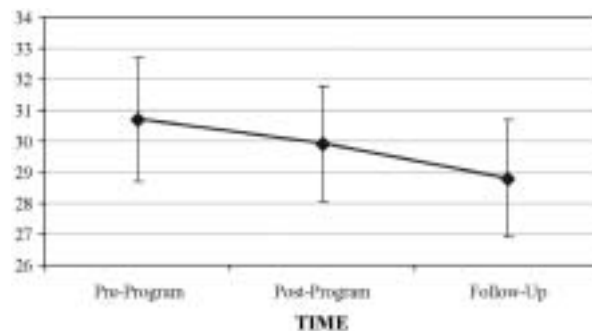


Figure 4: Reduction in perceived role-overload from pre-programme to follow-up

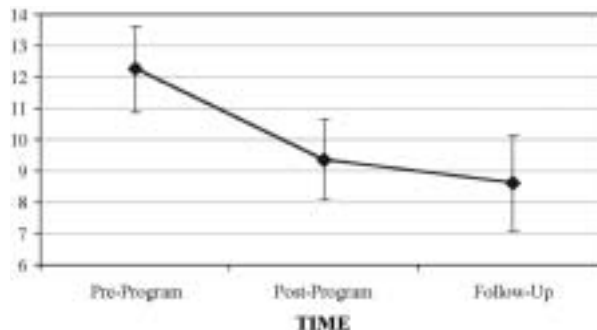


Figure 5: Reduction in psychological strain from pre-programme to follow-up

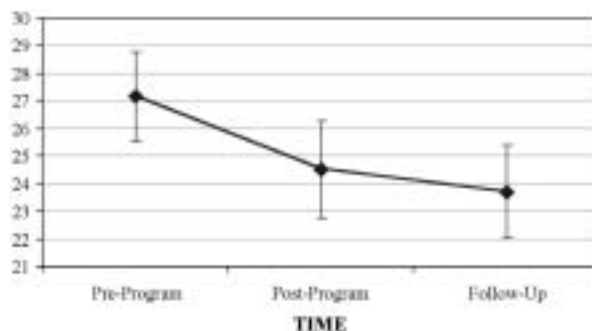


Figure 6: Reduction in physical strain from pre-programme to follow-up

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BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

Dr Karen Hansen is Postdoctoral Research Fellow, Brain Sciences Institute (BSI), Swinburne University of Technology. Karen coordinates the Emotional Intelligence Research Unit at the BSI and is involved in a number of ongoing studies investigating the efficacy of different EI development programs to improve emotional intelligence. KHansen@groupwise.swin.edu.au

Dr Lisa Gardner is the Manager of Training at Atlantis Systems in Canada. She is currently working on implementing a number of development programs and is continuing her work on EI and workplace stress. Dr Gardner completed a PhD at Swinburne University of Technology which involved the creation of a comprehensive stress management programme focused on the development of EI. Through statistical analysis Dr Gardner has demonstrated that dimensions of EI can be developed in adults.

Professor Con Stough has an extensive track record in research and consulting and has published more than 70 peer-reviewed international expert papers in the area of psychology and psychological development. Con's recent work is in the area of developing interventions to improve emotional intelligence and has several ongoing studies with Australian companies assessing the efficacy of different development programs. Professor Stough's work is focussed on improving the inter-personal skills of Australian leaders and workers.

The Role of Emotional Intelligence in the Pursuit of a Spiritual Life: Implications for Individuals in Organisations



RICHARD HARMER & PROFESSOR BARRY FALLON, School of Psychology, Australian Catholic University, Australia



The article explores the relationship between workplace emotional intelligence and employee spirituality. A discussion of spirituality within the workplace can be a taboo topic (Milliman, Czaplewski, & Ferguson, 2003). However, emotional intelligence is, at present, more widely accepted. Drawing on theory and research associated with these constructs we propose that: a) emotional intelligence learning and development initiatives within organisations may provide employees with a medium to better understand and integrate spiritual experiences within their work; b) spirituality and an employee's spiritual practice may concurrently enhance the demonstration of emotional intelligence at work; and c) spirituality may provide organisations and employees with an entirely different way of knowing and experiencing work (Flier, 1995); a way of experiencing work that results in measurable market advantage (Aburdene, 2005). These hypotheses and future directions in workplace spirituality research are suggested, with particular attention provided to the organisational issue of employee attraction, engagement and retention.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, spirituality, spiritual intelligence

Introduction

The purpose of this article is to explore the relationship between the effective application of Emotional Intelligence (EI) at work and another emerging indicator of enhanced organisational performance: workplace spirituality (Aburdene, 2005; Mitroff & Denton, 1999). The article commences with a summary of why spirituality is important in the workplace and outlines how the current business trend of developing greater employee emotional awareness and intelligence also provides employees with the psychological grounding to explore the more complex aspects of individual and collective spiritual experience. The article then outlines how an employee's spiritual practice can further enhance their workplace emotional awareness and intelligence, and concludes with possible future directions of spirituality research in the areas of employee attraction, engagement and retention.

What spirituality is and its relationship to work

Spirituality has been characterised as a core characteristic of healthy people and, more recently, high performing employees and organisations (Aburdene, 2005; Zohar & Marshall, 2004). There are many definitions of spirituality provided in academic literature. The construct is often defined as an awareness of a Being or Force that transcends the material aspects of life (Myers, Sweeney, & Witmer, 2000). As such, the pursuit of a spiritual 'life' engenders self-development related to spirituality; encompassing aspects of self-awareness, existentialism, religiosity and life purpose, morality and ethics, peace with oneself, and self-actualisation. Furthermore, the spiritual 'seeker' is an individual (and employee) who pro-actively considers and pursues a spiritual life.

Considering the role of spirituality within a work context, employees that actively strive for connectedness and

authenticity; who are considerate and respectful of both oneself and the broader organisational community; and who utilise their role at work and within an organisation to create personal meaning and congruency, are likely to be more engaged, productive and effective (Milliman, Czaplewski, & Ferguson, 2003; Mitroff & Denton, 1999; van Dierendonck, Garssen, & Visser, 2005). They are also more likely to be viewed by colleagues as demonstrating workplace spirituality.

How emotional intelligence relates to spirituality

There are many definitions of emotional intelligence (EI) currently used in literature. One useful definition states that EI involves thinking with emotion and effectively communicating the outcome of that thinking (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Therefore, an individual's EI 'potential' is related to his or her level of cognitive, emotional/affective, intra-personal, inter-personal and aesthetic development. Obviously, individual differences in EI are more complex than an individual just thinking about how he or she feels. EI is also related to an individual's degree of meta-cognitive (i.e., what an individual thinks about what they think), moral, self-identity, and values development. Spiritual attentiveness and understanding both interrelates and builds upon all of these developmental lines that make up the unique qualities of an individual.

From a spiritual perspective, the capabilities underpinning effective EI form one aspect of an individual's spiritual development (Page, 2005; Wilbur, 2006). That is, emotional awareness and intelligence is a subset of an individual's broader psychological experience of spirituality. Put another way, just as a child must learn to crawl before being able to walk and run, research suggests the relationship between emotional intelligence and the latter stages of an individual's spiritual growth may be hierarchical (Wilbur, 2006).

How emotional intelligence and spirituality influence employee effectiveness

Research into EI and workforce effectiveness suggests organisations that provide employees with the feeling they belong to a community willing to support, guide and help them through the many emotional peaks and troughs of work will be more engaged and committed (Garcia-Zamor, 2003). Although still contentious, academic research suggests the effective application of individual EI at work – by leaders and employees at all levels—is a stronger predictor of workforce effectiveness than traditional intelligence (IQ) or an individual employee's personality (Antonakis, 2004; Palmer, Gardner, & Stough, 2003).

More specifically, the important organisational performance indicator of leadership is highly correlated with an employee's EI. EI is related to an organisational leader's capability to show sensitivity and empathy towards others; build on other work colleagues' ideas; influence others to

accept alternative points of view; demonstrate integrity and; act according to prevailing ethical standards by remaining consistent with one's words and actions (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003).

An individual's spirituality and spiritual practice also impact his or her leadership effectiveness. Hoppe (2005), explored high impact leadership and identified the following four attributes of spiritually aware leaders:

1. *Commitment to the 'Inner Journey'*. Spiritually aware leaders are committed to understanding who they are by looking deep within (i.e., self-awareness) and in so doing set their spiritual compass for the search for truth, authenticity and meaning.
2. *A search for meaning and significance*. Just as Victor Frankl outlined how his personal search for meaning helped him survive the atrocities of *Auschwitz*, spiritually aware leaders are able to rise above the mundane nature of daily life to try to make sense of the world and their place in it.
3. *An acceptance and expression of one's 'Wholeness'*. Spiritually aware leaders do not shy from expressing who they are—both their inner and outer worlds—to those with whom they work. They recognise that in order to generate self-understanding one must develop an understanding and acceptance of others.
4. *An embracing of 'Connectedness'*. For many employees, the workplace has become their primary community and source of social support. The spiritually aware leader further understands the inter-relationship of him or her to the organisation; and the organisation with a broader market system, society and the environment, which results in increased psychological ownership of their role within the organisational system.

The competencies underpinning effective workplace EI will enhance a spiritually aware leader's effectiveness as they relate to these four attributes. Conversely fostering a leader's self-awareness, openness to exploring and communicating the wholeness (or 'gestalt') of their work experiences, and the valuing of his or her inter-connectedness with work colleagues will also enhance their level of EI.

Why integrating employee spirituality into future workforce planning is important

It is the present authors' position that not explicitly placing spirituality on an organisation's workforce planning agenda will result in a missed opportunity to enhance organisational performance. Emerging research indicates that failing to do so will also, ultimately, result in the breakdown of the social and emotional fabric of the organisation (Fraser & Grootenboer, 2004). By way of example, consider the organisational impact of an employee who is financially astute yet ethically bankrupt; a manager who is a great friend and confidant to others but emotionally fragile within themselves, or a leader who has dedicated his or her career to bringing about and driving organisational

success yet has begun to consider past successes as meaningless. What might the impact be on employee moral, team performance and leadership effectiveness of these three scenarios for an organisation?

Considering the shifting territory for organisational performance—an increased need to cope and develop through massive change, manage and interpret large amounts of information, and understand cross-industry and cross-market changes—a different way of knowing is required (Cherniss, 2001; Flier, 1995). Within the workplace, this is not just understanding something new but, an entirely different way of knowing (Flier, 1995). Put another way, future organisational success will increasingly depend not on *what* employees' think, but *how* they think (Page, 2005).

But research suggests that the required *way* of thinking is currently available to less than 10% of the world's population (Cook-Greuter, 2002; Wilbur, 2006). This creates a workforce planning dilemma for many organisations. The required *way* of thinking, however, is more readily available to individuals who purposefully undertake spiritual practice and the pursuit of a spiritual life (Page, 2005). Therefore, providing employees with an awareness and understanding of their inner spiritual landscape—through which his or her job role, work colleagues and the organisation as a collective can be interpreted—will result in a greater capacity for self-actualisation and conscious contribution to organisational success (Page, 2005).

Future directions in workplace spirituality

Studies explicitly explored the potential negative role of spirituality for an employee or organisation performance is limited. Counselling-oriented research exploring the relationship between spirituality and emotional distress has suggested that individuals could be too spiritual (Chandler & Holden, 1992). Within an organisational context, a similar premise might also apply. For example, the employee who postulates that his or her "spiritual path" is the only way, offending or alienating co-workers as a result (Milliman, Czaplewski, & Ferguson, 2003).

However, the potential benefits for employees and organisations that explore workplace spirituality are many (Aburdene, 2005; Mitroff & Denton, 1999; Zohar & Marshall, 2004). One potential benefit that deserves consideration and further research relates to the relationship between spirituality and employee attraction, engagement and retention strategies. Tightening labour markets, both within Australia and internationally, have resulted in it becoming increasingly difficult to attract and retain skilled staff. To date, most research into this emerging organisational problem has focused on Human Resource (HR) and organisational practices for managing employee expectations (Horwitz, Teng Heng, & Ahmed Quazi, 2003). Less research has explored the role of individual employees self-managing a suitable career path. Beyond EI development, the application of spirituality and spiritual principles to this critical organisational issue may result in improved

employee tenure, increased employee motivation and enthusiasm, and greater work productivity (Aburdene, 2005). It may also result in the promotion of an employee's responsibility in moulding a personally meaningful career (Seligman, 2002).

Clearly there are reasons beyond just organisational profit for undertaking empirically robust analyses of the role of spirituality into employee attraction, engagement and retention.

Conclusion: Using spirituality-oriented practices to develop workplace emotional intelligence ... and visa-versa

The purpose of this article was to examine the interrelated role of workplace EI and spirituality. In so doing, EI development was described as a useful precursor for providing employees with the inner capacity to better identify, interpret and pursue the more complex aspect of spiritual experience. Just as EI development can support an individual's spiritual growth, the practices of spirituality can be used to facilitate the enhancement of an individual's workplace emotional EI. In brief, the following three spiritual practice considerations could be used to supplement existing workplace EI development initiatives:

1. *Acknowledge that spirituality is universal.* Spirituality is a universal phenomenon (Hoppe, 2005; Miovic, 2004) and, therefore, all employees will seek to find a degree of personal meaning in their work. An organisation's role is to acknowledge and facilitate this process through collaborative dialogue, acceptance of diversity, and the integration of personal and collective work objectives. This initiative creates the required openness for employees to communicate the emotions they experience whilst at work: what they like and dislike; what motivates and de-motivates; when they are most positive and optimistic and when they tend to become frustrated and annoyed. This emotions-based information allows organisational leaders to re-mould work tasks to encourage greater employee engagement and retention.
2. *Encourage systems-level thinking and planning.* The more complex aspects of spiritual (and emotional) growth incorporate systems level thinking to facilitate shared awareness, understanding and commitment (Gantt & Agazarian, 2004; Lund Dean, 2004). Latter stages of spiritual development encourage an integrative spiritual View through the consideration and assimilation of multiple and competing perspectives. This initiative encourages an exploration and understanding of others' emotions, perspectives and opinions within the workplace, a factor known to contribute to employee satisfaction and retention (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002).
3. *Provide opportunities for introspection and the sharing of experience.* Organisations are now providing employees with access to yoga and mindfulness-based mediation classes with positive organisational benefits

resulting (Aburdene, 2005). Such forums teach employees how to introspect and enhance self-awareness. Further, mindfulness-based meditation has been shown to reduce stress, facilitate a greater awareness, teach employees how to dissociate from one's unhelpful emotions so as to better regulate them and, broaden an individual's capability for creativity and innovation (Kabat-Zinn, 2005). Further, conducting group-based coaching of emotional intelligence development (rather than solely one-on-one) creates a shared experience of common workplace challenges and successes; whilst also providing employees with the opportunity to introspect and create greater personal awareness.

To conclude, research into spirituality shows the positive impact of spiritual development on employee performance. Fostering workplace EI provided a strong foundation for the development of an employee's spiritual capacity which, in turn, can contribute to employee attraction, engagement and retention.

Endnote

The present authors are currently undertaking PhD level research into spirituality and the personal and professional outcomes related to spirituality. We invite you or your organisation to participate in this important research by completing an online questionnaire taking approximately 45 minutes. For more information and to participate in this important research, please type the following link into your Internet browser:

www.developfullcircle.com/research/spirituality

Spirituality is an emerging topic in psychology and academic research into the construct is essential. Support is greatly appreciated and we thank you in advance for your involvement in this study.

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BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

Richard Harmer

Richard Harmer is a workplace coach and facilitator with experience in the development and implementation of emotional intelligence enhancement programmes. He has expertise in the assessment and development of leadership capability, sales performance, team effectiveness and individual self-awareness. Richard is also a psychologist and Full Member of the Australian Psychological Society. He also holds a Masters degree in Psychology from Swinburne University of Technology where he completed research in emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction, work-life balance and well-being. He is published

in this area. Richard is currently a PhD student in Psychology at Australian Catholic University (ACU) where he is exploring how individuals create meaning in life and work through spiritual practice.

Professor Barry Fallon

Professor Barry Fallon is the foundation Professor of Psychology at Australia Catholic University, having been appointed to the position in 2001. Prior to that he was in the School of Behavioural Sciences at the University of Melbourne where he was Deputy Head and Course Coordinator for Post Graduate Organisational Psychology. Professor Fallon undertook undergraduate studies in divinity and psychology at the University of Queensland before attending the State University of New York at Buffalo to complete his Master of Arts and PhD in Social Psychology. Professor Fallon is widely published in work-life balance, relationships and organisational leadership and is often invited to present at international conferences on the ways in which individual and organisational factors facilitate well-being and psychological adjustment. Professor Fallon is a former President of the Australian Psychological Society (1995-1997) and currently sits on the Psychologists Registration Board of Victoria (Australia).

Organisations & People

NEWS, OPINIONS AND REVIEWS

Reviews

Applied EI: The Importance of Attitudes in Developing Emotional Intelligence

TIM SPARROW &
AMANDA KNIGHT

*Published by: Jossey, Bass (2006)
Hardcover, 312pp. £24.99*

I have only recently been introduced to Applied Emotional Intelligence (to differentiate what Tim and Amanda are working with from the EI that Daniel Goleman and others describe). I found Goleman difficult to get through because I couldn't always see how I could use EI with my clients. And it was jargon rich. There is very little jargon in this book and what there is, is well explained.

For some time now I have felt there was something missing as I worked with leaders on organisational change . . . I could co-create the change methodology and what we would do and I could explain to them that how they behaved was important to whether or not the change would be successful, but I didn't have a consistent model to share with them around ensuring the right behaviours. So, it was with a big "Ah-hah!" that I read about Applied EI and realised that I now had a consistent model/tool.

Applied EI is eminently usable and easy to explain to

people. Tim and Amanda believe (as do I) that leadership can be taught. In their view, the key to good leadership (and, incidentally, a successful life) is emotional intelligence. This starts with Self Awareness—once a leader has sufficient self awareness he/she can use it to manage him/herself. Then awareness of others (Other Awareness) can be worked on and through that Relationship Management. Being effective in all four areas leads to effective overall performance.

Our thinking and feeling *together* give us what we do, so it is vital to understand the feeling aspects of our attitudes. Emotional intelligence integrates feeling, thinking and doing. All of us have the capacity to behave with emotional intelligence however most of us have interferences (beliefs, attitudes and habits) which stop us. In other words Performance = potential—interference (based on Timothy Gallwey's work).

The first part of the book explains what Applied Emotional Intelligence is and the premise behind their work. The second part of the book looks at how to develop emotionally intelligent attitudes and the third part looks at applying them.

To develop EI one needs to measure it and Tim and Jo Maddox have developed diagnostic tools to provide a base line for people to work with. This helps people to identify where their interferences lie. Part II describes the 18 scales used in the diagnostic tool. These are:

- Life Position (1-3)—which has to do with your self regard and regard for others;

- Awareness (4-5)—awareness of self and others;
- Self Management (6-11)—emotional resilience, personal power, goal directedness, flexibility, personal openness and connectedness and invitation to trust;
- Relationship Management (12-16)—trust, balanced optimism, emotional expression and control, conflict handling and interdependence
- Learning to know yourself (17-18)—reflective learning and how accurate you are in self assessment.

Part III is about applying EI. It goes into detail about how you would use it—for instance—when working with change, or when doing appraisals. This section helped me to see where the real benefit was when using it in my practise. If you are a leader reading this book, there is a whole chapter on EI in leadership, complete with some self assessment and ideas on how to improve. The last chapter is on assessing EI with plenty of links to the psychology behind it (this was a bit heavy for me).

The book is well referenced, there are comparisons with other methodologies (for example NLP) and it is easy to read. I think it is a great introduction to Applied Emotional Intelligence and for those who are interested to know more—there is a link to the Centre for Applied Emotional Intelligence at the back.

Tricia Lustig
LASA Development UK Ltd.

Me + You: 100 ways to work out a formula for success in your personal and professional relationships

MAUREEN BOWES

Published by: Trafford Publishing (2006)

Paperback, 119pp, £9.99

ISBN: 1-4120-8307-9

Available from:

www.peopleintelligence.com and
www.trafford.com/06-0062

This is a handy little do-it-yourself book to help you improve your own Emotional Intelligence. Based on the same model of Applied Emotional Intelligence as that explained in greater depth in Amanda and Tim's book, it comes with a link to a workbook that you can print out (the workbook is 189 pages) to help you work through the sections of the book that you choose to use.

It starts with some background to Applied Emotional

Intelligence presenting it as looking at your self and being aware of your thoughts and feelings after which you can start to manage them. Then it helps you to look at others and be aware of them and their thoughts and feelings followed by an ability to manage the relationship between you.

There is a section on how to use the book, giving several different ways and lists of what you might like to combine when looking at areas you choose to work on. There is a little questionnaire you can fill in to help you to identify areas where you can improve and this is followed by 20 chapters, each with an affirming goal and five things you can do to work on that area. The author thinks of all the different learning styles and you can try one or all five of the suggestions. If you do the work in the accompanying workbook, you have a place to write your findings and keep track of your work.

In between you will find poetry and each section has suggestions of music to listen to (as well as places for you to enter your own suggestions in the workbook itself) that you think will

help you to get into the right place. Finally each chapter finishes with a visualisation.

There is a nice little bibliography at the end (for me, just the right amount and not an overly daunting list. It includes also Amanda and Tim's book) which provides you with extra reading if the subject interests you and you want to find out more.

Don't be fooled by the simplicity of this little book—if you use it to do some work on yourself, it is far from simple. It requires deep thought and working through the suggestions and takes a fair bit of time for each area you work on. It is best if you do the things that are suggested, not just read about them. And good to keep revisiting to ensure that you change (or have changed) your behaviour.

I think this is a very nice companion volume to Applied Emotional Intelligence. It gives you the background and this gives you tools to improve your *own* Emotional Intelligence.

Tricia Lustig

LASA Development UK Ltd.

Write for ORGANISATIONS & PEOPLE

Organisations & People is an authoritative, peer-reviewed journal written by practitioners for practitioners within the field of Organisation Development. The editors of O & P have set out to ensure articles combine intellectual rigour with high readability while presenting high-grade material in a style that is easily accessible to those at all stages of their business career.



Any subject within the broad range of developing organisations and individuals is acceptable and in the past have included: case studies of practical interventions, positive approaches to change, change management, knowledge mobilisation, cultural diversity, whole system development, complexity and other topical areas relevant to development.

Articles can, on request, be formally peer-reviewed by either a panel of practitioners or an international panel of academics. Occasional academic articles reflecting current research are welcomed as long as they are written with a practitioner audience in mind.

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