

**THE COMPILATION AND EVALUATION OF A DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMME AIMED AT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

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*“It does not belong to us Lord,
the glory belongs to you,
because of your love and loyalty.”
Psalm 115:1*

My sincerest gratitude to

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I dedicate this thesis to Wiehan Douw Jonker

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ABSTRACT

THE COMPILATION AND EVALUATION OF A DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME AIMED AT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

KEY CONCEPTS: Emotional intelligence, training design, training methods.

Due to the complexity of today's organisational environment, those who are able to anticipate, react, and respond to change and learn, will likely be the ones that manage to maintain a competitive advantage. These organisations are constantly looking for more effective and efficient ways of training competencies to ensure the latter. The optimal development and utilisation of individual characteristics and skills are crucial to better organisation effectiveness within South African organisations. In this regard, the measurement and development of emotional intelligence can play a significant role. Emotional intelligence forms part of the contributing factors, which can enhance worker productivity (amongst other beneficial factors), because it stimulates an environment for change and innovation.

There are indications that emotional intelligence levels are decreasing in labour market entrants. There is also a specific need for the development of emotional intelligence in accounting professions. Accountants' success is related to their intelligence quotient (20%) and also on the ability to understand themselves and other and to interact with people (emotional intelligence). Existing emotional intelligence programmes fail, because it makes use of cognitive learning over a short period of time.

It was against this background that the research study was undertaken to determine the effect of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence. The study population consisted of future employees of an accounting firm's Gauteng Province. The development programme aimed at emotional intelligence was designed according to training guidelines, models and methods specifically designed for emotional intelligence training programmes. The proposed training guidelines, models and methods were mainly learner centred, apply adult learning techniques and rely on experiential training methods.

Forty future employees were randomly assigned using a before-after research design with a pre-post testing method. The Baron EQ-i was used to measure development in emotional intelligence competencies. A quantitative evaluation was made by using data derived from participant's diary inscriptions. The results of the empirical study revealed that the experimental groups' total EQ level developed significantly. The specific sub-scales of development included: Interpersonal, Adaptability and General Mood. Two of the competencies of the sub-scale Intrapersonal showed increase namely, Self-regard and self-actualisation. Although Stress Management as a sub-scale showed no significant improvement, there was a development in the Stress Tolerance competence. Qualitative impressions indicated a development in Emotional Self-awareness, Empathy and Interpersonal Relationships. Two themes that emerged, as possible new indicators of emotional intelligence are Self-Awareness and Self-acceptance.

Recommendations for future research were made

OPSOMMING

DIE SAMESTELLING EN EVALUERING VAN 'N ONTWIKKELINGSPROGRAM GERIG OP EMOSIONELE INTELLIGENSIE

SLEUTEL TERME: Emosionele intelligensie, opleidingsontwerp, opleidingsmetodes

As gevolg van die kompleksiteit van vandag se organisasie-omgewing, is diegene wat instaat is om te antisipeer, om op te tree en te reageer teenoor verandering, die wat instaat sal wees om 'n kompeterende voordeel te behou. Hierdie organisasies is voortdurend opsoek na meer effektiewe en bruikbare wyses vir die ontwikkeling van bevoegdhede om die eienskappe soos hierbo genoem te verseker. Die optimale ontwikkeling en eksplorering van individuele eienskappe en vaardighede is noodsaaklik om organisasie effektiwiteit te verbeter binne organisasies in Suid-Afrika.

In hierdie verband speel die meting en ontwikkeling van emosionele intelligensie 'n beduidende rol. Emosionele intelligensie vorm deel van die bydraende faktore wat werknemer produktiwiteit kan verbeter, omdat dit stimulerend inwerk op 'n omgewing vir verandering en innovasie.

Daar is tekens dat emosionele intelligensie-vlakke van nuwe arbeidsmark toetreders daal. Daar bestaan ook 'n spesifieke behoefte vir die ontwikkeling van emosionele intelligensie binne die Rekeningkundige beroepe. Rekeningkundiges se sukses hou verband met hul intelligensie koëffisiënt en ook die vermoë om hulself en ander te verstaan, asook om met ander in interaksie te tree (emosionele intelligensie). Bestaande emosionele intelligensie programme faal, omdat dit gebruik maak van kognitiewe leer oor 'n kort tydspanne.

Dit was teen hierdie agtergrond dat hierdie navorsingstudie onderneem is: om te bepaal wat die effek van 'n ontwikkelingsprogram gerig op emosionele intelligensie is. Die studiepopulasie het bestaan uit die beurshouers(toekomstige werknemers) van 'n Rekeningkundige firma se Gauteng area. Die ontwikkelingsprogram gerig op emosionele intelligensie is

ontwerp na gelang van opleidingsriglyne, modelle en metodes wat spesifiek verskaf is vir emosionele intelligensie programme. Die voorgestelde opleidingsriglyne, modelle en metodes is hoofsaaklik leerder gesentreerd, dit pas volwasseleer-beginsels toe en maak staat op ervaringsleer opleidingsmetodes.

Veertig toekomstige werknemers (beurshouers) was ewekansig toegedeel aan 'n Eksperimentele-Kontrole groep ontwerp met 'n voor en natoetsing. Die BarOn EQ-i was gebruik as meetinstrument om ontwikkeling in emosionele intelligensie bevoegdhele waar te neem. 'n Kwalitatiewe evaluasie is ook gedoen deur data te genereer vanuit deelnemers se dagboek inskrywings. Die resultaat van die empiriese studie het getoon dat die eksperimentele groep se totale EQ vlak betekenisvol verbeter het. Spesifieke sub-skaale waar verbetering plaasgevind het sluit in: Interpersoonlik, Aanpasbaarheid en Algemene Gemoedstoestand. Twee van die bevoegdhele van die sub-skaal Intrapersoonlik het 'n betekenisvolle verbetering getoon naamlik Self-agting en selfaktualisering. Alhoewel Stres bestuur as 'n sub-skaal geen verbetering getoon het nie, was daar tog ontwikkeling in die Strestoleransie bevoegdheid self. Kwalitatiewe indrukke het 'n ontwikkeling getoon in Emosionele-Selfbewustheid, Empatie en Interpersoonlike Verhoudinge. Twee temas wat kan dui op moontlike nuwe aanduidings van Emosionele Intelligensie is Selfbewustheid/Selfkennis en Selfaanvaarding.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

This research study considers the compilation and evaluation of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence. It also seeks to gain a broader knowledge and understanding of the origin and theories of this new evolving construct in psychology. Emotional intelligence's contribution and use in the broader organisation, and specific in human resources, are also investigated.

1.1 Problem Statement

The organisation is an open system that is in interaction with environmental forces (Harvey & Brown, 1992). Forces that have an influence on organisations in South Africa are for example a diverse employee population, a relative young working population, stereotyping and prejudice regarding diverse groups and the political climate (Carrell et al. 1998). Organisations thus have to adapt to stay effective. Organisation effectiveness is influenced by the interaction between individuals, groups and organisational factors (Robbins, 1996). As forces linked to international competition become more intense, organisations in South Africa are under constant pressure to implement some changes. Due to the complexity of today's organisational environment, those who are able to anticipate, react, respond to change and learn, will likely be the ones that manage to maintain a competitive advantage. These organisations, are constantly looking for more effective and efficient ways of training competencies to ensure the latter (Dwyer, 2001).

According to the world competitiveness report, human resources in South Africa are graded 45th out of 46 countries. Wolmarans (1998) states that attention must be given to the development of individuals in the organisation to rectify this poor placement of human resources. The conclusion can then be drawn that in order

to make human resources more effective – focus must be on training and development of employees in organisations. The optimal development and utilisation of individual characteristics and skills are crucial to better organisation effectiveness. In July 1998 a survey of human resources professions at Fortune 1000, involved companies, who concluded that interpersonal skills are vital to an organisations' overall success (Hays, 1999). In this regard the measurement and development of emotional intelligence can play a significant role (Wolmarans, 1998).

Emotional intelligence forms part of the contributing factors, which can enhance worker productivity, because it stimulates competitiveness and an environment for change and innovation (Dwyer, 2001; Smigla & Pastoria, 2000; Wolmarans, 1998). Employment skills (which have a very close relationship with the attributes of emotional intelligence) for the twenty-first century have been described as having good personal management skills, which according to Dwyer (2001) include:

- Positive attitude and behaviour
- High self-esteem
- Confidence
- Ability to set goals
- Honesty, integrity, accountability for actions taken
- Adaptability and team skills

Caudron (1999) states that development of emotional intelligence must be aimed at entry- and top management levels. This suggested target of emotional intelligence development might be due to the fact that entry level and top management development will provide the highest results in training and development. Aiming development of emotional intelligence at entry level employees will enhance adaptability and foster interpersonal relationships so that the new entrant will become a productive member of the organisation in the shortest time possible. Development of emotional intelligence within top

management, (they who deal with the demands, rapidity and uncertainty of change) will most likely enhance leadership skills and visionary (Caudron, 1999).

Emotional intelligence has captured the collective imagination in recognition of the fact that intuitively it does not make sense to disconnect emotions and intellect (Caudron, 1999). As a domain, emotional intelligence introduces and added dimension to the concept of human intelligence. Cognitive intelligence, measured by the Intelligence Quotient, has dominated work in the area of intelligence, and refers to the capacity of an individual to understand, learn, recall, think rationally, solve problems and apply learning, as key predictors of success (Kaplan & Sadock, 1991). Emotional intelligence recognises personal or social dimensions of intelligence (Bar-On, 1997). The term emotional intelligence was therefore born out of the determination that factors other than cognitive intelligence contribute to success or achieving of personal goals (Goleman, 1995a).

Emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) portrays the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. Emotional intelligence encompass the array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence a person's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On, 1996). In defining emotional intelligence, Bar-On (1997) describes the intelligence component as the aggregate of abilities, competencies and skills representing the collection of knowledge used to cope with life effectively and he added adjective, emotional, to distinguish it from cognitive intelligence. Bar-On (1997) further listed fifteen factorial components of emotional intelligence, namely emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualisation, independence, empathy, interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, problem solving, reality testing, flexibility, stress tolerance, impulse control, happiness and optimism. The concept of emotional intelligence was only

recently popularised by Daniel Goleman (1995), who extended his observations to include an overview of the role of emotional intelligence in the workplace/organisation.

The conclusion can be drawn that the field of emotional intelligence is relatively new. This is indicated by the fact that definitions of emotional intelligence in the literature only emerged in the nineties. There is no clear-cut definition of emotional intelligence and this tendency will also be investigated in the literature study in chapter 2. No definition of emotional intelligence, as it applies to training and development, could be found and the researcher will also make a contribution in this regard. At this early stage in the study the hypotheses can already be made that there exists a need for the investigation of emotional intelligence as a development instrument in the organisation.

Organisations experience that empathy, flexibility and self-confidence, for example can be related to improvements on the bottom line (Laabs, 1999). Cooper (1998) highlighted research, which showed that emotions, when properly managed, drive trust, loyalty, team and organisational accomplishments. A deficiency in emotional intelligence can lead to the following symptoms in organisations: uncertainty, low moral, lack of initiative, creativity and innovation, poor work team performance, stress and burnout and poor relationships between employees.

Abraham (1999) is one of the few researchers found to make the following propositions regarding the impact of emotional intelligence in the workplace:

- Emotional intelligence is directly related to work group cohesion
- Emotional intelligence moderates the congruence between self- and supervisor ratings. Emotional intelligence, on the part of supervisors and subordinates, increases the correspondence between self- and supervisors ratings of subordinate performance
- Emotional intelligence is directly related to performance

- Emotional intelligence is directly related to organisational commitment
- Emotional intelligence is directly related to organisational citizenship
- Emotional intelligence moderates the emotional dissonance-job satisfaction and emotional dissonance organisational commitment relationships. Higher levels of emotional intelligence result in higher job satisfaction and organisation commitment from emotional dissonance
- Emotional intelligence moderates the ethical role conflict job – job satisfaction and ethical role conflict-organisational commitment relationships. Higher levels of emotional intelligence may result in either more or less job dissatisfaction and organisational commitment from ethical role conflict
- Highly emotional intelligent individuals suffer less emotional erosion due to organisational commitment and are less likely to withdraw as a result of job insecurity caused by short-term contracts
- Emotional intelligence may intervene to prevent work stress from resulting in turnover

The assumption can no be made that by introducing an array of emotional intelligence interventions in the form of emotional intelligence training, the organisation will benefit from the results as the above propositions indicate.

On individual level, insufficient emotional intelligence levels may result in low self-worth, power games, unrealistic expectations of the self and other, low energy levels, poor work performance and the denying of the existence of emotions (Wolmarans, 1998). According to Cooper (1997) the development of emotional intelligence will result in higher productivity, loyalty, innovation and performance of individuals, groups and organisations.

In the current literature, few references are made to the impact of emotional intelligence programmes on groups or individuals. The current research trends are investigating relationships and the correlation between emotional intelligence

and other constructs such as work performance, personality types, change and transformation leadership (Abraham, 1999; Sosik & Megerian, 1999).

Peterson (1996) found that a programme, in which individuals were evaluated, given feedback and were trained in components of emotional intelligence, resulted in better goal setting and more optimal behaviour after the training and six months thereafter. Boyatzis (1996) notes that a programme administered on business school students resulted in better creativity, flexibility, empathy, self-worth and persuasion skills. Evans, Sweet and Coman (1993) found that a development programme administered on medical students resulted in higher levels of empathy and communication.

University students form part of the future work force of South Africa. Research regarding the development of university students' is therefore relevant. Research in the late eighties and nineties focused on students' needs (Henderson, 1998), personality measurements (Roux, 1987), training and development (Bosman, 1987; Olivier, 1993; Nienaber, 1992) and life skills (Raijmakers, 1993).

There are indications that emotional intelligence levels are decreasing in labour market entrants (Salopek, 1998; Smigla & Pastoria, 2000). Students have to learn how to get along with seniors in the work place, how the reward system in an organisation functions and how to handle changes. These development tasks are sometimes not successful due to the great discrepancy between the role as student and the role as a new employee (Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994). Van Niekerk & Van Niekerk (1990) states that students who become new labour market entrants have difficulty in communication and lack skills to handle these new changes successfully. The new labour market entrants also have the need to develop life skills and effective intra- and interpersonal skills (Griffith, 1999; Mathee, 1991). These programmes ought to stimulate cognitive and emotional intelligence.

The development of emotional intelligence is possible due to the fact that (different to intellectual intelligence) it can be seen as co-ordinated composites of habits regarding thoughts, feelings and behaviour. If people can unlearn these habits, new habits can be learned (Goleman, 1998a; Laabs, 1999). From an existential psychological perspective, it can now be reasoned that students (as developing adults) have certain developmental tasks that need to be settled. This trend can also provide an explanation of the underdevelopment of emotional intelligence in students who are in the early adult phase of development. Goleman (1998a) states that older people have better developed emotional intelligence skills and that emotional intelligence skills can be developed.

Development of emotional intelligence is particularly important in accounting professions. The first reason is that most accounting professions' training only consists of technical competencies where as competencies to deal with people in the work environment are in most cases left behind (Smigla & Pastoria, 2000). Secondly, it can be assumed that people in accounting professions have a preference to work with facts and figures, leaving the development and engagement in people and people skills behind. Emotional intelligence, along with good communication skills and technical competency, is necessary for success in the accounting profession. In this regard, the New York State Society of Certified Public Accountants state that 20% of an accountant's success is related to their intelligence quotient and the other 80% is based on the ability to understand themselves and other and to interact with people (emotional intelligence) (Kirch, Tucker & Kirch, 2001).

Existing emotional intelligence programmes fail, because it makes use of cognitive learning over a short period of time (Laabs, 1999). The effectiveness of these programmes are not measured and behaviour change not seen. (Laabs, 1999). So far, training specifically coined as emotional intelligence, has not evolved as a paradigm on it's own, although trends of soft-skills training, such as

interpersonal communication, have been on the training front for years (Laabs, 1999).

To summarise, it can be stated that South African companies must stay competitive in a global market. From an industrial psychology perspective, this can be done through organisational effectiveness and in particular to pay attention to the training and development of emotional intelligence. The development of emotional intelligence must be aimed at new labour market entrants, because it seems as though their level of emotional intelligence are lower than elder people. According to the literature study it also seems as though a particular need in accounting firms exist for the development of emotional intelligence. This problem statement gives rise to the following research questions:

- How is the origin and theory of emotional intelligence conceptualised in current literature?
- How can emotional intelligence be applied in the organisation to improve organisational effectiveness?
- What is the guidelines and methodology of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence?
- What is the quantitative effects of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence?
- What is the qualitative effects of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence?
- Which recommendations can be made to foster emotional intelligence at new labour market entrants?

These research questions serve as the basis for the formulation of the objectives of the research.

1.2 Research Objectives

The objectives of this research include a general objective, as well as specific objectives.

1.2.1 General objective

The general objective of the research is to compile and evaluate a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence.

1.2.2 Specific objectives

Specific objectives formulated for this research are the following:

- To conceptualise the origin and theory of emotional intelligence from current literature.
- To conceptualise how emotional intelligence can be applied in the organisation to better organisational effectiveness.
- To determine the guidelines and methodology of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence.
- To determine the quantitative effect of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence.
- To determine the qualitative effect of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence.
- To make recommendations about the fostering of emotional intelligence in new labour market entrants.

In recognition of the contextuality of social sciences research, the following section is dedicated to a discussion of the paradigmatic perspective of this research study.

1.3 Paradigmatic perspective of the research

This research will be directed towards a specific paradigm and will comprise of an intellectual climate and a market of intellectual resources (Mouton & Marais, 1992).

Mouton & Marais (1992) states that social sciences research is a collaborative undertaking with the purpose of acquiring a reliable understanding of social reality, which is always contextual. Research in social sciences is always undertaken within a larger framework of interacting paradigmatic and disciplinary context (Mouton & Marais, 1992).

These paradigmatic contexts form the market of intellectual resources and recognise that individual researchers, by way of their training, exhibits theoretical and methodological preferences. These preferences serve to outline the scope of theories and methodologies, employed by researchers in their research. Shared assumptions amongst researchers relating to the nature, domain and structure of research within the social sciences, also form part of the paradigmatic context (Mouton & Marais, 1992).

The disciplinary context, in turn, reflects meta-theoretical assumptions about ontological suppositions, theories and research models on which the paradigmatic context is based (Mouton & Marais, 1992). Mouton & Marais (1992) termed these values or beliefs, held by discipline practitioners, as the intellectual climate. Any individual research project is therefore rooted in both paradigms and disciplines and is thus contextual.

In their modified systems theoretical model of social sciences research, Mouton & Marais (1992) depicted the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual resources and the research process itself as three interactive subsystems extending to include interaction with a discipline specific research domain. The

intellectual climate and market of intellectual resources will be discussed next, after which the research process itself will follow.

1.3.1 The intellectual climate

The intellectual climate refers to the convictions, values and assumptions that do not form part of the empirical goals of the scientific research practice. The intellectual climate is also the range of postulates, held by a particular discipline at a given time. In social sciences research, the intellectual climate would therefore include beliefs relating to the nature of social reality. Discipline specific beliefs would include beliefs about human beings and the nature of society, culture and history (Mouton & Marais, 1992).

1.3.1.1 Discipline and sub-disciplines of the research

This research falls under the behavioural sciences and as such represents a study of human behaviour. It then is imbedded in the psychology field of science, defined as the social sciences in which a study is made of how organisms, more specifically individual human beings, think, learn, perceive, feel, understand themselves and interact with others (Sternberg, 1995).

The field of cognitive psychology is relevant to this research in so far as it relates to how individuals take in and process information (Sternberg, 1995). The interaction between individuals, both as individuals and a group, or social psychology, is also relevant to this research (Sternberg, 1995).

This research is also rooted in the field of industrial psychology, described by Schultz and Schultz (1986) as the application of the methods, facts, and principles of psychology to people at work. It can also be defined as the scientific study of human behaviour and psychological conditions in a work-related context,

including the application of this knowledge to address related problems. As a discipline, industrial psychology includes components such as career psychology, personnel psychology, organisational psychology, psychometrics, consumer behaviour and ergonomics.

The sub-disciplines of industrial psychology relevant to this research are organisational psychology and personnel psychology. Organisational psychology is described as the study of human behaviour, attitudes and performance within an organisational setting, drawing of theory, methods and principles from such disciplines as psychology and to learn about individual perceptions, values and learning capacities (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1991). Personnel Psychology is a sub-discipline of Industrial Psychology that concerns itself with the studying of the psychological traits of the worker in relation to his job tasks and other workers (Plug, Louw, Gouws & Meyer, 1997). This research will cross over into these sub-disciplines in term of training and evaluating individuals on emotional intelligence competencies.

1.3.1.2 Meta-theoretic assumptions

The approach used in this research is that of positivism, implying the use of quantitative data and hypotheses testing with the ultimate purpose of understanding the laws of human behaviour and utilising the knowledge gained for the purpose of making improvements and predictions (Neuman, 1997). In keeping with this approach it is held that the nature of social reality is real, not random, patterned and has order. The patterns are stable and knowledge of these patterns is additive. In positivism, human beings are regarded as rational and human events are explained using probabilistic causal laws (Neuman, 1997).

This research is also formulated within a functionalistic framework, which assumes that units of psychological phenomena can be explained in terms of

relationships and that these explanations serve to enhance human adaptation and survival (Plug et al. 1997).

Other perspectives held in this research include humanism and cognitivism, emphasising an understanding of people's thought processes and the self-actualisation of human potential, respectively (Sternberg, 1995). This research will also make use of the phenomenological approach, which aims to describe human behaviour as it occurs in daily life and in particular in this research study how the emotional intelligence training is experienced by the study population (Kruger, 1984).

1.3.2 The market of intellectual resources

The market of intellectual resources refers to the set of convictions that lend epistemic status to scientific assertions, and a distinction can be made between theoretical and methodological beliefs (Mouton & Marais, 1992).

1.3.2.1 Theoretical beliefs

According to Mouton and Marais (1992), theoretical beliefs are descriptive and interpretative explanations pertaining to aspects of human behaviour and as such include all statements forming part of hypotheses, typologies, theoretical definitions, models and theories.

The elements of theoretical beliefs will be discussed in terms of the concepts, theories and models used in this research study.

1.3.2.1.1 Concepts

The following conceptual descriptions have been used in this research. The following conceptual framework is the foundation upon emotional intelligence according to Bar-On (1997).

- *Cognitive intelligence and intelligence quotient.* The word “intelligence” did not appear in literature before the twentieth century, nor did it appear in Baldwin’s Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology, which was published in 1902. As late as 1927, the majority of the best-accredited books on psychology did not even mention the word intelligence (Kaplan & Sadock, 1991).

Cognitive intelligence has been defined as the capacity to understand, learn recall, think rationally, solve problems, and apply what one has learned (Kaplan & Sadock, 1991).

David Wechsler’s view of “general intelligence” is probably one of the most useful and one that lends itself to consider other forms of intelligence in addition to cognitive intelligence. He viewed general intelligence as the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment. In essence, this included the ability to adapt to new situations and to cope with life situations successfully. Within this broad definition and wide conceptual framework, it is definably possible to put together the notion of emotional intelligence. In fact, Wechsler discussed these “nonintellective factors in general intelligence” as early as 1940. The theories used in this research are thus related to the “non-intellective” component of intelligence.

- *Emotional intelligence and EQ (Emotional Quotient).* The term “emotional intelligence” does not yet appear in dictionaries, as such its definition is still

an unsettled issue, as are the boundaries of this new evolving construct. Those who attempt to define this concept should be as thorough, clear, and operational as possible. Such an approach will help make this concept more tangible and thus easier to understand, measure, and apply.

Emotional intelligence encompass the array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills, which influence a person's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On, 1997). As such, one's emotional intelligence is an important factor in determining one's ability to succeed in life and directly influences one's general psychological well-being – one's present mental condition or overall degree of emotional health. Emotional intelligence combines with other important determinants, such as biomedical predisposition and conditions, cognitive intellectual capacity, as well as the reality and limitations of the immediate and ever-changing environment (Goleman, 1995).

Bar-On's model (1997) is multi-factorial and relates to potential for performance, rather than performance itself; it is process-orientated, rather than outcome-orientated.

Concepts of emotional intelligence:

- **Self-Awareness.** Emotional self-awareness is the ability to recognise one's feelings. It is not only the ability to be aware of one's feelings and emotions, but also to differentiate between them, to know what one is feeling and why, and to know what caused the feeling. Serious deficiencies in these are found in the inability to express feelings verbally.
- **Assertiveness.** Assertiveness is the ability to express feelings, beliefs, and thoughts and defend one's rights in a non-destructive manner. Assertiveness is composed of three basic components: a) the ability to express feelings, b) the ability to express beliefs and thoughts openly and c) the ability to stand up for personal rights.

- **Self-Regard.** Self-regard is the ability to respect and accept oneself as basically good.
- **Self-Actualisation.** Self-actualisation pertains to the ability to realise one's potential capacities. Becoming involved in pursuits that lead to a meaningful, rich, and full life manifests this component of emotional intelligence.
- **Independence.** Independence is the ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in one's thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency.
- **Empathy.** Empathy is the ability to be aware of, to understand, and to appreciate the feeling of others.
- **Interpersonal relationship.** Interpersonal relationship skill involves the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships, which are characterised by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection.
- **Social responsibility.** Social responsibility is the ability to demonstrate oneself as a co-operative, contributing, and constructive member of one's social group. This ability involves acting in a responsible manner, even though one may not benefit personally.
- **Problem Solving.** Problem solving aptitude is the ability to identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions.
- **Reality Testing.** Reality testing is the ability to assess the correspondence between what is experienced and what objectively exists.
- **Flexibility.** Flexibility is the ability to adjust one's emotions, thoughts and behaviour to changing situations and conditions.
- **Stress Tolerance.** Stress tolerance is the ability to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without falling apart by actively and positively coping with stress.
- **Impulse Control.** Impulse control is the ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive or temptation to act. It entails a capacity for accepting

one's aggressive impulses, being composed, and controlling aggression hostility, and irresponsible behaviour.

- **Happiness.** Happiness is the ability to feel satisfied with one's life, to enjoy oneself as well as others and to have fun.
- **Optimism.** Optimism is the ability to look at the brighter side of life and to maintain a positive attitude, even in the face of adversity.

1.3.2.1.2 Theoretical models and theories

Whereas models classify and propose relationships (Mouton & Marais, 1992), theories also go on to specify the relations between variables in an effort to explain human behaviour in a given population (Huysamen, 1993). The following models and theories are relevant to this research:

- Wechlers's (1974) theory on intelligence goes beyond the initial conceptualisation of intelligence as goal-directed adaptive, behaviour. Wechsler (1974) theorised that intelligence extends into all aspects of people's daily lives and includes relating to other people, working and managing one's life.
- Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences proposes seven distinct and relatively independent intelligences, namely: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, musical, kinaesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. The interaction and collective functioning of these separate systems produce what is termed intelligent behaviour.
- The theory of emotional intelligence by Bar-On (1996) recognises a form of intelligence other than cognitive intelligence and proposes that emotional intelligence assist in predicting success in so far as it relates to individuals' abilities to apply knowledge to dealing with environmental demands.

- Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence includes intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management and general mood (Bar-On, 1997).
- Mayer & Salovey's (1997) theory of emotional intelligence postulates that emotional intelligence refers to an ability to recognise the meaning of emotions and their relationships and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them. Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them.
- Mayer and Salovey (1997) formulated a model of emotional intelligence which consists of the following four branches of emotional intelligence: perception, appraisal and expression of emotion, emotional facilitation of thinking, understanding, analysing and employing emotional knowledge and reflective regulation of emotions to further emotional and intellectual growth.
- A newly introduced training model of Dwyer (2001) will be used as the context in which emotional intelligence training will take place. This new training model makes learning more personalised, meaningful, lasting and enjoyable for all trainees. The proposed new training model is learner centred, embracing three additional environments which, combined with the cognitive environment, are essential for effective learning. They are the emotional, physical and social environments, which require a functional understanding of brain-based learning, multiple intelligence and emotional intelligence.
- The researcher will introduce a new growth model of emotional intelligence. This growth model consists of three levels that build on each other. Awareness of emotions in the self and others is applied in

communication and decision-making in the self and others. This process results in the third level, namely the outputs or results level of the development process of emotional intelligence, for example, better stress tolerance, adaptability, and other interpersonal relationship skills.

1.3.3 Methodological beliefs

Methodological beliefs depict the understanding held by researchers on the nature of social science and scientific research (Mouton & Marais, 1992). Included amongst these beliefs are the types of traditions practised in the philosophy of social sciences such as positivism or phenomenology, as well as methodological models such as the quantitative or qualitative model.

The point of departure in this research, as indicated earlier, is positivistic. Positivism regards social science as an organised method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws, which can be used to predict general patterns of human activity (Neuman, 1997).

The research also makes use of a quantitative approach to gathering the empirical evidence and is therefore characterised by the measurement of objective facts, a focus on variables, seeking reliability and being value free (Neuman, 1997). The research is accompanied by statistical analyses and therefore includes references to means, standard deviations, internal consistency, reliability, validity, practical significance correlation coefficients and regression analysis.

The research also makes use of a qualitative approach. Qualitative research produces research findings that are not arrived at by statistical summary or analysis and lack quantification altogether (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

The research methodology employed in this research is described below.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research method consists of two phases: literature review and an empirical study.

1.4.1 Phase 1 : Literature review

The aim of the literature review is the conceptualisation of emotional intelligence and the conceptualisation of the application of emotional intelligence in the workplace, as well as the conceptualisation of the implementation of an emotional intelligence-training programme.

1.4.2 Phase 2: Empirical study

The following components of the empirical study are designed to assist in achieving the research objectives.

1.4.2.1 Research design

The research objectives will be achieved by employing a pre-test/post-test control-group design. In this design the subjects are chosen at random from the population and assigned randomly to the experimental group or control group. Each group is given a pre-test and a post-test, but only the experimental group is exposed to the instructional treatment. Many of the threats to internal validity are controlled. Variables like history and pre-testing should affect the experimental group and the control group equally (Goldstein & Ford, 2001).

1.4.2.2 Study population

The population for this research is the total number of bursars ($N=40$) based in the Gauteng region of an Accounting Firm.

1.4.2.3 Measuring battery

The following measuring instrument are administered in this study:

- *The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On EQ-i)* contains 133 items and employs a five-point response set (Bar-On, 1997). The assessment renders four validity scale scores, a total EQ score, five composite scale scores and 15 EQ subscale scores. The Bar-On EQ-i has an extensive normative database of more than 9 000 people and was tested internationally, including South Africa. This contributes to the high statistical reliability of the instrument (Bar-On, 1997).

EQ-i raw scores are converted into standard scores based on a mean of 100 and standard deviation of 15. Bar-On (1997) pointed out that raw EQ-i scores are of limited value and that converting raw scores to standard scores an individual's score can be compared to that of a normative group. Scores above 100 are considered to indicate individuals with high emotional intelligence, and scores under 100 indicate the existence of development needs.

Data will also be collected by means of qualitative research. The data of qualitative research are most commonly obtained from interviews and observations and can be used to describe individuals, groups and social movements.

A Qualitative approach will be used to gather information about the subjective experience of the study population. The phenomenological method is an inductive, describing method that can be used to study the total experience of an intervention (Omery, 1983). This is based on the assumption that psychometric measurements cannot capture the total experience of the intervention and can thus result in insufficient results. Opportunity is therefore given to the respondents to express their own unique experiences of the development programme aimed at emotional intelligence (Kruger, 1984).

In qualitative research reliability and validity of the whole process are emphasised and not only that of the measurement instrument (Krefting, 1991). Krefting (1991) states further that the reliability of qualitative research is the result of the consistency and neutrality thereof. This will be discussed in more detail in the chapter 5.

1.4.2.4 Data analysis

All statistical analyses are undertaken by means of the SAS Programme (SAS Institute, 1996). Descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, minimum values and maximum values, are determined. Effect sizes are used to indicate the practical significance of the results. Themes derived from qualitative input will also be formed.

1.5 CHAPTER DIVISION

This thesis consists of the following chapters:

Chapter 2: Emotional intelligence : origin, theories and models

Chapter 3 Application of emotional intelligence in organisations

Chapter 4: Development of emotional intelligence: A Training programme approach

Chapter 5: Empirical study

Chapter 6 : Results and discussion of the Empirical study

Chapter 7: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In Chapter 1 the background and motivation for this research study has been discussed. Thereafter the general and specific research objectives were formulated. The paradigmatic perspective followed as well as the research design and method. Lastly the chapter division was given.

In Chapter 2 the origin and relevant emotional intelligence theories will be discussed. The researcher will also give a viewpoint on the dynamics of emotional intelligence by means of a growth model for emotional intelligence. By doing this, the first specific research objective will be attended to, namely to conceptualise the origin and theory of emotional intelligence from current literature.

In this study the following abbreviations for emotional intelligence (derived from the different theorists and literature) are used namely EI, Ei, and EQ.

CHAPTER 2

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE : ORIGIN, THEORIES AND MODELS

Chapter 2 is dedicated to a discussion of emotional intelligence. The origin of emotional intelligence forms the first part of the chapter, followed by different types of definitions assigned to emotional intelligence. Thereafter the main emotional intelligence theories and models will be discussed. Finally the researcher will present a growth model and theory of emotional intelligence.

2.1 Introduction

Emotional intelligence is the most recent expansion in understanding the relation between reason and emotion. It began as a topic of study within academic psychology. Unlike previous ideas, its distinctive contribution is to perceive thought and emotion as adaptive, intelligent, and intertwined (Ciarrochi, Forgas & Mayer, 2001). The literature in this emerging field contains a range of terminology that can be confusing and includes the terms *emotional intelligence* (Goleman, 1996; Salovey and Mayer, 1990), *emotional literacy* (Steiner, 1997), *emotional quotient* (Goleman, 1996; Cooper, 1997), *inter- and intrapersonal intelligence* (Gardner, 1993) and *social intelligence* (Thorndike, 1920). The aim of this literature study will also be to put these different terms and definitions into perspective.

2.2 Development of the EQ paradigm

Kuhn (1970) describes a paradigm as an object for further articulation and specification under new or more stringent conditions. He adds that once a model or paradigm has been articulated, the signs of scientific dynamism include proliferation of competing articulations, the willingness to try anything, the expression of explicit discontent, the resource to philosophy and to debate over fundamentals. By Kuhn's (1970) decisive features, emotional intelligence

shows signs of having reached a status of scientific maturity and this will be revealed during the discussion of this chapter.

It has taken decades to come to this point of development as discussed above. In the field of psychology, the roots of EI according to Goleman (2001) go back at least to the early period of the intelligence testing movement. Research dates back to Thorndike (1920) who identified the facet of EI, which he called *social intelligence*. One widely known questionnaire of the time reviewed by Thorndike and Stern, (according to Goleman, 2001) was the *George Washington Social Intelligence Test*, developed in 1926. It measured, for example, an individual's judgement in social situations and in relationship problems, recognition of the "mental state" of a speaker (measured by the skill to match the person's words with names of emotions), and skill to identify emotional expression (measured by the skill to match pictures of faces with corresponding emotions) (Goleman, 2001).

This could have been the beginning of many research studies of EI, but Thorndike and Stern (1937) thought that their efforts to measure these abilities was unsuccessful. The behaviourist paradigm and IQ testing, (leaving further investigation into the phenomena of emotional intelligence untouched) dominated the next century of psychology (Goleman, 2001). However, Wechsler (1952) still recognised the emotional competence as part of human array of capabilities. Gardner (1983) followed up on this belief and had a major hand in resurrecting EI theory. His model of multiple intelligences includes two varieties of personal intelligence, the *interpersonal* and *intrapersonal* intelligences. Emotional Intelligence can be seen as elaborating on the role of emotion in these spheres.

The next trace of this evolving paradigm can be found in the late eighties. Reuven Bar-On (1988) developed possibly the first effort to assess EI in terms of the measure of wellbeing. In his doctoral thesis he used the term emotional quotient ("EQ"). In 1990 Salovey and Mayer published the seminal article "*Emotional Intelligence*", the most prominent proclamation of EI theory in its present form. In 1995 Goleman, as a science journalist popularised the

concept not only in his book *Emotional Intelligence* (1995), but also through numerous publications (Goleman, 1998a, 1998b, 2000a, 2000b).

An overview of the emerge of the emotional intelligence concept, as portrayed by Mayer (2001), reveals more or less the same:

<p>1900 – 1969 <i>Intelligence and Emotions as separate, narrow fields</i></p>	<p><i>Intelligence research:</i> The realm of psychological testing for intelligence was developed during this period and a sophisticated technology of intelligence tests arose</p> <p><i>Emotions research:</i> In the separate field of emotion debate centred on the chicken-and-egg problem of which happens first: physiological reaction or emotion. In other areas of work, Darwin had argued for the heritability and evolution of emotional responses, but during this time, emotion was often viewed as culturally determined, largely a product of pathology, and idiosyncratic.</p> <p><i>Social research:</i> As intelligence testing emerged, the focus was on verbal and prepositional intelligence. A number of psychologists sought to identify a social intelligence as well, however, efforts in this direction were apparently discouraging and conceptions of intelligence stayed exclusively cognitive</p>
<p>1970 – 1989 <i>Precursors to Emotional Intelligence</i></p>	<p>The precursors to “emotional intelligence” were put into place in this two-decade period.</p> <p>The <i>field of cognition and affect</i> emerged to examine how emotions interacted with thoughts. It was suggested that depressed people might be more realistic and accurate than others might and that mood swings might enhance creativity.</p> <p>The field of non-verbal communication developed scales devoted to perception of non-verbal information</p>

	<p>– some of its emotional aspects of stories. Gardner's new theory of multiple intelligences described an "interpersonal intelligence", which involves, among many other things, the capacity to perceive and symbolise emotions. Empirical work on social intelligence found that it divided into social skills, empathy skills, pro-social attitudes, social anxiety, and emotionality. Brain research began to sort out connections between emotion and cognition. Occasional use of the term: "emotional intelligence" appeared.</p>
<p>1990 – 1993 <i>The emerge of emotional intelligence</i></p>	<p>In the four-year period in the 1990's Mayer and Salovey published a series of articles on emotional intelligence. The article "Emotional Intelligence" provided a first review of areas potentially relevant to an emotional intelligence. At the same time, a demonstration study, including the first ability measure of emotional intelligence under that name, was published. An editorial in the journal, <i>Intelligence</i>, argued for the existence of an emotional intelligence as an actual intelligence. During this time, further foundations of emotional intelligence were developed, particularly brain sciences.</p>
<p>1994 – 1997 <i>The popularisation and Broadening</i></p>	<p>Goleman, a science journalist, published the popular book, <i>Emotional intelligence</i>, loosely modelled on the academic writings in the area. The book became a world wide best seller and was widely copied. A number of personality scales were published under the name <i>emotional intelligence</i>.</p>
<p>1998- Present <i>Research on and Institutionalisation of Emotional Intelligence</i></p>	<p>A number of refinements to the concept of emotional intelligence take place, along with the introduction of new measures of the concept and the first peer-reviewed research articles on the subject.</p>

The conclusion can be drawn that before the 1990's the "evolution" in the evolving of emotional intelligence began as early as 1920. Research exploring different types of intelligences indicated a possibility of a type of intelligence related to the other pole of cognitive intelligence, namely social-, intrapersonal- and interpersonal intelligence. This possibility of an emotional/social type of intelligence soon faded, perhaps due to the lack of empirical data to support the existence of a new emotional type of intelligence. The latter was only cleared up from 1988 to 1990 when Bar-On (1988) and Salovey & Mayer (1990) respectively used the term and conducted research on emotional quotient/emotional intelligence. Bar-On (1988) used a well-being perspective while Salovey & Mayer (1990) used an intelligence perspective. Salovey & Mayer provided empirical data to claim emotional intelligence as a type of intelligence. Goleman (1995) as a scientific journalist, only popularised the concept of emotional intelligence, instead of forming an original model of emotional intelligence.

2.3 Defining emotional intelligence

Regarding the development of emotional intelligence, it can be concluded that the three most prominent definitions of emotional intelligence include that of Bar-On (1997), Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Goleman (1995,1998a)

a) Mayer, Caruso & Salovey (2000) states that early definitions of emotional intelligence used a two-part approach: firstly, the general processing of emotional information and secondly, specifying the skills involved in such processing. An early version of emotional intelligence viewed EQ as a type of emotional information processing that includes accurate appraisal of emotions in oneself and others, appropriate expression of emotion, and adaptive regulation of emotion in such a way to enhance living (Mayer, Caruso, et al. 2000) . In 1999 Mayer and his colleagues expanded on this description, keeping its two-part form: They describe emotional intelligence as an ability to recognise the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them. Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings,

understand the information of those emotions, and manage them (Mayer, Caruso, et al. 2000).

b) During the popularisation of EI by Goleman (1998a) its definition was changed quite substantially to “knowing what you are feeling and being able to handle those feelings without having them swamp you”; “being able to motivate yourself to get jobs done, be creative and perform at your peak,” and sensing what others are feeling, and handling relationships effectively.

c) With this small change, the emphasis was shifted toward motivation and social relationships generally speaking. The ability at understanding and processing emotion was mixed with some other characteristics. The researcher found that the description of Bar-On (2000) also portrays emotions with other characteristics as an array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities that influence our overall ability to effectively cope with environmental demands”. It is important to note that this definition is the result of research that Bar-On undertook during the eighties and is not build on the definition of Salovey & Mayer (1990).

The following table, which was compiled by Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) provides a relatively concise definition of emotional intelligence that will guide the understanding and exploration of the theories that will be discussed in this chapter.

Table 1: Definitions of emotional intelligence

Goleman (1996)	Gardner (1993)	Salovey & Mayer (1990)	Gardner & Hatch (1989)	Steiner (1997)	Cooper & Sawaf (1997)
<p>Self-awareness</p> <p>a) Know own feelings</p> <p>b) In touch with feelings Use feelings to make decisions with confidence</p>	<p>a) Ability to relate inner and outer world.</p> <p>b) Self-knowledge</p>	<p>a) Knowing one's emotions</p> <p>b) Self-awareness Recognising a feeling as it happens</p>		<p>a) Ability to understand own emotions</p>	<p>a) Identify, value and make most of own strengths</p>
<p>Emotional management</p> <p>a) Not reflecting on own moods</p> <p>b) Focus on results (what needs to be done)</p> <p>c) Express feelings (not passive)</p>	<p>a) Ability to form an accurate and truthful model of oneself and use model to work effectively</p>	<p>a) Managing emotions</p> <p>b) Handling feelings so that they are appropriate</p>		<p>a) Express own emotions productively</p> <p>b) Manage and control own emotions</p>	

Goleman (1996)	Gardner (1993)	Salovey & Mayer (1990)	Gardner & Hatch (1989)	Steiner (1997)	Cooper & Sawaf (1997)
<p>Empathy</p> <p>a) Sense what others are feeling</p> <p>b) Feel rapport with others</p> <p>c) Interactions go smoothly</p> <p>d) Social effectiveness Good at handling conflict</p> <p>e) Good at handling emotional upsets</p> <p>f) Can sense pulse of relationships in groups; can articulate unstated feelings; naturally takes lead in organising groups; people appreciate leadership</p> <p>g) Talent for settling disputes; talent for negotiating; talent for deal making</p>	<p>a) Ability to understand others, what motivates them and how they work</p> <p>b) Discern and respond appropriately to the moods, temperaments and motivation of others</p>	<p>a) Recognising emotions in others</p> <p>b) Empathy built on self-awareness</p>	<p>a) Personal connection</p> <p>b) Recognising and responding to people's feelings and concerns</p> <p>c) Preventing and resolving conflicts</p> <p>d) Deal making</p> <p>e) Social analysis</p> <p>f) Insights into other's emotions and concerns</p>	<p>a) Empathising with emotions of others</p>	<p>a) Constructive discontent</p> <p>b) Turning divergent views into creative energy</p> <p>c) Identify, value and make most of strengths of others</p>

Goleman (1996)	Gardner (1993)	Salovey & Mayer (1990)	Gardner & Hatch (1989)	Steiner (1997)	Cooper & Sawaf (1997)
Relationships					
<p>a) Balancing compassion and caring</p> <p>b) Persuading others to work towards a common goal</p> <p>c) Helping others to learn Promoting social harmony</p> <p>d) Trust building; networking: building rapport with a key network</p> <p>e) Promoting and exhibiting co-operation with others</p> <p>f) Effective team working Consensus building Collaboration</p>	<p>a) Working co-operatively</p>	<p>a) Handling relationships</p> <p>b) Managing emotions in others</p> <p>c) Social competencies</p>	<p>a) Organising groups</p> <p>b) Initiating and co-ordinating the efforts of a network of people</p> <p>c) Preventing conflicts</p> <p>d) Social analysis</p> <p>e) Rapport building</p>	<p>a) Emotional interactivity</p>	<p>a) Trusting relationships</p> <p>b) Emotional honesty</p> <p>c) Integrity; turning divergent views into creative energy</p>
Communication					
<p>a) Open communications; listening</p> <p>b) Speaking one's mind</p>				<p>a) Listening to others.</p> <p>b) Express own emotion productively</p>	

Goleman (1996)	Gardner (1993)	Salovey & Mayer (1990)	Gardner & Hatch (1989)	Steiner (1997)	Cooper & Sawaf (1997)
Personal style					
a) Balance "hard/soft" in decisions				a) Repairing emotional damage	a) Effectiveness under pressure
b) Stress management					b) Accountability
c) Accept personal responsibility					
d) Little need for control					

If the above set of emotional intelligence definitions are studied closely the conclusion can be made that two lines of definitions emerged:

- a) The original approach that defined EI as an intelligence involving emotion and
- b) The popularised, mixed approaches that blended EI with other skills and characteristics such as wellbeing, motivation, and capacities to engage in relationships (Mayer, Caruso et al., 2000).

By closer examination of the definitions in Table 1 the researcher found a clear division of different types of definitions:

- a) definitions focusing and containing aspects of *emotions* - for example self-awareness and emotional management
- b) definitions focusing on the application and use of self-awareness and emotional management in communication and decision-making – for example empathy and communication and
- c) definitions focusing on the results or outputs of using the definitions containing aspects of emotions in communication and decision-making for example social effectiveness and personal style

The researcher regards the first set of definitions (a) as a possible skill, which needs to be applied in communication and decision-making (b) and will lead

to certain outputs or enhanced competencies (c). This outset by the researcher gives rise to a new type of EQ definitions from a training and development perspective: *“Emotional intelligence is the result or output of acquiring the skill of becoming aware and recognising emotions in the self and others and by applying this skill in communication and decision-making efforts in the self and others.”*

All the definitions in Table 1 is thus regarded not as emotional intelligence itself, but all the different elements of the development of emotional intelligence.

2.4 Theories of emotional intelligence

There are several theories portraying elements of emotional intelligence such as good interpersonal relationships and emotions. Gardner (1993) proposes a theory of *multiple intelligences* that encompasses intrapersonal intelligence, including knowledge of one’s own emotions and thoughts. Averill & Nunley (1992) focus on the value of *emotional fulfilment* through emotional creativity. Saarni’s (1999) theory of emotional competence is similar to other theories of emotional intelligence, but places an additional accent on the social contexts of emotional functioning and emotional functioning itself and on emotional self-efficacy. The literature review however, will focus on the core emotional intelligence theories as portrayed in the literature review concerning the development of emotional intelligence.

2.4.1 Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) ability theory of Emotional Intelligence: an intelligence perspective

Mayer and Salovey have coined the term *emotional intelligence* in an article titled *“Emotional Intelligence”*, that was published in the journal: *Imagination, Cognition and Personality* (1990). This article formed the basis of their future research findings and model development.

Salovey & Mayer (1990) describe emotions as organised responses, crossing the boundaries of many psychological subsystems, including the physiological, cognitive, motivational and experiential systems. Emotions typically arise in response to an event, either internal or external, which has a positive or negative valenced meaning for the individual. Emotions can be distinguished from the closely related concept of mood in that emotions are shorter and generally more intense (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

The introduction of the term emotional intelligence was from an intelligence perspective. According to Salovey & Mayer (1990) intelligence has been defined differently in different periods, but that Wechsler's statement of intelligence was the most cited. Wechsler portrays intelligence as the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment (Wechsler, 1958). Salovey & Mayer (1990) notes further that there were different types of intelligence since its inception. One type was social intelligence defined as the ability to understand and manage people.

Salovey & Mayer (1990) states that traditional views of social intelligence may take on manipulative connotations because they omit consideration of one's own- and other's emotions that may guide conduct in a more pro-social fashion. The term was also defined so broadly so as to blend imperceptibly into verbal and visual or spatial intelligence. By 1960 Cronbach had reached his conclusion that enough attempts were made to indicate that this line of approach is fruitless. Salovey & Mayer (1990) note that few had considered on what basis these conclusions were drawn. Salovey & Mayer (1990) found the conceptualisations of social intelligence exciting and useful. Salovey & Mayer (1990) also viewed emotional intelligence as part of Gardner's view of social intelligence, which he referred to as personal intelligence.

There is a set of conceptually related mental processes involving emotional information. The mental processes include:

- a) appraising and expressing emotions in the self and others
- b) regulating emotion in the self and others and

c) using emotions in adaptive ways.

Mayer & Salovey (1997) view their model of emotional intelligence as operating across both the cognitive and emotional systems. It operates in a mostly unitary fashion, but is still sub-divisible into four branches. The first of these branches, *emotional perception and identification*, involves recognising and inputting information from the emotion system. The second and third branches *emotional facilitation of thought* and *emotional understanding*, involve the further processing of emotional information with an eye to problem solving. In general, the *emotional facilitation of thought* branch involves using emotion to improve cognitive processes, whereas *the emotional understanding* branch involves cognitive processing of emotion. The fourth branch, *emotion management*, concerns emotional self-management and the management of emotions in other people. These four branches are shown in the figure below:

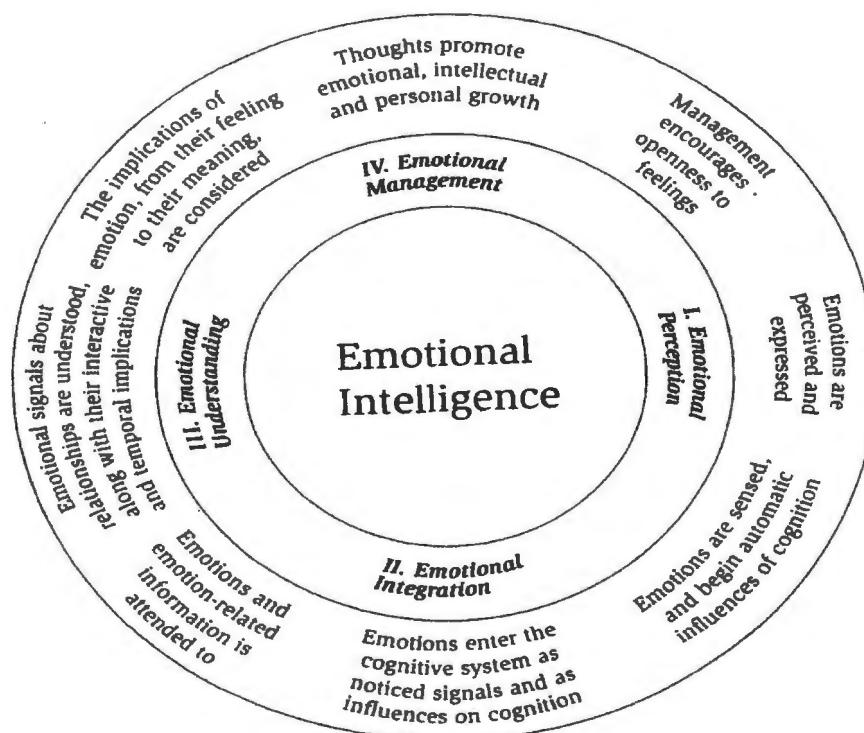


Figure 1: Model of emotional intelligence : Salovey and Mayer (1997)

Mayer & Salovey (1997) indicates that a consequence of various popularisations and partly as a consequence of societal pressures to regulate emotions, many people identify emotional intelligence primarily with the fourth branch, namely *emotional management*. They hope emotional intelligence will be a way of getting rid of troublesome emotions or emotional leakages into human relations and hope to control emotions. Although this is one possible outcome of the fourth branch, optimal levels of emotional regulation may be moderate owned, and attempts to minimise or eliminate emotion may stifle emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Emotional management might be thought of more profitably as beginning with a capacity for openness that allows emotions – both pleasant and unpleasant – to enter into the intelligence system. That is, management encourages emotions to be experienced, although not always expressed. This is because of the *emotional management* branch that will be discussed in the description of the model:

The *first branch* of emotional intelligence begins with the capacity to perceive and to express feelings. Emotional intelligence cannot begin without the first branch of emotional intelligence. If each time an unpleasant feeling emerged, a person turned his attention away, he would learn nearly nothing about feelings. Emotional perception involves registering, attending to - and deciphering emotional messages as they are expressed in facial expression, voice of tone, objects of art and other cultural artefacts. A person who sees the fleeting expression of amusement in the face of another, understand much more about the other person's emotions and thoughts than someone who misses such a signal (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

The second branch of emotional intelligence concerns emotional facilitation. Emotions are complex organisations of the physiological emotional – experiential-, cognitive- and conscious aspects of mental life. Emotions enter the cognitive system, both as cognised feelings, as is the case when someone thinks, "I am sad now," and as altered cognition, when a sad person thinks, " I am no good." When emotions are recognised and labelled, the

understanding of emotion (branch 3) is involved, which will be discussed shortly. The emotional facilitation of thought focuses on how emotion enters the cognitive system and alters cognition to assist thought. Cognition can, of course, be disrupted by anxiety, but emotions can also impose proprieties such that the cognitive system attends to what are most important and even focus on what it best does in a given mood. Emotions also change cognition, making them positive when a person is happy, and negative when a person is sad. These changes force the cognitive system to view things from different perspectives, for example, alternating between sceptical and optimistic viewpoints. The advantage of such alternations to thought are fairly apparent. The shifting of one's point of view between the sceptical and the optimistic, encourages the individual to see multiple points of view and as a consequence, to think about a problem more deeply and perhaps more creatively as well. It is just such an effect that may lead people with mood swings toward greater creativity than those with stable moods.

Branch 3 involves understanding and reasoning with emotion. As already suggested, emotion forms a rich symbol set full of complex relationships that have puzzled and delighted philosophers for centuries. The person who is able to understand emotions – their meanings, how they blend together, how they progress over time – is truly blessed with the capacity to understand fundamental truths of human nature and of inter-individual relationships (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

In branch 4 it is apparent why management must begin with perception. Only if one has good emotional perception in the first place, can one make use of mood changes and understand emotions. Only with such understanding will one have the breadth of knowledge necessary to manage and cope with feelings adequately. Management also involves how a person understands the emotional progressions in his or her relations with others. These relations can be unpredictable. Thus management involves the consideration of various different emotional paths and the choosing among them.

Mayer, Caruso et al. (2000) demonstrates in a research study that emotional intelligence meets the most essential criteria for a standard intelligence:

- a) *Conceptual criteria* includes that intelligence must reflect mental performance, rather than simply a preferred way of behaving, or a person's self-esteem or non-intellectual attainments, moreover, mental performance should plainly measure the concept in question, i.e. emotion-related abilities.
- b) *Correlation criteria* describe empirical standards, specifically that an intelligence should describe a set of closely related abilities that are similar to, but distinct from, mental abilities described by already-established intelligences and
- c) *Developmental criteria* states that intelligence develops with age and experience, and is based on the groundbreaking work by Binet and Simon at the beginning of the century.

The following conclusions from this groundbreaking theory in 1990 revealed the following:

- Appraising and expressing emotions accurately are part of emotional intelligence. This is the case because those who are more accurate can more quickly perceive and respond to their own emotions and better express those emotions to others. Such emotionally intelligent individuals can also respond more appropriately to their own feelings, because of the accuracy with which they perceive them. These skills are emotionally intelligent because they require the processing of emotional information from within the organism and because it is clear that some level of minimal competence at these skills, is necessary for adequate social functioning.
- Salovey & Mayer (1990) also included the skilful recognition of other's emotional reactions and empathic responses to them as a component of emotional intelligence. These skills enable individuals to gauge accurately the effective responses in others and to choose socially

adaptive behaviours in response. Such individuals should be perceived as genuine and warm by others, while individuals lacking these skills should appear ignorant and boorish.

- The regulation of emotion in the construct of emotional intelligence has been included, because it may lead to more adaptive and reinforcing mood states. Most people regulate emotion in themselves and others. Emotional intelligent individuals, however, should especially be adept at this process and do so to meet particular goals. On the positive side, they may enhance their own and other's mood and even manage emotions so as to motivate others charismatically toward a worthwhile aim. On the negative side, those whose skills are channelled antisocially may create manipulative scenes or lead others sosiopathically to disreputable ends (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).
- When people approach life tasks with emotional intelligence, they should be at an advantage for solving problems adaptively. It is for this reason that such skills are included within the construct of emotional intelligence. The sort of problems people identify and the way they frame them will probably be more related to internal emotional experience than will be problems addressed by others. Such individuals, for example, are more likely to ask whether they will be happy in a career and not how much they will earn. Having framed a problem, individuals with such skills may be more creative and flexible in arriving at possible alternatives to problems. They are also more apt to integrate emotional consideration when choosing among alternatives. Such an approach will lead to behaviour that is considerate and respectful of the internal experience of themselves and others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

The emotional intelligence theory of Mayer & Salovey (1997) describes emotional intelligence first from an emotions perspective and then from an intelligence perspective. This approach makes it (according to the researcher) the most original and useful model and theory of emotional intelligence. The theory provides an in depth framework for studying the

skill of recognising and managing emotion in the self and others and should be incorporated in every attempt to explore the construct of emotional intelligence. However, from a training and development perspective the theory and model lack emphasis and explanation of the development of emotional intelligence itself. This trend makes the application of this theory in the workplace difficult to apply by not explaining very well how the status of emotional intelligent behaviour is reached.

2.4.2 Emotional intelligence theory of Reuven Bar-On (1997): a well-being perspective

Bar-On (1997) states that his work has developed independently of other theorists and researchers. However, his theory and research findings resemble their contributions to the field (especially with respect to the content), irrespective of differences in the ways the constructs and conceptual components have been labelled Bar-On (1997). also declare that his work is a continuation and expansion of the work of the following:

- David Wechsler (1940)
- R.W. Leeper (1948)
- Abraham Maslow (1976)
- Marie Johoda (1958)
- Roy Grinker (1962)
- Daniel Offer (1973)
- Richard Coan (1977)
- Howard Gardner (1983)
- John Mayer and Peter Salovey (1993,1995,1990)

Bar-On (1997) says that emotional intelligence combines with other important determinants (of one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands), such as biomedical predisposition and

conditions, cognitive intellectual capacity, as well as the reality and limitations of the immediate and ever-changing environment.

Bar-On's (1997) model is multi-factorial and relates to potential for performance, rather than performance itself (i.e., the potential to succeed rather than success itself) and is process-orientated, rather than outcome-orientated. According to Bar-On (1997) his conceptual framework's comprehensive nature (based on the group of factorial components (emotional skills) described below) and the way in which they are defined, is such that it expands upon and is able to encompass other existing models of emotional intelligence. It is not just being aware of feelings and using that information to cope with life, but includes additional components that are no less important for determining one's success in dealing with environmental demands (Bar-On, 1997).

Bar-On (1997) uses the term *emotional intelligence* to denote this construct for several reasons. Intelligence describes the aggregate of abilities, competencies, and skills defined below in that they represent a collection of knowledge used to cope with life effectively. The adjective, *emotional* is employed to emphasise that this specific type of intelligence differs from cognitive intelligence (Bar-On, 1997). Bar-On (1997) states further that his use of the term *intelligence* is similar to Wechsler's definition of the term intelligence, which is "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his or her environment" (Wechsler, 1958).

The term *success* as employed by Bar-On (1997) in his definition of emotional intelligence is viewed as the end product of that which one strives to achieve and accomplish. As such, it is very subjective and potentially socially influenced. For example, then success in one's studies can be interpreted by some as getting into a "good" school, obtaining "high" grades, receiving scholastic awards and academic citations, etc. (Bar-On, 1997)

2.4.2.1 Factorial components of Bar-On's concept of emotional intelligence

Listed below are the 15 conceptual components of emotional intelligence, which according to Bar-On (1997) can develop over time, change throughout life, and can be improved through training and remedial programmes as well as therapeutic techniques.

- ***Emotional Self-Awareness (ES)***

Emotional self-awareness is the ability to recognise one's feelings (Bar-On, 1997). It is not only the ability to be aware of one's feelings and emotions, but also to differentiate between them, to know what one is feeling and why, and to know what caused those feelings. Serious deficiencies in this area are found in alexithymic (inability to express feelings verbally) conditions (Bar-On, 1997). The researcher views this component of emotional intelligence as the main function and first step in becoming emotional intelligent.

- ***Assertiveness(AS)***

According to Bar-On (1997) assertiveness as the ability to express feelings, beliefs, and thoughts and defend one's rights in a non-destructive manner. Assertiveness is composed of three basic components:

- a) the ability to express feelings (e.g. to accept and express anger, warmth, and sexual feelings),
- g) the ability to express beliefs and thoughts openly (i.e. being able to voice opinions, disagree and to make a definite stand, even if it is emotionally difficult and even if one has something to lose by doing so), and

a) the ability to stand up for personal rights (i.e., not allowing others to bother you or take advantage of you).

Assertive people are not over controlled or shy – they are able to outwardly express their feelings (often directly,) without being aggressive or abusive. From the viewpoint of the researcher, emotional self-awareness, as a skill must first be achieved before it can be applied in the form of assertiveness and as a form of positive communication.

- ***Self-Regard (SR)***

Self-regard is the ability to respect and accept oneself as basically good, respecting oneself, and essentially likes the way one is (Bar-On, 1997). Self-acceptance is the ability to accept one's perceived positive- and negative aspects as well as one's limitations and possibilities. This conceptual component of emotional intelligence is associated with general feelings of security, inner strength, self- assuredness, self-confidence, and feelings of self-adequacy (Bar-On, 1997). Feelings of being sure of oneself are dependent upon self-respect and self-esteem, which are based on a fairly well developed sense of identity. A person with good self-regard feels fulfilled and satisfied with him- or herself. At the opposite end of the continuum are feelings of personal inadequacy and inferiority (Bar-On, 1997). The researcher view this component, not as part of emotional intelligence, but rather as a precondition of becoming emotional intelligent.

- ***Self-Actualisation (SA)***

Bar-On (1997) regards self-actualisation as the ability to realise one's potential capacities. Becoming involved in pursuits that lead to a meaningful, rich, and full life manifests this component of emotional intelligence. Striving to actualise one's potential involves developing enjoyable and meaningful activities and can mean a lifelong effort and an enthusiastic commitment to long-term goals. Self-actualisation is an

ongoing, dynamic process of striving towards maximum development of one's abilities, capacities, and talents. This factor is associated with persistently trying to do one's best and trying to improve oneself in general. Excitement about one's interests energises and motivates him or her to continue these interests. Self-actualisation is affiliated with feelings of self-satisfaction (Bar-On, 1997). According to the researcher this explanation of self-actualisation is a valuable description. Besides the view of Bar-On (1997), the researcher can add that self-actualisation can also be seen as a prerequisite of the whole development process of becoming emotional intelligent. Emotional intelligence then forms one of the areas to be fully developed in, forming then a part of the whole process of self-actualisation. A person must also first identify areas of development as part of the self-awareness process before he or she can engage in a process of developing their overall EQ.

- ***Independence (IN)***

Independence is the ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in one's thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency (Bar-On, 1997). Independent people are self-reliant in planning and making important decisions. They may, however, seek and consider other people's opinions before making the right decision for them in the end and consulting others is not necessarily a sign of dependency (Bar-On, 1997). Independence is essentially the ability to function autonomously versus needing protection and support – independent people avoid clinging to others in order to satisfy their emotional needs. The ability to be independent rests on one's degree of self-confidence, inner strengths, and desire to meet expectations and obligations, without becoming a slave to them (Bar-On, 1997). The researcher regards Independence as one of the outputs or end results of the development process of emotional intelligence, as a component of emotional intelligence, but not as emotional intelligence itself.

- ***Empathy (EM)***

Empathy is the ability to be aware of, to understand and to appreciate the feelings of others (Bar-On, 1997). It is “tuning in” (being sensitive) to what, how and why people feel the way they do. Being empathetic means being able to “emotionally read” other people. Empathetic people care about others and show interest in and concern for others (Bar-On, 1997). The viewpoint of the researcher is that by first being emotional self-aware and by applying this skill in communication and decision-making, can a person begin to understand the feelings of others.

- ***Interpersonal Relationship (IR)***

Bar-On (1997) describes the interpersonal relationship skill as the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships, which are characterised by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection. Mutual satisfaction includes meaningful social interchanges that are potentially rewarding and enjoyable. A positive interpersonal relationship skill is characterised by the ability to give and receive warmth and affection and to convey intimacy to another human being (Bar-On, 1997). This component is not only associated with the desirability of cultivating friendly relations with others, but with the ability to feel at ease and comfortable in such relations and to possess positive expectations concerning social intercourse. This emotional skill generally requires sensitivity towards others, a desire to establish relations and feeling satisfied with relationships (Bar-On, 1997). The researcher as one of many outputs or results of developing one’s emotional intelligence as Bar-On (1997) describes it, views this “skill”. In fact, it is one of the strongest and most prominent indicators of the existence of emotional intelligence.

- ***Social Responsibility (RE)***

Social responsibility is the ability to demonstrate oneself as a co-operative, contributing and constructive member of one's social group. This ability involves acting in a responsible manner, even though one may not benefit personally (Bar-On, 1997). Socially responsible people have social consciousness and a basic concern for others, which is manifested in being able to take on community-orientated responsibilities. This component relates to the ability to do things for- and with others, accepting others, acting in accordance with one's conscience and upholding social rules. These people possess interpersonal sensitivity and are able to accept others and use their talents for the good of the collective, not just the self. People who are deficient in this ability may entertain antisocial attitudes, act abusively towards others, and take advantage of others (Bar-On, 1997). The researcher could not find any relevance of social responsibility to emotional intelligence, but it could be seen as the end result of recognising and managing emotions in others.

- ***Problem Solving (PS)***

Problem solving aptitude is the ability to identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions (Bar-On, 1997). Problem solving is multi-phased in nature and includes the ability to go through a process of:

- a) sensing a problem and feeling confident and motivated to deal with it effectively;
- b) defining and formulating the problem as clearly as possible (e.g. gathering relevant information);
- c) generating as many solutions as possible (e.g.) brainstorming, and
- d) making a decision to implement one of the solutions (e.g., weighing the pros and cons of each possible solution and choosing the best course of action) (Bar-On, 1997).

Problem solving is associated with being conscientious, disciplined, methodical and systematic in persevering and approaching problems. This skill is also linked to a desire to do one's best and to confront problems, rather than avoiding them (Bar-On, 1997). The researcher views problem solving as a result of being emotional intelligent. Problem solving can be regarded as an "arena" of applying emotional intelligence.

- ***Reality Testing (RT)***

Reality testing is the ability to assess the correspondence between what is experienced and what objectively exists (Bar-On, 1997). Testing the degree of correspondence between what one experiences and what actually exists, involves a search for objective evidence to confirm, justify, and support feelings, perceptions and thoughts. Reality testing involves "tuning in" to the immediate situation, attempting to keep things in the correct perspective and experiencing things as they really are, without excessive fantasising or daydreaming about them (Bar-On, 1997). The emphasis is on pragmatism, objectivity, the adequacy of one's perception, and authenticating one's ideas and thoughts. An important aspect of this factor is the degree of perceptual clarity evident when trying to assess and cope with situations. It involves the ability to concentrate and focus when examining ways of coping with situations that arise. Reality testing is associated with a lack of withdrawal from the outside world, a tuning into the immediate situation and lucidity and clarity in perception and thought processes. In simple terms, reality testing is the ability to accurately "size up" the immediate situation (Bar-On, 1997). Reality testing can also be regarded as one of the first steps in becoming emotionally intelligent, realising the true self and areas of development.

- ***Flexibility (FL)***

Flexibility is the ability to adjust one's emotions, thoughts, and behaviour to changing situations and conditions (Bar-On, 1997). This component of emotional intelligence refers to one's overall ability to adapt to unfamiliar, unpredictable and dynamic circumstances. Flexible people are agile, synergistic and capable of reacting to change, without rigidity. These people are able to change their minds when evidence suggests that they are mistaken. They are generally open to and tolerant of different ideas, orientation, ways and practices (Bar-On, 1997). Flexibility can also be seen as a result or output of an emotionally intelligent person – a sure sign of the existence of emotional intelligence.

- ***Stress Tolerance (ST)***

Stress tolerance is the ability to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without “falling apart” by actively and positively coping with stress (Bar-On, 1997). It is the ability to weather difficult situations without getting too overwhelmed. This ability is based on:

- d) a capacity to choose courses of action for coping with stress (i.e. being resourceful and effective, being able to come up with suitable methods and knowing what to do and how to do it),
- b) an optimistic disposition toward new experiences and change in general and towards one's ability to successfully overcome the specific problem at hand (i.e. a belief in one's ability to face and handle these situations) and
- a) a feeling that one can control or influence the stressful situation (i.e. keeping calm and maintaining control (Bar-On, 1997).

This component of emotional intelligence is very similar to what has been referred to as “ego strength” and “positive coping”. Stress tolerance includes having a repertoire of suitable responses to stressful situations. Stress tolerance is associated with the capacity to be relaxed and composed and to calmly face difficulties, without getting carried away by

strong emotions (Bar-On, 1997). People who have good stress tolerance tend to face crises and problems, rather than surrendering to feelings of helplessness and hopelessness. Anxiety often results when this component of emotional intelligence is not functioning adequately, which has an ill effect on general performance, because of poor concentration, difficulty in making decisions, and somatic problems like sleep disturbance (Bar-On, 1997). Stress tolerance can be seen as one of the end results of achieving the status of being emotionally intelligent. Once a person becomes emotionally self-aware and can apply this skill in communication and decision-making one of the outputs/results can be that a person becomes more tolerant in stress situations.

- ***Impulse Control (IC)***

Impulse control is the ability to resist or delay an impulse drive, or temptation to act (Bar-On, 1997). It entails a capacity for accepting one's aggressive impulses, being composed, controlling aggression and hostility, and irresponsible behaviour. Problems in impulse control are manifested by low frustration tolerance, impulsiveness, anger control problems, abusiveness, loss of self-control and explosive and unpredictable behaviour (Bar-On, 1997). The researcher sees impulse control as a component (end result) of the development of emotional intelligence.

- ***Happiness (HA)***

Bar-On, (1997) regards happiness as the ability to feel satisfied with one's life, to enjoy oneself and others, and to have fun. Happiness combines self-satisfaction, general contentment and the ability to enjoy life. This component of emotional intelligence involves the ability to enjoy various aspects of one's life in general. Happy people often feel good and at ease in both work and leisure. They are able to "let their hair down" and enjoy the opportunities for having fun. Happiness is associated with a general feeling of cheerfulness and enthusiasm (Bar-On, 1997). Happiness is a

by-product and or barometric indicator of one's overall degree of emotional intelligence and emotional functioning. A person who demonstrates a low degree of this factor may possess symptoms typical of depression, such as a tendency to worry, uncertainty about the future, social withdrawal, lack of drive, depressive thoughts, feelings of guilt, dissatisfaction with one's life and, in extreme cases, suicidal thoughts and behaviour (Bar-On, 1997). By achieving emotional intelligence one can assume that in the course of communication with others, there should be less non-assertive behaviour, more stress tolerance and other positive outcomes, which will contribute to overall happiness.

- ***Optimism (OP)***

Optimism is the ability to look at the brighter side of life and to maintain a positive attitude, even in the face of adversity (Bar-On, 1997). Optimism assumes a measure of hope in one's approach to life. It is a positive approach to daily living. Optimism is the opposite of pessimism, which is a common symptom of depression (Bar-On, 1997). The researcher has the view that once the individual is clearer about the concept of EQ and can accept that feeling emotions is normal and that emotions in the self and others can be managed, the outlook on life and future will likely be more optimistic.

Bar-On (1997) cluster these concepts into the following factors:

- a) Intrapersonal – based on Emotional Self-Awareness, Assertiveness, Self-Regard, Self-Actualisation, and Independence, -
- b) Interpersonal – based on Empathy, Social Responsibility, and Interpersonal Relationship,
- c) Adaptability – based on Reality Testing, Flexibility, and Problem Solving,
- d) Stress Management – based on Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control, and
- e) General Mood – based on Optimism and Happiness

Bar-On's model illustrates the relationship between the intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management and adaptability composite factors which together with, and filtering through the fifth composite factor, (general mood), leads to effective performance or success.

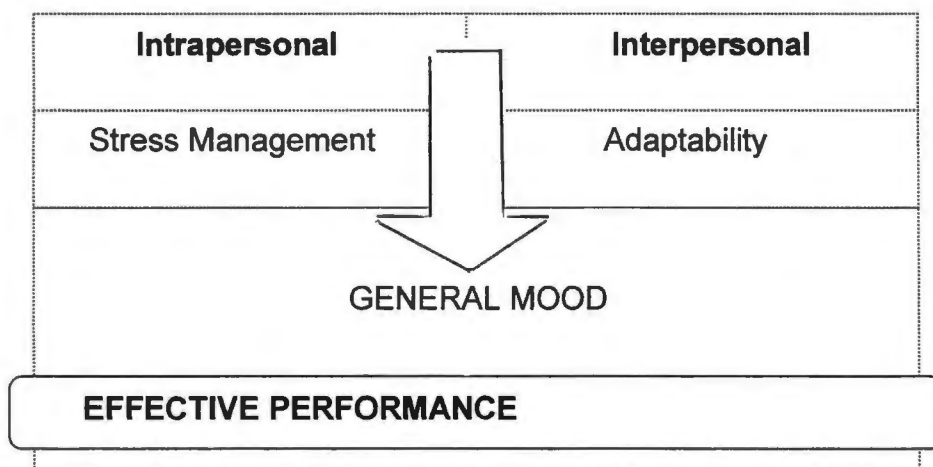


Figure 2: Bar-On's (1997) model of emotional intelligence

Whereas the model and theory of emotional intelligence of Mayer & Salovey (1997) focused on "emotions" and "intelligence", Bar-On's theory of emotional intelligence incorporates an array of components which he regards inherent in emotional intelligence. The model of Bar-On (1997) is a useable model, which can be applied to the development of emotional intelligence (from a training and development perspective). The theory and model of Bar-On (1997) seems to be in contradiction with each other. The theory regards all 15 factors as components of emotional intelligence. The model however, explains the relationship between the different components. The subscale intrapersonal and interpersonal EQ are a prerequisite of the subscales stress management and adaptability before happiness and optimism (general mood) can be reached, which will lead to effective performance. The emphasis, however falls on the different components and not on the process of development. Although the integration of the different sub-scales are explained, the different sub-scales are still regarded as sub-scales of

emotional intelligence itself and not as part of a development process to reach emotional intelligence. The theory and model shows promise of being applicable on a training and development intervention, because of the well-being perspective. Although no reference to the environment influences are made in the model and theory, Bar-On (1997) mentions that emotional intelligence combines with other important determinants, such as biomedical predispositions and conditions, cognitive intellectual capacity, as well as the reality and limitations of the immediate and ever-changing environment.

2.4.3 Daniel Goleman's (1998a) theory of emotional intelligence : an application in the workplace

In 1998, in *Working with Emotional Intelligence*, Goleman set out a framework of emotional intelligence (EI) that reflects how an individual's potential for mastering the skills of Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management translates into on-the-job success. This model is based on EI competencies that Goleman have identified in internal research at hundreds of corporations and organisations in distinguishing outstanding performers (Goleman, 1998a).

Goleman (1998) views *emotional competence* as a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work (Goleman, 1998b).

Goleman (2001) presents a newer version of EI framework with twenty competencies nested in four clusters of general EI abilities. The framework illustrates, for example, that the competencies of trustworthiness and conscientiousness cannot be demonstrate without mastery of the fundamental ability of Self-Management or the Competencies of Influence, Communication, Conflict Management, and so on without a handle on Managing Relationships. The following description in Table 1 portrays the framework of emotional intelligence as reported according to Goleman (2001):

Table 2 : A Framework of emotional intelligence competencies

	Self Personal Competence	Other Social competence
Recognition	Self-Awareness <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Emotional self-awareness - Accurate self-assessment - Self-confidence 	Social Awareness <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Empathy - Service orientation - Organisational awareness
Regulation	Self-Management <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Self-control - Trustworthiness - Conscientiousness - Adaptability - Achievement drive - Initiative 	Relationship Management <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Developing others - Influence - Communication - Conflict management - Leadership - Change catalyst - Building bonds - Teamwork & collaboration

This model is a fine-tuning of the model Goleman used in 1998. That earlier framework recognised five domains or dimensions of emotional intelligence that comprised twenty-five competencies. Three dimensions, Self-Awareness, Self-Regulation and Motivation, described personal competencies, which are knowing and managing emotions in one self. Two dimensions, Empathy and Social Skills, described social competencies, which are knowing and managing emotions in others.

The present model reflects recent statistical analyses of Goleman's colleague, Richard Boyatzis, who supported collapsing the twenty-five competencies into twenty and the five domains into the four seen here: Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000).

- **The Self-Awareness Cluster: Understanding Feelings and Accurate Self-Assessment**

The first of the three Self-Awareness competencies, *Emotional Self-Awareness*, reflects the importance of recognising one's own feelings and how they affect one's performance. At a financial services company, emotional self-awareness proved crucial in financial planners' job performance (Goleman, 1998b). This aspect is specifically important in this research done in a financial environment. Self-Awareness apparently helped them to handle their own emotional reactions better.

At another level, Self-Awareness leads to realising one's own strengths and weaknesses. Among several hundred managers from twelve different organisations, *Accurate Self-Assessment* was the hallmark of superior performance (Boyatzis, 1982). Individuals with the Accurate Self-Assessment competence are aware of their abilities and limitations, seek out feedback and learn from their mistakes and know where they need to improve and when to work with others who have complementary strengths.

Accurate Self-Assessment was the competence found in virtually every "star performer" in a study of several hundred knowledge workers—computer scientists, auditors and the like, at companies such as AT&T and 3M (Kelley, 1998). On 360-degree competence assessments, average performers typically overestimate their strengths, whereas star performers rarely do; if anything, the stars tended to underestimate their abilities, an indicator of high internal standards (Goleman, 1998b).

The positive impact of the *Self-Confidence* competence on performance has been shown in a variety of studies. Among supervisors, managers and executives, a high degree of Self-Confidence distinguishes the best from the average performers (Boyatzis, 1982). Levels of Self-Confidence can be a stronger predictor of performance than the level of skill (Saks, 1995). Self-Confidence gained early years can lead to more successful careers (Holahan & Sears, 1995).

- **The Self-Management Cluster: Managing Internal States, Impulses, and Resources**

The Self-Management cluster of EI abilities encompasses six competencies. Heading the list is the *Emotional Self-Control* competence, which manifests largely as the absence of distress and disruptive feelings. Signs of this competence include being unfazed in stressful situations or dealing with a hostile person without lashing out in return. Among small business owners and employees, those with a stronger sense of control over not only themselves, but the events in their lives, are less likely to become angry or depressed when faced with job stress or to quit (Rahim & Psenicka, 1996).

Among counsellors and psychotherapists, superior performers tend to respond calmly to angry attacks by a patient, as do outstanding flight attendants dealing with disgruntled passengers (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Among managers and executives, top performers are able to balance their drive and ambition with Emotional Self-Control, harnessing their personal needs in the service of the organisation's goals (Boyatzis, 1982). Those store managers who are best able to manage their own stress and stay unaffected, have the most profitable stores, by such measures as sales per square foot, in a national retail chain (Lusch & Serkenci, 1990).

The *Trustworthiness* competence translates into letting others know one's values and principles, intentions and feelings and acting in ways that are consistent with them. Trustworthy individuals are forthright about their own mistakes and confront others about their lapses. A deficit in this ability operates as a career derailer (Goleman, 1998b).

The signs of the *Conscientiousness* competence include being careful, self-disciplined, and scrupulous in attending to responsibilities. Conscientiousness distinguishes the model organisational citizens, the people who keep things running as they should. In studies of job performance, outstanding effectiveness in virtually all jobs - from the bottom to the top of the corporate

ladder depends on Conscientiousness (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Among sales representatives for a large U.S. appliance manufacturer, those who were most conscientious had the largest volume of sales (Barrick, Mount, & Straus, 1993).

If there is any single competence our present time calls for, it is *Adaptability*. Superior performers in management ranks, exhibit this competence (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). They are open to new information and can let go of old assumptions and adapt in how they operate. Emotional resilience allows an individual to remain comfortable with the anxiety that often accompanies uncertainty and to think “out of the box,” displaying on-the-job creativity and applying new ideas to achieve results. Conversely, people who are uncomfortable with risk and change become “nay-sayers” who can undermine innovative ideas or be slow to respond to a shift in the marketplace. Businesses with less formal and more ambiguous, autonomous, and flexible roles for employees, open flows of information and multidisciplinary team-oriented structures, experience greater innovation (Amabile, 1988).

David McClelland’s landmark work *The Achieving Society* (1961) established *Achievement Orientation* as the competence that drives the success of entrepreneurs. In its most general sense, this competence, which Goleman (2001) calls *Achievement Drive*, refers to an optimistic striving to continually improve performance. Studies that compare star performers in executive ranks to average ones, find that stars display classic achievement-oriented behaviours - they take more calculated risks, they support enterprising innovations and set challenging goals for their employees, and so forth.

Spencer and Spencer (1993) found that the need to achieve is the competence that most strongly distinguishes between superior and average executives. Optimism is a key ingredient of achievement, because it can determine one’s reaction to unfavourable events or circumstances; those with high achievement are proactive and persistent, have an optimistic attitude toward setbacks and operate from hope of success. Studies have shown that

optimism can contribute significantly to sales gains, among other accomplishments (Schulman, 1995).

Those with the *Initiative* competence act before being forced to do so by external events. This often means taking anticipatory action to avoid problems before they happen or taking advantage of opportunities before they are visible to anyone else. Individuals who lack the *Initiative* competence are reactive rather than proactive, lacking the farsightedness that can make the critical difference between a wise decision and a poor one. Initiative is key to outstanding performance in industries that rely on sales, such as real estate, and to the development of personal relationships with clients, as is critical in such businesses as financial services or consulting (Crant, 1995; Rosier, 1996).

- **The Social Awareness Cluster: Reading People and Groups Accurately**

The Social Awareness cluster manifests in three competencies. The *Empathy* competence gives people an intelligent awareness of others' emotions, concerns, and needs. The empathic individual can read emotional currents, picking up on non-verbal cues such as tone of voice or facial expression.

Empathy requires Self-Awareness - our understanding of others' feelings and concerns flows from awareness of our own feelings. This sensitivity to others is critical for superior job performance whenever the focus is on interactions with people. For instance, physicians who are better at recognising emotions in patients are more successful than their less sensitive colleagues at treating them (Friedman & DiMatteo, 1982).

The ability to read others' needs well comes naturally to the best managers of product development teams (Spencer & Spencer, 1993) and skill in Empathy correlates with effective sales, as was found in a study among large and small retailers (Pilling & Eroglu, 1994). In an increasingly diverse workforce, the Empathy competence allows us to read people accurately and avoid resorting

to the stereotyping that can lead to performance deficits by creating anxiety in the stereotyped individuals (Steele, 1997).

Social Awareness also plays a key role in the *Service* competence - the ability to identify a client's or customer's often unstated needs and concerns and then match them to products or services. This empathic strategy distinguishes star sales performers from average ones (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). It also means taking a long-term perspective, sometimes trading off immediate gains in order to preserve customer relationships. A study of an office supply and equipment vendor indicated that the most successful members of the sales team were able to combine taking the customer's viewpoint and showing appropriate assertiveness, in order to steer the customer toward a choice that satisfied both the customer's- and the vendor's needs (McBane, 1995).

Organisational Awareness - the ability to read the currents of emotions and political realities in groups, is a competence vital to the behind-the-scenes networking and coalition building that allows individuals to use influence, no matter their professional role. Insight into group social hierarchies requires Social Awareness on an organisational level, not just an interpersonal one. Outstanding performers in most organisations share this ability and among managers and executive generally, this emotional competence distinguishes star performers. Their ability to read situations objectively, without the distorting lens of their own biases and assumptions, allows them to respond effectively (Boyatzis, 1982).

- **The Relationship Management Cluster: Inducing Desirable Responses in Others**

The Relationship Management set of competencies includes essential Social Skills. Developing others involves sensing people's developmental needs and bolstering their abilities, a talent not just of excellent coaches and mentors, but also outstanding leaders. Competence in developing others is a hallmark of superior managers. Among sales managers, for example, it typifies those at the top of the field (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). Although this ability is

crucial for those managing front-line work, it has also emerged as a vital skill for effective leadership at high levels (Goleman, 2000b).

We practice the essence of the *Influence* competence when we handle and manage emotions effectively in other people and are persuasive. The most effective people sense others' reactions and fine-tune their own responses to manipulate interaction in the best direction. This emotional competence emerges over and over again as a hallmark of star performers, particularly among supervisors, managers and executives (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Star performers with this competence draw on a wider range of persuasion strategies than others, including impression management, dramatic arguments or actions and appeals to reason. At the same time, the *Influence* competence requires them to be genuine and put collective goals before their self-interests, otherwise what would manifest as effective persuasion, becomes manipulation.

Creating an atmosphere of openness with clear lines of communication is a key factor in organisational success. People who exhibit the *Communication* competence are effective in the give-and-take of emotional information, deal with difficult issues straightforwardly, listen well and welcome sharing information fully, foster open communication and stay receptive to bad news as well as good. This competence builds on both managing one's own emotions and empathy: A healthy dialogue depends on being attuned to others' emotional states and controlling the impulse to respond in ways that might sour the emotional climate. Data on managers and executives show that the better people can execute this competence, the more others prefer to deal with (Goleman, 1998b).

A talent of those skilled in the *Conflict Management* competence is spotting trouble as it is brewing and taking steps to calm those involved. Here the arts of listening and empathising are crucial to the skills of handling difficult people and situations with diplomacy, encouraging debate and open discussion and orchestrating win-win situations. Effective Conflict Management and negotiation are important to long-term, symbiotic business relationships, such

as those between manufacturers and retailers. In a survey of retail buyers in department store chains, effectiveness at win-win negotiating was an accurate barometer of the health of the manufacturer-retailer relationship (Ganesan, 1993).

Those adept at the *Visionary Leadership* competence draw on a range of personal skills to inspire others to work together toward common goals. They are able to articulate and arouse enthusiasm for a shared vision and mission, to step forward as needed, to guide the performance of others while holding them accountable and to lead by example. Outstanding leaders integrate emotional realities into what they see and so instil strategy with meaning and resonance. Emotions are contagious, particularly when exhibited by those at the top, and extremely successful leaders display a high level of positive energy that spreads throughout the organisation. The more positive the style of a leader, the more positive, helpful, and co-operative are those in the group (George & Bettenhausen, 1990). Furthermore, the emotional tone set by a leader tends to ripple outward with remarkable power (Bachman, 1988).

The acceleration of transitions as we enter the new century has made the *Change Catalyst* competence highly valued. Leaders must be able to recognise the need for change, remove barriers, challenge the status quo, and enlist others in pursuit of new initiatives. An effective change leader also articulates a compelling vision of the new organisational goals. A leader's competence at catalysing change brings greater efforts and better performance from subordinates, making their work more effective (House, 1988).

The *Building Bonds* competence epitomises stars in fields like engineering, computer science, biotechnology and other *knowledge work* fields in which networking is crucial for success. These stars tend to choose people with a particular expertise or resource to be part of their networks (Kelley, 1998). Outstanding performers with this competence, balance their own critical work with carefully chosen favours, building accounts of goodwill with people who may become crucial resources down the line. One of the virtues of building

such relationships is the reservoir of trust and goodwill that they establish; highly effective managers are adept at cultivating these relationships, whereas less effective managers generally fail to build bonds (Kaplan, 1991).

The *Collaboration and Teamwork* competence has taken on increased importance in the last decade with the trend toward team-based work in many organisations. Teamwork itself depends on the collective EI of its members. The most productive teams are those that exhibit EI competencies at the team level (This will be discussed in more detail in chapter 3). Team members tend to share moods, both good and bad, with better moods improving performance (Totterdell, Kellett, Teuchmann, & Briner, 1998). The positive mood of a team leader at work promotes worker effectiveness and promotes retention (George & Bettenhausen, 1990). Finally, positive emotions and harmony on a top-management team predict its effectiveness (Barsade & Gibson, 1998).

This theory provides a clear understanding of the benefits of having emotionally intelligent employees, as well as the application thereof in the workplace. It is the first model and theory the researcher came upon that incorporates self-awareness in a cluster, named *self-awareness*, which included understanding feelings and accurate self-assessment. It can be seen as a workable theory to apply in the workplace. The components described here are seen as results or outputs of emotional intelligence and not as emotional intelligence itself.

2.5 Discussion of theories and models

As with past developments in the view of human nature, there is interplay between the experts in the field and those who are interested in using the knowledge for more practical purposes (Ciarrochi, et al. 2001).

Davies, Stankov & Roberts (1998) say that there have been several attempts to incorporate emotional intelligence within the broad framework provided by theories of human cognitive abilities, such as that of Mayer and Salovey

(1993). However, the evasive nature of emotional intelligence may be demonstrated through consideration of two rather different research traditions. On the one hand, it would appear that emotionally adept individuals have certain personality traits that are known to share no particular relation with cognitive abilities. Davies et al. (1998) indicate further that emotional intelligence appears, conceptually at the very least, to show some important convergence with other types of abilities, particularly social and crystallised intelligence.

Extensive research aimed at demonstrating that social intelligence is an empirically coherent domain of cognitive ability, independent from other types of intelligence has met with disappointing results. Davies et al. (1998) makes the latter statement based on the research of Carroll (1993), Cronbach (1960), Ford & Tisak (1983) and also Brown & Anthony (1990).

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) make a distinction between EI models that are mixed and those that are pure models, or ability models, focusing exclusively on cognitive aptitudes. They argue that mixed models contain a blend of abilities, behaviours, and general disposition and conflate personality attributes – such as optimism and persistence, with mental ability. Mayer (2001) states that with Goleman's (1995) popularisation of EI, its definition was changed substantially. The emphasis was shifted toward motivation (motivating oneself) and social relationships, generally speaking (handling relationships).

There emerged two lines of definitions: a) the original approach that defined EI as an intelligence involving emotion and b) the popularised, mixed approaches that blended EI with other skills and characteristics, such as well-being, motivation and capacities to engage in relationships.

The main distinction can be made on the following grounds: The ability theory (updated in 1997) divides EI into four areas. The first area includes ability at emotional perception and expression, including the accurate assessment of emotions in the self and others. The second area involves the ability to use

emotions to facilitate thought, including the accurate association of emotions to other sensations and the ability to use emotions to enhance thought. The third area, understanding emotions, involves analysing emotions into parts, understanding likely transitions from one feeling to another and understanding complex feelings in social situations. Finally, the fourth area, managing emotions, involves the ability to manage feelings in oneself and others.

The mixed definition that defines EI as non-cognitive competencies is far broader. It starts with five categories: a) intrapersonal, which includes such qualities as self-actualisation, independence and emotional self-awareness, b) interpersonal, which includes qualities like empathy and social responsibilities, c) adaptability, which includes such qualities as problem-solving and reality testing, d) stress management, which involves impulse control and stress tolerance and e) general mood, which includes happiness and optimism (Bar-On, 1997).

Another mixed approach with a five part elaboration of EI is proposed by Goleman (1995, 1998a): a) self-awareness area that includes attributes like emotional awareness and self-confidence, b) self-regulation that includes self-control, trustworthiness and innovation, c) motivation that includes achievement drive, initiative and optimism, d) empathy, that includes such attributes as understanding others and political awareness and e) social skills that involve such qualities as influence, conflict management, and team capabilities.

The theories and models Mayer et al. (2000) regard as mixed models are that of Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1995) (Mayer, Caruso, et al. 2000). Goleman (2001) answers to this critique by stating that the point of his book was to explore EI as a groundbreaking conception of intelligence, rather than to systematically articulate an EI model. Goleman (2001) argues further that the formulation of his first EI-based theory of performance seems to meet Mayer's criteria for a pure model. The model is competency based, comprising a discrete set of abilities which integrate affective and cognitive skills but are distinct from abilities measured by traditional IQ tests (Goleman, 2001).

According to Bar-On (2000) emotional intelligence is not a new concept. Mayer (2001) answers to this by stating that mixed approaches like that of Bar-On (2000) largely duplicates personality research under a different name. A careful connection of such mixed approaches to the personality field, would make the tests of emotional intelligence easier to interpret and understand because of the considerable overlap between new scales and previous ones. Mayer (2001). Sternberg (2001) remarks that by contrast, EI as ability, does have promise as one among a set of new intelligences, including practical intelligence and newly revised versions of social intelligence. Mayer (2001) also notes that the only thing is in these long lists of mixed traits involve measures of the meta-experience of mood. Mayer (2001) states further that if mixed models of personality are little more than unsystematic composites of personality traits, it seems worth returning to the more focused ability outset.

Mayer (2001) notes the following arguments against the ability approaches: The first is that it may be more exciting (and easier) to gather together the group of positive personality qualities suggested by popularises and use them to predict success at work or at home. There is nothing wrong with assessing such positive qualities and combining them. Still, if a researcher adds all those positive attributes together, he or she will not likely come up with a simple, powerful predictor of success. The final argument for why mixed approaches might work is that they indirectly measure EI ability. This argument states that people higher in EI should become happier and more optimistic than others over time, so measuring optimism and happiness is enough. Still, the relationship between EI and such positive qualities as optimism or self-esteem is not strong for several reasons (Mayer, 2001). First, EI is not always valued or rewarded by society, and so the person with high levels of it may experience a great deal of frustration at seeing what others can not see. Second, even if a person's EI is valued, his or her goals may not be happiness. There are many people quite willing to take on emotionally difficult roles – helper, caretaker, and therapists – so as to make the world a better place. The third reason EI does not inexorably lead to happiness, is that emotional work and self-improvement, like any personal

change, typically takes a long time. Hence, such positive differences that EI can bring about in personality may not be seen until middle age or later.

Bar-On (2001) points out that the early definitions of social intelligence influenced the way EI was later conceptualised. Some theorists viewed emotional intelligence as part of social intelligence. This suggests that both concepts are closely related and may even represent major interrelated components of the same construct. Bar-On (2001) states that we could very well be talking about the same construct rather than two separate constructs, which he (Bar-On, 1997) is convinced, is the case. At the same time that scientists were focusing on the social or interpersonal component, others began looking at the intrapersonal and, primarily, emotional component of this construct. At approximately the same time that researchers began exploring various ways to define, describe and assess social intelligence, scientific inquiry began to centre around "alexithymia," which can be considered the essence of EI in that it focuses specifically on the ability to identify, understand, regulate, and express emotions (Taylor, Bagby, Parker, 1997). Two new directions that paralleled and possibly grew out of alexithymia are "emotional awareness" and "psychological mindedness" (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; McCallum, 1989). Bar-On (2001) notes that Peter Salovey and John Mayer's present conceptualisation of EI is also very much like that of alexithymia and has apparently grown out of a similar way of viewing this construct. However, it is interesting to point out that they first viewed EI as being part of social intelligence and traced the roots of their conceptualisation back to Thorndike's early definition of this construct. It is also interesting to note that the term they chose to describe their definition of the construct (emotional intelligence) became a media buzzword in 1996. However, it was first used as early as 1966 (Leuner, 1966), at a time when the media and general public showed no interest at all in this topic. Scientific work related to the intrapersonal component of this wider construct, has continued in other interesting directions like Robert Sternberg's (1985) research of what he calls "practical intelligence" (Sternberg, 1985) and "successful intelligence" (Sternberg, 1985).

Taylor et al. (2000) notes that in their initial theoretical paper, Salovey and Mayer (1989/1990) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. Although this definition encompasses emotional self-awareness and empathy, Mayer and Salovey (1997) recently argued that it gives insufficient emphasis to "thinking about feelings". Taylor et al. (2000) states that this is somewhat surprising because the definition clearly refers to the ability to use emotional information to guide cognition and behaviour.

Nonetheless, Mayer & Salovey (1997) introduced a revised and more complex definition that identifies four central components of the construct: the perception, appraisal and expression of emotion, emotional facilitation of thinking, understanding and analysing emotions to promote emotions, employing emotional knowledge and reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Noticeably absent from this revised formulation of the construct, is any direct reference to interpersonal intelligence (Taylor & et al. 2000).

Taylor et al. (2000) also view the concepts of Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence, namely adaptability, stress management and general mood as outcomes of emotional intelligence rather than essential components of the construct. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) state that Bar-On (2000) presents a revision of his model in 1997 (discussed previously in this chapter) (Bar-On, 1997). There are a number of changes Bar-On (2000) made to his model, including that the general mood area is viewed as a facilitator of emotional intelligence rather as part of it. At a recent international conference on emotional intelligence (2001). Bar-On (1997) refined his model further by stating that the following are not core components of EI: *independence, self-actualisation and social responsibility* (Bar-On, 2000). Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) state that many of the attributes in the model of Bar-On (1997), such as reality testing, stress management, and impulse control, seem to stretch beyond what is generally meant by emotion or intelligence. Bar-On (1997) proposes that the components of his model develop over time, change

throughout life and can be improved through training and development programmes and that the model relates to the potential for performance rather than performance itself.

One begins to wonder what adaptive attributes would not be considered emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000). Theories that define emotional intelligence as a diverse list of qualities, such as self-confidence and achievement, do not seem to hold up well. It is also highly improbable that any person could meet all the criteria over an extended period of time. Claims by popularisers of emotional intelligence that predict that emotional intelligence is twice as important as IQ (Goleman, 1998a) stand in strong contradiction to such literature. In fact, when Mayer, Salovey and Caruso have examined those claims, they have appeared questionable to begin with and no serious evidence has yet been offered in support of them (Davies, Stankov & Roberts, 1998; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) views Goleman's theory (1995) as improper to hold up as a scientific theory, because it was presented as a journalistic account of their (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000) theory. The most severe critique the researcher came upon in the literature study came from Professor John W. Hunt, (2001). He states that Goleman's model is sensible but hardly groundbreaking. He states further that in most established organisations, emotional maturity had long been a selection criterion. Hunt (2001) notes further that Goleman (1999) warned that people could not assess their own EI, but this did nothing to stop self-completion questionnaires claiming to measure EI from flooding the market. Hunt (2001) also questions the statement by Goleman (1999) that EQ and not IQ is a predictor of success. The question could be asked how to explain why between 85 and 98 percent of those who make it to the top are male and have an above average IQ.

The second book that Goleman published was to meet the need of empirical data for his first publication. Hunt (2001) describes this effort of Goleman as an odd collection of construct evidence and a pot-pouri of interchangeable

psychological constructs - traits, drivers, abilities, skills, capacities capabilities, tendencies and behaviours. It is a book more about promotion than emotion (Hunt, 2001). There is thus little empirical evidence stating his concepts. The most evidence comes from Hay/McBer consulting practice, which is respected for its working the skills/superior performance assessment business. Goleman forced his ideas onto an existing data bank, with unfortunate consequences (Hunt, 2001). There is no mentioning of emotion in his work, not one mention of fun, excitement, fear, exhilaration, pain or ecstasy (Hunt, 2001).

2.6 Evaluation and viewpoint of the researcher regarding the dynamics of emotional intelligence

The question can be asked whether or not Goleman's theory is an original theory or not. In his first attempt, he made use of the model of Mayer and Salovey, but in his second attempt, he added several competencies to Mayer and Salovey's model to support his performance theory of emotional intelligence. The statistical data he used to support this model came from the Hay group and is not closely related to emotional intelligence. The competencies he added are not something new and most of them are interpersonal skills that have been trained for ages. It seems as though Goleman had just put a new brand on concepts that already existed. The theory and model of Mayer and Salovey comes from an intelligence perspective and therefore describes (according to the researcher), the concept of emotional intelligence the best. The limitation of this theory is that there is no application or relation stated to competencies that can be used in the workplace. Bar-On (1997) acknowledges that some of the emotional intelligence skills described by him are trainable and can change. Although Bar-On uses the term emotional intelligence, he sees no difference between emotional intelligence and social intelligence. From the time his model of emotional intelligence was formulated, there have been some changes in the way Bar-On perceives his own model. General mood is now seen as the result of emotional intelligence. Independence, self-actualisation and social responsibility are now classified as competencies that are not "core

emotional intelligence. Independence, self-actualisation and social responsibility are now classified as competencies that are not “core competencies” of emotional intelligence. This can be confusing, because Bar-On still uses those concepts to describe what emotional intelligence is. The question can now be asked: “What then is emotional intelligence and what is it not?” The researcher developed a model to try and clarify the issues mentioned above from a growth perspective:

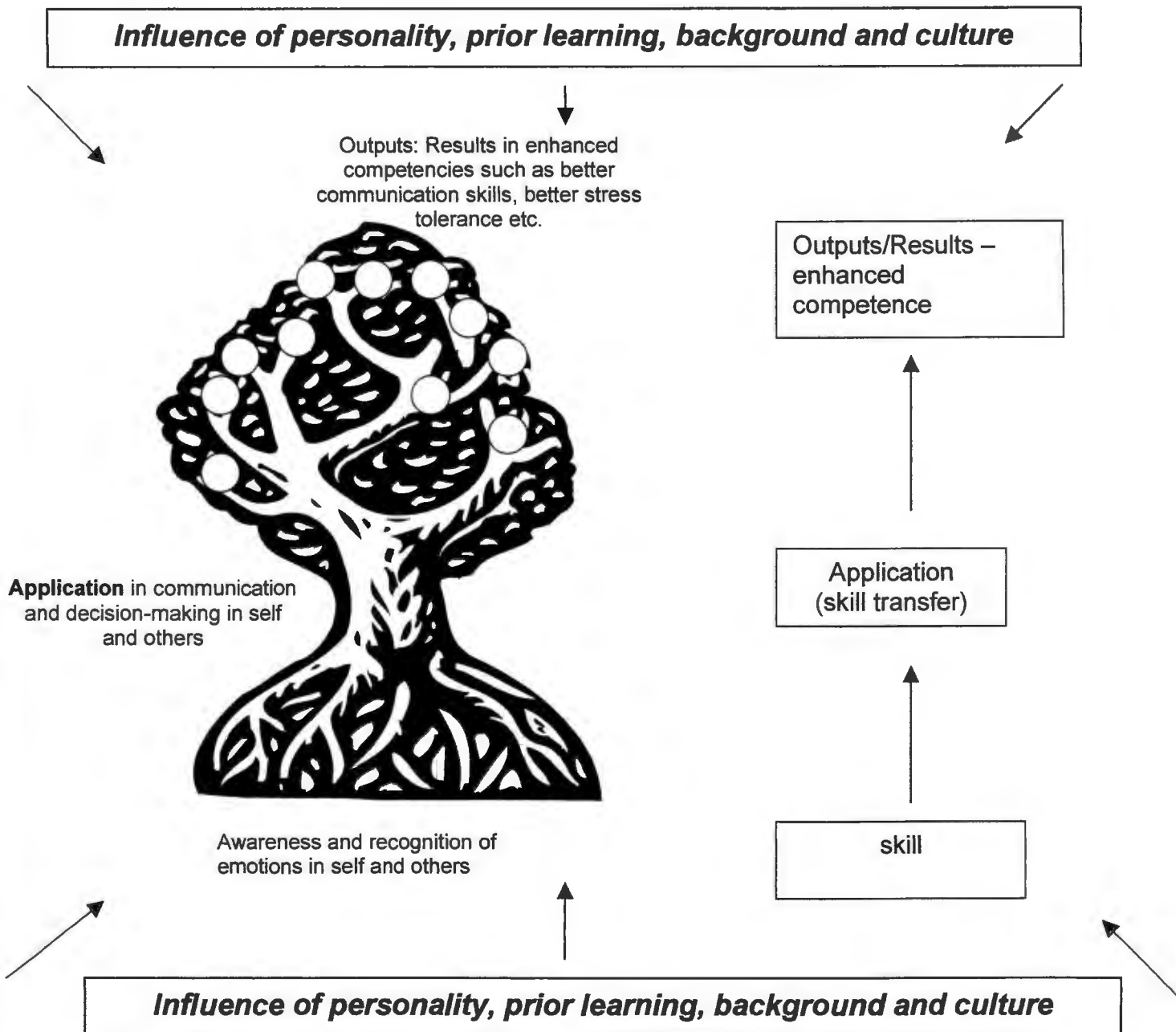


Figure 3. Growth model of emotional intelligence

- **Growth model of emotional intelligence**

The following skill forms the roots of the growth model: “*Awareness and recognition of emotions in the self and other.*” This skill encompasses what has been suggested in the literature what emotional intelligence is. The development of this skill must be applied in communication and decision-making with the self and others. If the skill is correctly applied (the trunk of the tree) it will result in certain outputs/ enhance certain competencies, such as better stress tolerance, better adaptability, empathy etc (branches and fruit of the tree). This whole process is influenced by personality, background and culture. Certain personality traits can foster or limit the practising of the skill, as well as the application. Personality, background and culture thus form the reference framework from where the skill can be learned and applied. The outputs or results are not only formed from the emotional intelligence skill at the roots, but can also be influenced by prior learning, personality traits, etc. The outputs are thus not emotional intelligence or personality traits, but the competencies that can be enhanced by the skill and application as indicated by the model.

2.7 Chapter Summary

In Chapter 2 the different perspectives of the origin and different theories of emotional intelligence were discussed. It seems as though the different authors described emotional intelligence from a *performance perspective* (Goleman, 1998a), *intelligence perspective* (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and lastly, from a *well-being perspective* (Bar-On). There is also some controversy amongst these authors about what emotional intelligence actually is and is not that lead to criticism of each other's theories. The main streams in the literature are that what Salovey & Mayer named the ability approach and the mixed approaches of Goleman and Bar-On. The researcher also introduced a new framework for the usage of emotional intelligence that will be applied in this research study. In chapter 3 the application and theory of emotional intelligence in the workplace will be discussed.

In this chapter the second specific objective of the research study was met namely: *To conceptualise the origin and theory of emotional intelligence from current literature.*

CHAPTER 3

APPLICATION OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN ORGANISATIONS

In chapter 3 an application of emotional intelligence in the workplace will be investigated. The benefit of EQ in the workplace will be highlighted. Thereafter the use of EQ in selection and recruitment will be discussed, followed by the application of EQ in leaders and groups within the organisation. The last part of this chapter investigates the use of EQ in numerous organisation processes such as performance, performance feedback, organisational commitment etc.

3.1 Introduction

The emotionally intelligent organisation understands that you compete with how well you use your people. It invests in- and takes focused action to optimise the way in which they use their people, and the contribution of their human and intellectual capital base. Superior emotionally intelligent organisations focus on four areas that lead to success: they hire and develop people for emotional intelligence, they cultivate and encourage use of emotional intelligence, they evaluate efforts and make adjustments to continuously upgrade emotional intelligence and they focus on all levels of the organisation, from senior executive to shop-floor workers (Watkin, 2000).

3.2 Organisational benefit of emotional intelligence

Where emotional intelligence is present, a significant part of an organisation's profitability is linked to the quality of its work life, which is based largely on trust and loyalty both within the organisation and with outside people such as customers and suppliers (Johnson & Indvik, 1999). Profitability is also linked to the way employees feel about their job, colleagues and company (Cooper, 1997). Emotional intelligence is a hidden advantage in organisations. Leaders worldwide have discovered that attention to emotions saves time,

expand opportunities and focus energy for better results (Cooper, 1997). Emotional intelligence is also a predictor of workplace success (Martinez, 1997). The higher up a manager goes in any organisation, the more important emotional intelligence becomes, because relationships become more important (Johnson & Indvik, 1999).

To improve their relationships, managers and employees must address the following five components of emotional intelligence:

- a) *self-awareness*, wherein the person recognises and names his or her own emotions, knows their causes, and recognises the difference between feelings and actions;
- b) *self-regulation*, wherein he or she develops the ability to tolerate frustrations and manage other and to suspend judgement before taking action;
- c) *motivation*, wherein she/he has passion for the work beyond money or status and has the propensity to pursue goals with persistence;
- d) *empathy*, wherein he or she has the ability to understand the emotional make up of other people and has the skill to treat people according to their emotional reactions, and
- e) *social skills*, wherein he or she has proficiency in developing and managing relationships and has the ability to find common ground and build rapport (Goleman, 1998a).

Handley (2001) states that emotionally intelligence can be used to the advantage of organisations through developing an emotional intelligence audit. This will allow the organisation to profile and understand what skill sets are associated with high performance. This profile will help in two areas. First, during recruitment or selection, a profile of EI skill sets is associated with high performance in various corporate positions (for example leadership and sales). This will make companies makes the company more effective in finding and hiring employees with the right emotional intelligence competencies. Second the profile helps the company find and enhance those skill sets that truly constitute a corporate asset or competitive advantage. This knowledge of skill sets is vital for high-leverage, on-target investments in

human capital development. This twofold approach – hiring people with EI skill sets that are a good fit with skills of current high performers and training them further in these specific skills – has a compound leverage effect. Additionally, since these new employees fit is better and they are more likely to succeed, it should be easier for companies to retain them. Unfortunately, many companies and managers are often unaware of these human capital issues, until it is too late. Lack of awareness can result in “human capital drag”, which can be costly (Handley, 2001). Profiling emotional intelligent skill sets, provide benefits in the following areas:

- 1) Using selection and recruitment to foster emotional intelligence in organisations and
- 2) Training and development, which uses emotional skill set profiling strategically to pick the right targets for maximum effect, minimise ineffective training and spend no more resources than necessary.

3.3 Using selection and recruitment to foster emotional intelligence in organisations.

The impact of emotional intelligence can be seen in using it in selection decisions. By using emotional intelligence, recruitment decisions are more successful when the right competencies are measured (Watkin, 2000). The quickest way to increase emotional intelligence competencies in members of an organisation is thus to select individuals who already demonstrate those competencies and behaviours. Unfortunately, typical HR selection processes tend to focus on what appears on the applicant’s curriculum vitae: education, skills and experience (Jacobs, 2001). Although these factors are important and often a baseline for adequate job performance, they rarely differentiate outstanding from average performance (Spencer, McClelland, & Spencer, 1992).

The emotional intelligence competencies, although more difficult to detect, have been shown to be the key differentiators between typical and outstanding performers (Goleman, 1998a). If organisations want to increase these competencies in their workforce, the HR hiring process must include

these competencies in their workforce, as well as a method for identifying these competencies in candidates.

Jacobs (2001) notes that selecting all the competencies of emotional intelligence would be an extremely challenging, costly task. McClelland (1994) states that competencies operate on a category, or cluster, level and not just individually which he refers to as a formula of algorithm (McClelland, 1994). Research by the Hay/McBer group have created algorithms for numerous models (Jacobs, 2001) which will be discussed briefly:

- **Self-awareness.** The Self-Awareness cluster consists of one mandatory competence (Self-Confidence) and two compensatory competencies (Emotional Self-Awareness and Accurate Self-Assessment). In order to meet the algorithm for the Self-Awareness cluster – that is, in order to be likely to be an outstanding performer – a person must demonstrate Self-Confidence and either Emotional Self-Awareness or Accurate Self-Assessment (Jacobs, 2001).
- **Self-Management.** The Self-Management cluster consists of a mandatory competence and two groups of additional competencies. Self-Control must be demonstrated, as it is the core of managing oneself and one's motives. A person needs to demonstrate Trustworthiness, Conscientiousness or Adaptability. Trustworthiness and Conscientiousness may be considered compensatory, or alternate manifestations of each other. Trustworthiness tends to be associated with executive and management jobs, whereas Conscientiousness tends to be associated with individual contributor and administrative support jobs. Both these competencies are somewhat antagonistic to Adaptability. Whereas Trustworthiness and Conscientiousness are about stability and reliability, Adaptability is about flexibility and openness to change. Finally, a person must demonstrate either Achievement Orientation or Initiative. Having strength in one can make up for lack of use of the other. Although the Self-Regulation

competencies are antagonistic to the Motivation competencies, it is a balance between the two that maximises effectiveness (Jacobs, 2001).

- **Social-Awareness.** At the core of the Social Awareness cluster is the mandatory competence *Empathy*, an awareness of the others' feelings, needs, and concerns. From *Empathy* the other two competencies derived are: Organisational Awareness and Service orientation. Organisational Awareness and Service orientation are alternate manifestations of each other. Organisational Awareness tends to be used in higher-level management and executive positions where understanding and navigating the organisation is critical for success. Service Orientation tends to be important in positions relating to representatives, consultants, salespeople, individual contributors, and similar positions (Jacobs, 2001).
- **Social Skills.** The social skills cluster contains competencies that tend to be more situation specific than competencies in other clusters, more appropriate to certain jobs or roles. However, the influence competence is the core of the Social Skills cluster and is therefore considered compulsory. The remainder of the Social Skills cluster is divided into two primary groups. The first group, Leading Others and developing others, demonstrates the ability to lead and manage others. The second group, Building Bonds, Teamwork and Collaboration, and Conflict Management, demonstrates the ability to work well with others. The algorithm for this cluster requires that an individual demonstrates at least one competence from each of these groups. In addition, this cluster contains additional competencies, Communication and Change Catalyst, that may or may not be critical (depending on the situation) and are therefore considered optional (Jacobs, 2001).

Fleming (1999) also reports emotional intelligence competencies according to an interview with John Andrews, executive vice president of D. Hilton Associates Inc.:

- **Flexibility.** Employees must understand that while procedures and policies of are of the utmost importance, an individual member need may take precedence if they are within the guidelines.
- **Teamwork.** High emotional intelligent workers are sensitive to others' needs and feelings, show the initiative to pitch in, volunteer and help, readily share knowledge with co-workers and are adaptable and flexible. High EQ workers can read the emotional process in a team or a group. They have developed the capacity to put aside their own interests and needs to recognise the needs of others and also to support the larger ego of the organisation, the team, or other work unit.
- **Innovation.** High EQ workers ask questions and cut a path toward continuous improvement.
- **Communication.** Highly developed interpersonal communication skills are a hallmark of high-EQ individuals. He or she can adapt the style of communication to fit the audience. They are as comfortable talking with an executive as an assembly-line worker.
- **Social comfort.** High-EQ employees are comfortable working with different types of people.

According to McGarvey (1997) individuals with the highest emotional intelligence excel at four interrelated skills: a) the ability to persist and stay motivated in face of frustration, b) the ability to control impulses c) the ability to control their emotions, and d) the ability to empathise with others.

Wolmarans (1998) state that emotionally intelligent people:

- know who they are and where they are heading
- have a clear vision of the future and are inspired by passion or a sense of mission or calling,
- live according to a personal set of values and beliefs of what's right or wrong, and have the courage to stand up for their principles and convictions,
- have a sense of inner peace that gives them an aura of charisma and personal power and influence,
- have wisdom to say "no" to demands that could destabilise the balance between their work and family life,

- have a lifestyle that affords them the opportunity to exercise and to eat and drink in moderation,
- are mentally “switched on” and create opportunities for spiritual activities in their lives,
- treat people with care and respect and show understanding, compassion and empathy when and where necessary,
- tend to trust others and people regards them as trustworthy,
- maintain close relationships with a number of “significant others”,
- have a positive and optimistic outlook on life, but do not shy away from problems, conflict and confrontation,
- are creative and innovative problem-solvers, and
- bounce back in challenging situations.

3.3.1 Selecting for different types of jobs

Jacobs (2001) based models for selecting for different types of jobs on emotional intelligence competencies on the work of Spencer & Spencer (1993). They presented a number of generic models developed from a meta-analysis of over two hundred competency models in the Hay/McBer database. Competency models for selection on the emotional intelligence paradigm will be reviewed for *managers, individual contributors, salespeople and helping and human service workers* based on the work of Jacobs (2001).

- **Managers.** The manager model emphasises competencies that facilitate leading or influencing others. In the Self-Awareness cluster, Self-Confidence becomes particularly salient at the managerial level. In the Hay/McBer database this competence was found to be a critical differentiator of outstanding managers across studies. The same held true for Trustworthiness, also known as Integrity in many competency models. In order for managers to be effective, they must consistently act upon their espoused values and beliefs. Achievement Orientation, or setting and meeting challenging goals, were also a key differentiator in Spencer & Spencer’s (1993) meta-analysts, and Self-Control, the core of Self-Management, has been found in longitudinal studies to

predict success in managers, particularly those high in power motivation (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982). In the Social Awareness cluster, Empathy and Organisational Awareness are critical competencies for managers. As one moves up in the organisation, understanding the underlying issues and politics of the organisation becomes increasingly necessary in order to be successful. In the Social Skills cluster, the emphasis in managerial jobs is influencing and leading others. Thus, Influence competence along with the Leading Others and Developing Others competencies are considered especially salient. In addition, Conflict Management and Communication have also been shown to be important behaviours for managers to demonstrate (Jacobs, 2001).

- **Individual contributors.** One of the most critical differentiators of outstanding individual contributors, professionals and entrepreneurs has been found to be the achievement motive (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In the emotional intelligence model, behaviours related to the achievement motive are represented by the Achievement Orientation and Initiative competencies residing in the Self-Management cluster. A characteristic individuals with the achievement motive have, is that testing themselves against a standard of excellence energises them. Thus Accurate Self-Assessment, knowing one's strengths and weaknesses, often characterises this population. In terms of the Social Awareness cluster. Service Orientation is often more critical to individual contributors than to Organisational Awareness, because the former is more focused on helping, consulting, or assisting clients and customers. Lastly, successful individual contributors, particularly professionals, build networks and work well with others. Thus in the Social Skills cluster, the Building Bonds and Teamwork and Collaboration competencies are more critical for these people than are the Leading Others or Developing Others competencies (Jacobs, 2001).

- **Salespeople.** Like outstanding individual contributors, outstanding salespeople are characterised by a high achievement motive. Thus are the same Self-Management competencies, Achievement Orientation and Initiative, important. However, salespeople differ from other individual contributors in that their main goal is to influence others to buy a service or product. Therefore, the Influence competence is particularly critical to outstanding salespeople. In order to successfully influence others, salespeople must build on some of the Social Awareness competencies, particularly Empathy and Service Orientation. They must understand the underlying needs and issues of each customer and work to address those needs. In addition, many salespeople actively build long-term relationships with their clients, acting as trusted advisers. This requires the Building Bonds competence from the Social Skills cluster (Jacobs, 2001).
- **Helping and human service workers.** Helping and human service workers include social workers, therapists, medical personnel, such as nurses and physicians, teachers and the like. One of the key characteristics of outstanding helping and human service workers is a high socialised motive, which indicates that these people enjoy having an impact and influencing for the good of others or for the good of an organisation. Thus, the Influence competence, as well as the Developing Others competence, is particularly critical for those in these professions. The nature of these helping positions requires strong social awareness. Empathy is a given, and Service Orientation takes precedence over Organisational Awareness. People in these jobs need to understand and manage themselves well in order to be helpful to others. This requires Self-Control, Self-Confidence, and Accurate Self-Assessment. In addition, they must be able to work well with others, using the competencies of Teamwork and Collaboration and of Conflict Management (Jacobs, 2001).

3.3.1.2 Selection Tools for emotional intelligence competencies

Once the competencies for emotional intelligence have been identified, a reliable, valid measuring instrument needs to be identified. Jacobs (2001) recommends that several assessment tools rather than just one must be used in order to provide a more accurate reliable picture of the person. However, this may not be economical or practical in many situations. The aspect of measuring emotional intelligence competencies will be discussed in chapter 4.

3.3.2 Training and development of emotional intelligence skill sets

The literature study revealed that the focus of training and development of emotional intelligence skill sets focused on two main groupings within the organisation, namely:

- a) leadership and management development and
- b) work teams or groups.

3.3.2.1 Emotional intelligence, management development and leadership

When it comes to improving organisational effectiveness, management scholars and practitioners are beginning to emphasise the importance of a manager's emotional intelligence (Cooper, 1997; Harrison, 1997, Morris & Feldman, 1996). Research by Megerian and Sosik (1996) suggests that aspects of EQ may underlie a manager's exhibition of transformational leadership, which involves a strong emotional relationship between leader and follower. Self-awareness is fundamental to transformational leadership. Leaders who possess aspects of EQ are likely to exhibit transformational behaviours for several reasons. First, to the extent that a leader is self-aware, he or she may demonstrate determination, farsightedness and strong convictions in his or her belief (Bennis, 1989). A leader who possesses the emotional management of EQ considers the needs of others over his or her personal needs (Goleman, 1995). Salovey, Hsee & Mayer (1993) states that a leader who possesses the emotional management aspect of EQ uses

emotionally expressive language and non-verbal cues associated with transformational leaders. By providing followers with purpose and meaning, delivered in an emotionally expressive manner, leaders may inspirationally motivate followers to perform beyond expectations.

For those in leadership positions, emotional intelligence skills account for close to 90 percent of what distinguishes outstanding leaders from those judged as average (Kemper, 1999). George (2000) suggests that emotional intelligence plays a significant role in leadership effectiveness and suggests that the ability to recognise and manage moods and emotions in oneself and in others theoretically contribute to the effectiveness of leaders. Successful leaders who are able to manage positive and negative emotions within themselves and within others, are able to articulate a vision for the future, talk optimistically, provide encouragement and meaning, stimulate in others new ways of doing things, encourage the expression of new ideas and intervene in problems before they become serious (Gardner & Stough, 2001; Watkin, 2000). The ability to manage emotions and relationships permits the emotionally intelligent leader to understand follower's needs and to react accordingly.

Leaders high in emotional intelligence act as role models, they will enhance the follower's trust and will earn respect (Barling, Slater, Kelloway, 2000). George (2000) argues that emotional intelligence enhances leaders' ability to solve problems and to address issues and opportunities facing them in the organisation. Leaders high on emotional intelligence will be able to use positive emotions to envision major improvements to the functioning of an organisation (George, 2000). They will also be able to precisely assess how their followers feel and use this information to influence their subordinate's emotions, so that they are receptive and supportive of the goals and objectives of the organisation.

Leaders within this conceptualisation are able to improve decision-making via their knowledge and management of emotions and those who are able to

establish whether the emotion is related to opportunities or problems and thus utilise those emotions in the course of decision making (Schwartz, 1990).

There is a strong relationship between transformational leadership and overall emotional intelligence (Gardner & Stough, 2001). Leaders who considered themselves as more transformational, reported that they could identify their own feelings and emotional states and express those feelings to others; that they utilise emotional knowledge when solving problems; that they are able to understand the emotions of others in their workplace; that they could manage positive and negative emotions in themselves and others and that they could effectively control their emotional states.

3.3.2.2 Building the emotional intelligence of groups

Much of today and tomorrow's knowledge work will be done in teams and collaborative communities of practice (Handley, 2001). (Fitz-ens, 1997) states that the use of work groups in organisational settings have grown considerably in the last decade as organisations have discovered that integrating diverse perspectives, skills and knowledge develops innovation and improves decisions.

With emotional skill-set profiling, a potential team's blind side can be spotted and team members can be trained in these areas, or other members more skilled in these areas can be added to round out the team (Handley, 2001). The increased use of groups has also created keen interest in determining what makes them effective so that their success can be facilitated. A number of existing theoretical models help to answer this question by defining factors that influence a group's effectiveness. Common factors in most models include organisational context (reward systems, culture, educational systems, and so forth), group design (size, skills, and so forth), group processes and boundary management (Cohen, 1994; Shea & Guzzo, 1987; Hackman, 1987; Sundstrom, De Meuse, & Futrell, 1990).

At its core, however, effective teamwork requires achieving co-operation and collaborations amongst group members. Yet, no theory addresses this issue with enough depth to be useful to those interested in building effective teams (the actions and beliefs that underlie the emergence of these important interaction processes) (Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, Salas, & Volpe, 1995; Donnellon, 1996). Druskat & Wolff, (2001) argues that the development of effective interaction in groups requires an understanding of the role of emotion in groups. It seems (according to the literature study done by the researcher, that Druskat & Wolff (2001) are the leading experts regarding the phenomenon of groups and emotional intelligence. They portray emotional intelligence as the ability of a group to generate a shared set of norms that manage the emotional process in a way that builds trust group identity, and group efficacy. Druskat & Wolff (2001) propose two dimensions of emotional intelligence in the group arena : a) Group Self-Awareness and b) Group Self-Regulation:

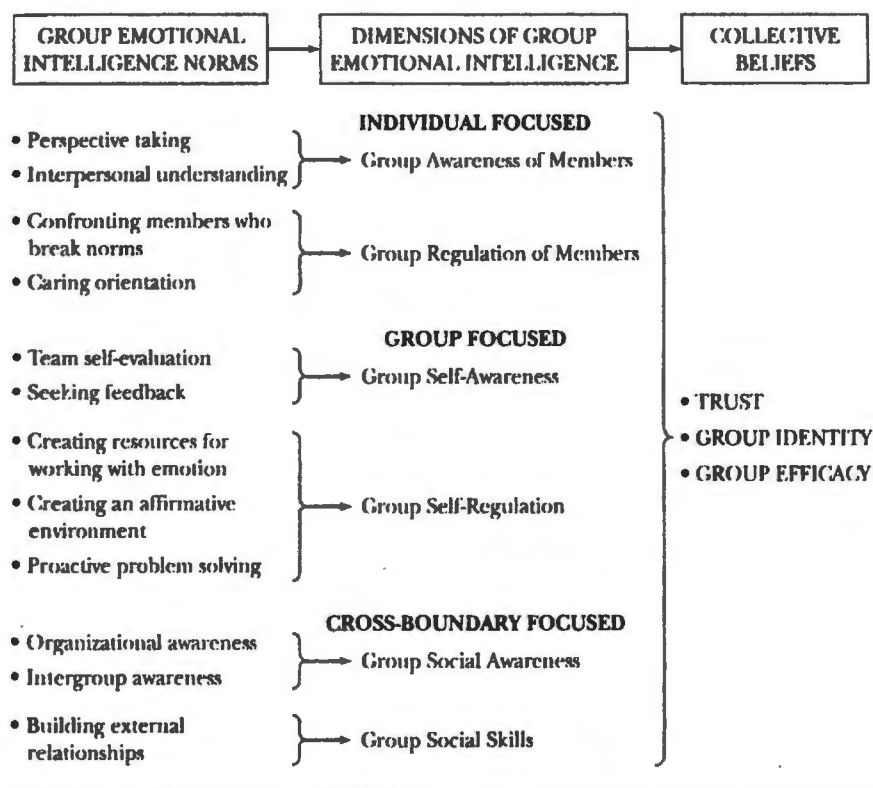


Figure 3: Dimensions of Group Emotional Intelligence : Druskat & Wolff (2001)

3.3.2.2.1 Group Self- Awareness.

Druskat & Wolff (2001) borrowed their definition of group self-awareness from Goleman's (1998) definition of self-awareness and define group self-awareness as member awareness of group emotional states, preferences, and resources. They propose further that such awareness can help a group think intelligently about itself and its needs.

The first group norm Druskat & Wolff (2001) propose under the dimension of *group self-awareness* is team self-evaluation and it is defined as a group's ability to evaluate itself, including its emotional states and the strengths and weaknesses in its modes of interaction and operation as a team. Research indicates that highly effective teams are more likely than lower performing teams to hold a norm that supports team self-evaluation (Druskat, 1996). Druskat (1996) also found that team self-evaluation often manifests itself through the collection of information about other's teams and the subsequent comparisons of one's own team to those other teams. To obtain such comparisons the effective teams in Druskat's study often observed and discussed the attitudes and work habits of other teams and used that information to define what was good or bad about their own team. McIntyre and Salas (1995) propose that Group Self-Awareness is also encouraged by a norm supporting the value of feedback and constructive criticism. Thus, the second group norm in the Group Self-Awareness dimensions of emotional intelligence is *seeking feedback* and is defined as searching out feedback from external sources. A norm of seeking feedback creates a climate in which continuous improvement can occur. Druskat (1996) also found that higher performing teams are more likely to seek out and attend to feedback than average teams.

3.3.2.2.2 Group Self-regulation

Druskat & Wolff (2001) based their definition of group self-awareness on the work of Mayer and Salovey (1997). They propose that emotional intelligence in groups involve the group's ability to regulate itself so as to promote group

emotional well being and development. To do this, the Self-Regulation dimension must work in partnership with the Self-awareness dimension. Group Self-Awareness reveals issues that require the group's attention, but it does not guarantee that the group will effectively address those issues. Group Self-regulation refers to a group's ability to manage its emotional states and create desirable responses. Druskat & Wolf (2001) states that it also encompasses what Holmer (1994) referred to as coping with, or managing *emotional challenge*. Emotional challenge is the degree of psychological threat perceived in a situation.

The norms of Group Self-regulation are related to a group's ability to build emotional capacity and mobilise effective responses to emotional challenge. Druskat & Wolf (2001) note three norms that are needed for a group to regulate its response to emotional arousal. The first norm is *creating resources for working with emotion*. A group facilitates effective interpretation of and response to emotional stimuli by providing resources that encourage the recognition of emotional stimuli and that help members discuss how they feel about those stimuli (Levy, 1984). In groups, suppressed emotion manifest itself as apathy or lack of motivation. An emotionally intelligent group accepts emotions as an inherent part of group life. It legitimises discussion of emotional issues and creates a vocabulary for discussing them.

Once a group has accepted emotion and created resources for working with it, it must channel its energy toward *creating an affirmative environment* that cultivates positive images of the group's past, present and future. This is the second norm for Group Self-regulation. According to Barsade & Gibson (1998) emotion can be transmittable in a group environment, thus constructive, positive images can have an important impact on how emotions are ultimately experienced in a group. Cooperrider (1987) suggests that positive images facilitate positive affect, positive behaviour and positive outcomes. Creating an affirmative group environment can be accomplished through norms that guide the interpretation of emotional stimuli. Interpreting and labelling ambiguous events through positive images can result in self-

fulfilling prophecies in groups. Edmondson (1999) indicates that effective groups are more likely to interpret failures as opportunities to learn.

The third norm associated with Group Self-Regulation is *proactive problem solving*. Groups high in emotional intelligence focus on proactive efforts to solve problems and not on the limitations experienced (Druskat, 1996). By taking control of the situation a sense of group efficacy is created and emotional challenges experienced by the group are reduced (Fein, 1990). Druskat (1996) found that effective teams took proactive control of ambiguous or difficult situations. Members of one highly effective team that was experiencing frequent equipment breakdowns, decided that rather than endure the long wait for maintenance crew to make the repairs, they would watch closely the next time the mechanics repaired the problem and, even though it was against plan policy, repair the problem themselves after that. Other teams with norms supporting proactive problem solving designed new parts rather than tolerate equipment that was difficult to manoeuvre or use. The result for these teams was an increased sense of control over their environment, a greater sense of group efficacy, and enhanced performance (Druskat, 1996). The application of the different norms discussed to enhance emotional intelligence in groups is manifested in harmony amongst workers.

This harmony is the basis of synergistic sharing of skills and competencies within groups whose performance surpasses that of other groups with similar technical, but fewer social skills (Goleman, 1995). Research consistently reveals that co-operation and collaboration are fundamental interaction processes in work groups and fundamental ingredients for group effectiveness (Ancona & Cadwell, 1992; Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993; Druskat, 1996). Kelley and Caplan (1993) observed that peak performing groups had members who built consensus, empathised with other members, promoted co-operation, and avoided conflicts. Emotional intelligence also creates and sustains informal networks.

Thus far, emotional intelligence literature has been viewed only as an individual competency, when the reality is that teams do most work in

organisations. The need of managers today, is also to find ways to make teams work better. Individual emotional intelligence has a group analogue and is just as critical to group's effectiveness.

Teams can develop greater emotional intelligence and, in so doing, boost their overall performance (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). A team with emotionally members does not necessarily make for an emotionally intelligent group. A team, like any social group, takes on its own character. So creating an upward, self-reinforcing spiral of trust, group identity and group efficacy, requires more than a few members who exhibit emotionally intelligent behaviour. It requires a team atmosphere in which the norms build emotional capacity (the ability to respond constructively in emotionally uncomfortable situations) and influence emotions in constructive ways.

Team emotional intelligence is more complicated than individual emotional intelligence, because teams interact at more levels. (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). Many teams build high emotional intelligence by taking pains to consider matters from an individual member's perspective. In the interest of expedience, many teams will move directly to a majority vote. A more intelligent group will pause first to hear out any objections. It will also ask if everyone are completely behind the decision, even if it appears that everyone is behind the decision. All perspectives will be heard by the group (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). Some teams suffer because they aren't aware of emotions at group level. The team must be aware of what it has achieved. There must be norms for group self-awareness present – of emotional states, strengths and weaknesses, modes of interaction and task processes – is a critical part of group emotional intelligence that facilitates group efficacy. Teams gain in both through self-evaluation and by request feedback from others (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). Self-evaluation can take the form of a formal event or a constant activity. Group members can assess their strengths and weaknesses to build their capacities. A norm can also be developed in which members are encouraged to speak up when they feel the group is not being productive. Emotionally competent teams don't wear blinders, they have the emotional capacity to face potentially difficult information and actively seek opinions on

their task processes, progress and performance from the outside. For some teams, feedback may come directly from customers. Others look to colleagues within the company, to suppliers or to professional peers (Druskat & Wolff, 2001).

Teams need resources that all members can draw on to deal with emotions. One important resource is a common vocabulary. Other resources may include helpful ways to voice frustrations, a few minutes of whining and moaning about some setback. Releasing and acknowledging those negative emotions, allows the group to refocus its attention on the parts of the situation it can control and channel its energy in a positive direction. Venting can also take on a more in-depth approach. The workplace can even be outfitted with toys, like soft bullet shooters, that have been used in games of cube warfare. Perhaps the most obvious way to build emotional capacity through regulating team-level emotion is simply to create an affirmative environment. Everyone values a team that, when faced with a challenge, responds with a can-do attitude. Again, it's a question of having the right group norms – in this case, favouring optimism, and positive images and interpretations over negative ones. This doesn't always come naturally to a team (Druskat & Wolff, 2001).

The last kind of emotional intelligence any high-performing team should have, relates to cross-boundary relationships. Just as individuals should be mindful of their own emotions and other's, groups should look both inward and outward emotionally. Teams should avoid creating close emotional ties within should not ignore the feelings, needs, and concerns of important individuals and teams in the broader organisation. Some teams have developed norms that are particularly helpful in making them aware of the broader organisational context. One practice is to have various team members act as liaisons to important constituencies. Many teams are already made up of members drawn from different parts of an organisation, so a cross boundary perspective comes naturally. An emotionally intelligent team is attuned to its broader organisational context so that it affects how they frame and communicate own needs and accomplishments (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). An

emotionally intelligent team must be particularly aware of the needs and feelings of another group within the organisation (Druskat & Wolff, 2001).

Teams high in EQ are also very aware of individual team members' emotions, and they are adept at regulating them. They are also able to confront one another when they break the norms. This is common during brainstorming sessions, where the rule is that people must defer judgement and avoid shooting down ideas. If someone breaks that norm, the team can come down on the person in a playful, yet forceful way, like being pelted by foam toys, or if someone is out of line, the norm can be to stand up and call on him/her immediately (Druskat & Wolff, 2001).

To ensure high level of self-awareness, teams must constantly seek feedback from both inside and outside the organisation. Most important, they work very closely with customers. Outlets for stress must also be provided for a team to be in EQ. Companies must believe in playing and having fun. One company placed several hundred finger blasters around the building for employees to pick up and start shooting when they're frustrated. Fun office projects can be established for people to work on when they need a break, for example to design the company holiday board or to design the "tourist stop" displays seen by visitors.

From the discussion above, the conclusion can be drawn that knowing how emotions affect behaviour in groups is useful for understanding and predicting group behaviour. Druskat & Wolff (2001) present a model for emotional processes in groups:

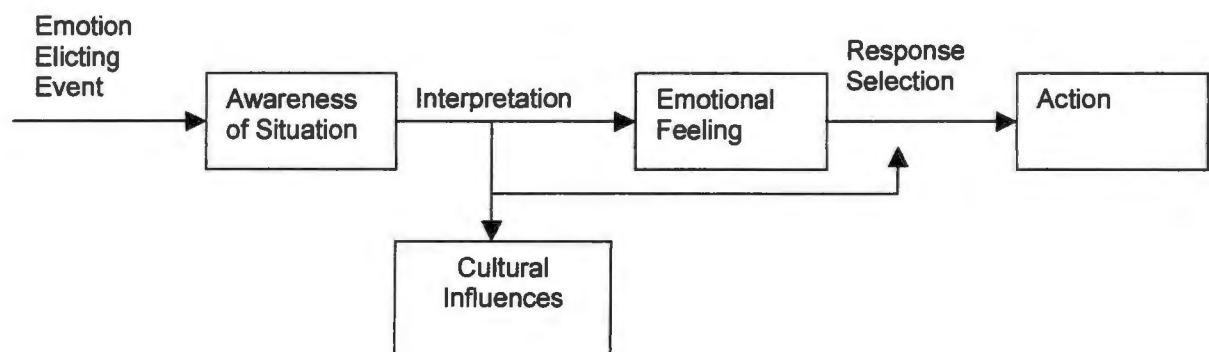


Figure 4 : A model for emotional processes in groups: Druskat & Wolf (2001).

First, an individual's interpretation of an eliciting event is shaped by cultures. For example, in some cultures arriving late to a meeting is interpreted as socially correct whereas in other cultures it is considered unacceptable. The difference between the two cultures in people's interpretations of lateness will therefore elicit different emotions from the individuals involved. Culture influences the selection of a response to emotions. Three aspects of this model in particular help to understand the role of emotion in work groups. First, the model illustrates that emotions contain important information that can alert group members to issues that require the group's attention and response (Fein, 1990). For example, a feeling of tension can alert a group member to unresolved conflict in the group. Second, the model portrays a connection between emotions and behaviour. In so doing, it emphasises that emotions play a role in driving group member behaviour. Third, the model proposes that once emotions reach consciousness, their interpretation and expression are influenced by expectations or norms such as those that exist as part of the group's culture. A fourth implication for work groups grows out of the emotion-behaviour connection. An emotional cycle is created from this connection (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). Emotions lead to behaviour, which lead to changes in the relationship between the individual and the environment (the group and its members), which in turn leads to emotion. This cycle can take a positive or negative direction. It can create an upward self-reinforcing spiral of trust, group identity and group efficacy, or it can create a downward self-reinforcing spiral of dysfunctional conflict and detachment (Hackman, 1990; Lindsley, Brass & Thomas, 1995). Druskat & Wolf (2001) propose that emotionally intelligent responses to stimuli contribute to the development of a positive cycle. However, in the group context, individual emotional intelligence is not enough to support this positive cycle. Such support requires both individual and group emotional intelligence, as discussed previously.

In summary, teams, like all groups, must work according to norms that foster high levels of EQ. By working to establish norms for emotional awareness and regulation at all levels of interaction, teams can build the solid foundation of trust, group identity, and group efficacy they need for true co-operation and collaboration – high performance overall.

3.4 Emotional intelligence and Performance feedback

In a study of 108 managers, Baron (1990) found that the primary cause for disagreement in the work place was incompetent criticism, or the inability to provide subordinates with a balanced view of their performance. Although criticism is an indispensable component of feedback that spread information to employees about either sustaining current performance, improving performance, or re-orientating their efforts in a new direction, the delivery of criticism often leaves much to be desired. Certain superiors feel so uncomfortable about criticising employees that they simply refuse to do it (Abraham, 1999). Subsequently, criticism is incorporated into observer ratings during performance reviews. By this time, however, employees, unaware of weaknesses in their performance, have made such overstated self-appraisals that they resist integrating negative observer feedback into their work. By using sarcasm, personal attacks and contempt to dispense criticism other supervisors bring forth, responses of defensiveness, avoidance of responsibility and resistance to change (Abraham, 1999).

At the root of each of these destructive forms of criticism lies a lack of sensitivity for the feelings of recipients and the devastating impact it has on their effectiveness (Goleman, 1995). Optimism is a component of emotional intelligence. Optimism rests on the premise that failure is not inherent in the individual, it may be attributed to circumstances that may be changed with a refocusing of effort. Accordingly, emotionally intelligent criticism focuses on specific incidents that reveal deficiencies in performance and offers concrete solutions for rectifying them. Constructive solutions direct the employee to alternatives that he or she may not have considered. Empathy permits

emotionally intelligent managers to place themselves in the position of the employee, understand the distress he or she is undergoing, experience those feelings themselves and modify their communication appropriately. Empathy confers the ability to be attuned to what is being said and its impact on the recipient and thus to prevent hurtfulness and humiliation (Levinson, 1992).

The emotionally intelligent delivery of criticism provides valuable information to employees to take corrective action before problems escalate out of control. Consequently, an empathic employee will be able to view weaknesses in his or her performance from the organisation's perspective, perceiving them as detrimental to organisational success. Such an individual will be more receptive to suggestions for improvement and more willing to accept responsibility for failure and will perceive criticism as the opportunity to work with superiors and co-workers constructively to improve performance. Emotional intelligence on the part of both the supervisor and the subordinate will result in deeper understanding of each other, thereby increasing the correspondence between their performance appraisals. Not only does the greater congruence between superior and subordinate ratings stimulate development through greater acceptance of information provided during feedback, but it also acts as a powerful reinforcer of the influence of self-assessment on motivation (Korsgaard, 1996) and promotes involvement in the appraisal process (Mohrman, Resnick-West, & Lawler, 1990).

3.5 Emotional intelligence and Performance

Goleman (1995) described flow as the harnessing of emotions to achieve superior performance and learning. Peak performances that stretch human potential well beyond its limits are achieved in a state of flow that energises and aligns emotions with tasks at hand. Two decades of research on flow convinced Csikszentmihalyi (1975) that tasks that both challenge and permit an individual to draw on an existing knowledge base are most likely to send him or her into a state of flow. For example, flow occurs at 3M when employees trust their intuition to pursue product development even in the face of managerial resistance (Graham, 1996). Post-it Notes, waterproof

sandpaper and Thinsulate were the products of instinctive feeling rather than rigorous scientific analysis. In other words, emotional intelligence in the form of intuitive feelings based on knowledge of the criteria for success in the marketplace, led to the development of new products, the need for which other companies had not yet realised (Abraham, 1999).

The optimism component of emotional intelligence has been found to enhance performance. Farnham (1996) described a study of an optimistic insurance salesman who sold 37% more insurance than his pessimistic peers during their first year of employment. Even optimistic applicants who failed the company's standardised test outsold their peers by 21% in the first year and 57% in the second (Abraham, 1999).

The ability to use emotional knowledge has been observed to successful decision making. Farnham (1996) observed that intuitive decision making requires the recognition of patterns in information accumulated through years of experience. When a novel problem arises, the decision-maker draws upon his or her knowledge base of relationships to arrive at workable solutions. Studies of traders at the stock exchange and generals in the field, both of who belong to professions where split-second decision making is the norm, have found that they reject analytical problem solving in favour of a body of knowledge built through experience that provides successful solutions (Abraham, 1999). Farnham (1996) cited an example of a shoe store where employees improved their performance after the introduction of emotion-based marketing by visiting rival stores, listening to customer's comments, and empathising with the customer.

3.6 Emotional intelligence and Organisational commitment

According to Abraham (1999) the theoretical underpinnings of the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment vary depending upon the definition of organisational commitment. Commitment has traditionally been defined as the relative strength of an individual's

identification and the involvement in a particular organisation (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

Emotional intelligence incorporates the quality of emotional resilience or flexible optimism, which gives the individual the ability to cope with interpersonal conflict. Instead of engaging in the disruptive activity of faultfinding, emotionally intelligent employees are flexibly optimistic enough to put difficulties behind them and redirect their attention to conflict resolution. They espouse a durable sense that they will succeed, despite setbacks and frustration experienced, as a rising intensity of constrictive emotions are caught early and suppressed. Over time, the continuous substitution of positive emotion for negative energy improves satisfaction with the job and, in turn, commitment to the organisation. It follows that emotional intelligence prevents the individual from holding the organisation responsible for every frustration and conflict on the job and, thus, prevents the erosion of commitment that results from indiscriminate faultfinding (Abraham, 1999).

3.7 Emotional intelligence and Organisational Citizenship

Organisational citizenship consists of behaviours that go beyond specific role requirements, with the stipulation that such behaviours are performed voluntarily without expectation material or social rewards (Bief & Motowidlo, 1986; Walster & Piliavin, 1972). They include voluntary service, extra effort, mentoring new employees, intense self-development, or actions that involve the sacrifice of self-interest for the benefit of the organisation (Staw, 1984).

Emotional intelligence may enhance certain pro-social behaviours, one of which is assisting co-workers with personal matters. Being more sensitive to changes in the moods of co-workers, the emotionally intelligent employee may sense that other individuals are experiencing family problems, emotional upsets or censure for violation of organisational rules. Emotionally intelligent employees are likely to respond by listening sympathetically, by using their inherent optimism to change moods from negative to positive or by using their emotional knowledge of such situations to offer counsel. A similar response

sequence may occur if customers are the targets of organisational citizenship (Abraham, 1999). In studies of psychological antecedents of organisational citizenship, researchers have found that empathy, one of the key facets of emotional intelligence, permits individuals to see work-place events from the organisation's perspective. This permits them to internalise higher standards of justice and moral reasoning that would be beneficial to the organisation as a whole, rather than to just themselves. Consequently, they are more willing to accept the need for volunteerism and extra effort to promote the organisation's goals. Studies of mood have shown that positive moods, another characteristic of emotional intelligence, promote organisational citizenship (Abraham, 1999).

3.8 Emotional intelligence as a moderator of role conflict and its outcomes

Person-role conflict is the conflict between personal and organisational values. Two forms of person-role conflict, emotional dissonance and ethical conflict, may be moderated by emotional intelligence (Abraham, 1999). In service jobs, requiring face-to-face contact with the customer, employees are often rewarded for overt displays of emotion. For example, bill collectors are expected to be hostile, funeral home directors, sombre, and nurses, nurturing and caring. When organisationally mandated emotions conflict with personal feelings, emotional dissonance results. Job dissatisfaction, a decline in organisational commitment and, in turn, withdrawal intentions have been demonstrated to be immediate consequences of emotional dissonance (Morris & Feldman, 1996).

The ability of emotionally intelligent persons to empathise enables them to understand the organisation's rationale for mandating certain emotional displays however alien they are to the way they themselves are feeling, to the extent that they can conform to organisational requirements and thereby resolve emotional conflict. As time goes on, their increasing exposure to diverse sources of emotional conflict provides them with a repertoire of responses to future dissonance – inducing situations. This response

sequence is in accordance with empathy researchers who have found enhanced abilities to understand another one's position (Hogan, 1969), accurate identification of the emotions of others (Buck, 1984) and the ability to act on internal experience (Batson, O'Quin, Fultz, Vanderplas & Isen, 1983; Krebs, 1975).

As emotional intelligence includes the ability to regulate the reactions of others, emotionally intelligent employees are adept at creating favourable impressions. When faced with emotional dissonance, they are more likely to suppress their natural inclination to rebel in favour of conformity. In successive studies, emotional intelligence has been demonstrated through favourable impression management by orators who elicit desired responses in their audience (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), by leaders who use charisma to influence the actions of followers (Wasielewski, 1985), by job applicants who dress and conduct themselves appropriately (Jones, 1964) and by employees who suppress negative communications to others (Rosen, Johnson, Johnson, & Tesser, 1973).

Ethical conflict results from lack of fit between the employee's and the organisation's perceptions of ethically appropriate actions. Emotional intelligence may exert a moderating influence, although the direction of impact is uncertain. If the employee feels that he or she is being asked to participate in unethical actions or to overlook unethical actions on the part of others, the emotional-honesty dimension of emotional intelligence may lead that employee to challenge the organisation (Abraham, 1999). Emotional honesty prevents people from suppressing honest feelings to take the politically correct action and giving in to demands for unethical behaviour (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997).

3.9 Emotional intelligence and job control

Job control may moderate the impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction and organisational commitment in two ways. Emotional intelligence involves the ability to control and regulate the reactions of others,

including, but not limited to, job candidates who recognise the importance of favourable dress, promptness, ingratiation, suppression of negative communications to promote interpersonal relations and charisma to regulate emotions in followers by leaders (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). To the extent that employees must be able to exercise discretion in selecting from the different strategies to control the impressions they create of themselves, job control is prerequisite to successful impression management (Abraham, 1999). Salovey and Mayer (1990) identified mood-directed attention as a facet of emotional intelligence. Emotionally intelligent persons are capable of setting priorities for tasks and attending to those of higher priority. As they attend to their feelings, they permit themselves to be directed away from more trivial problems to those of greater importance. The freedom to set priorities and, if necessary, to redirect efforts to new goals, requires that employees have sufficient control over the job to establish priorities and allocate their time and efforts most appropriately. In the event that the organisation permits the individual to have such control, job satisfaction and commitment according to Abraham (1999) are enhanced.

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) upheld the value of emotional honesty. Emotional honesty rejects the repression of honest feelings for the sake of politically correct actions. Cooper and Sawaf (1997) also reviewed cases of highly emotionally intelligent firms in which the introduction of constructive discontent is viewed as an opportunity in that it provides the means to tap creative energies that are often suppressed to maintain harmony. They cited examples of the "debate culture" at Motorola and the favouring of dissent over consensus at Sun Microsystems. Control over the job is necessary for the promotion of open dialog. There is little merit in critically analysing solutions and improvements over current procedures if they cannot be implemented. Cooper and Sawaf (1997) represented this process in terms of the D (discontent) x D (direction) x M (movement) formula. Discontent about the current situation leads to a direction for change, which together with movement leads to the desired change. Movement is provided in part by job control, which grants the employee the freedom to take the steps needed to put change into action. Without movement, only wishful thinking results.

Open dialog with the discretion to implement the necessary changes should enhance organisational commitment (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997).

3.10 Discussion of EQ in the Workplace

According to the researcher an application of EQ in the workplace must have its origin in one of the company's strategic goals. EQ competencies of each job in the organisation should be identified which will result in the alteration of job-profiles/competency description. This will lead to the recruitment of people with EQ skills (form outside the organisation) and the development of latent EQ skills (form people within the organisation). Form thereon it must filter trough to organisation processes such as performance feedback. EQ can also play a vital role in the establishment of a employee assistance programmes. In short, for successful implementation it (EQ) must form part of the organisation's culture and climate.

3.10 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a framework of literature that exists on the topic of emotional intelligence in the workplace. First the benefit for having an emotionally intelligent organisation was presented. The literature study indicated that emotional intelligence can be implemented in the organisation through selection and recruitment and through development of emotional intelligence in groups and leaders within the organisation. Targeting the right competencies in both selection and training can do the latter. Lastly the relationship of emotional intelligence and various processes in the organisation was presented, namely emotional intelligence and performance feedback, performance, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship, role conflict and emotional intelligence and job control. In chapter 4 the training process regarding emotional intelligence programmes will be discussed in depth.

In this chapter the second specific research objective was met, namely to *conceptualise how emotional intelligence can be applied in the workplace according to the literature study undertaken by the researcher*

CHAPTER 4

DEVELOPMENT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE: A TRAINING PROGRAMME APPROACH

In this chapter the researcher will discuss an outline of the application of emotional intelligence training. Guidelines for the training of emotional intelligence as revealed by the literature study will be given. This will be done in four clearly distinctive sections: Needs Assessment, Training and Development of Emotional Intelligence, Guidelines for good practices of Emotional Intelligence Training and Evaluation of Emotional Intelligence programmes.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Training programmes (in this application: emotional intelligence training) in organisations provide a variety of benefits. For example, organisations gain through the improved performance and increased productivity that go together with employee development, while employees enjoy extrinsic and intrinsic rewards associated with skill development and performance improvement. However, there has been growing concern regarding the costs and effectiveness of training and organisational development programmes (Elangovan & Karakowsky, 1999).

Empathy, flexibility and self-confidence might not seem like skills that would help a company improve the bottom line, but many organisations are finding that these are the things that build and sustain competitive advantage (Laabs, 1999). Developing emotional intelligence competence requires learners to unlearn old habits of thought, feeling and action that are deeply ingrained and earn new ones. Training employees on the topic of emotional intelligence is not the same as training other areas of interpersonal skills (Laabs, 1999). Teaching someone to be emotionally competent can be a long process, taking weeks of time, hours and practice and lots of patience and coaching (Laabs, 1999).

So far, training that's specifically pegged as "emotional intelligence" hasn't emerged as a category, although aspects of soft-skills training, such as interpersonal communications, have been on the training agenda for years (Laabs, 1999). The literature study confirms this trend. The only authors that attended to emotional intelligence training per se is that of Orme & Cannon, (2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c) and Goleman (2001). Their findings, with supportive literature from the literature search will be revealed in this chapter.

Emotional intelligence programmes are the only programmes that produce behavioural changes at individual level (Hays, 1999). People must first be trained on emotional intelligence so that they can be more affective in relationships that benefit everyone –employer, employee and client (Hays, 1999).

Orme & Cannon (2000) provides a framework of getting started with emotional intelligence training, with the first step being conducting a needs assessment. According to Baruth & Robinson (1987) the needs assessment provides a technique to determine programme goals. Dedmond (1996) states that the right target group must be used to consult with, during the needs assessment phase. The *needs assessment* phase bridges the gap between theory and the actualisation of the specific programme (Montross & Shinkman, 1981). Needs assessment instruments, like a questionnaire or interviews, can be used and will vary among certain groups (Cox & Morgan, 1985).

4.2 NEEDS ASSESSMENT

The first step in the needs assessment is to consider whether or not the reason for implementing training for emotional intelligence is appropriate or not.

4.2.1 Inappropriate reasons for implementing emotional intelligence development programmes

Someone, for instance, thinks that an EQ intervention will help solve a performance problem or there is a reluctance to face and/or solve a systemic problem for example a long hours culture. It could also be that someone has set very ambitious and unrealistic objectives for a quick fix, namely an EQ intervention. It might be that the HR practitioner or someone in the organisation thinks that EQ is trendy and that human resources want to get on the bandwagon without a clear intention. It must be very clear about why the organisation is doing this work and what is realistically achievable (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

4.2.2 Low readiness for engagement in the development of EQ

The department or person undertaking the responsibility of emotional intelligence training, must consider if he / she have what it takes (Wills, 1994). Risks for implementing emotional intelligence interventions have to be taken into consideration. As will be mentioned later there are numerous factors that have to be taken into consideration for emotional intelligence training to be successful. The choice of the trainer for an EQ intervention is one of the most crucial decisions in EQ training (Orme & Cannon, 2000; Rowe, 1996).

4.2.3 Impatience of the training practitioner and the organisation

Emotional intelligence is about behaviour change. It takes a while to see results and in some cases, the results will never be observable. However, if the organisation undertakes an EQ intervention, it should be prepared to sustain the initiative long enough to achieve the desired results. This is not a short-term fix. The time scales for change must be set as long as possible and as short as is necessary (but achievable) for the business (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

4.2.3.1 Inadequate resources

Not having adequate resources is related to impatience as discussed in 4.2.3. If the organisation is serious about this intervention, it should be adequately funded. That doesn't mean, however, that a significant budget must be wrestled away from other company programmes, although costs for setting up emotional intelligence programmes aren't cheap (Hays, 1999). Financial support for the programme could come from several department budgets, the participants themselves and sponsorship from external organisations. It must be clear up front about the level of resource (financial, time, facilities, people, and materials) that will be necessary for a successful intervention. If adequate resources are not available it must be considered to wait until a better time (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

4.2.3.2 Insufficient respect for the topic of emotional intelligence

It needs to be recognised that emotional intelligence is about human behaviour and this type of intervention has the potential to do harm, when in the wrong hands. Maintaining appropriate respect for the topic will help determine such things as how the participants are selected, who will deliver the programme and how confidentiality will be respected (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

4.3 Warning signals in the phase of needs assessment

Orme & Cannon (2000) share the perspective that bringing emotional intelligence into an organisation is an intervention. Any organisation that is considering integrating emotional intelligence into its business has one or more problems or opportunities, which it perceives, will be positively influenced by emotional intelligence development. Because this work is new and novel, the believe is that you only get one shot at getting it right. Getting it right requires a disciplined *needs assessment* process, which uncovers the critical issues and rallies the necessary support.

Even a relatively small intervention, for example an EQ training programme for leaders, has the potential to shift the priorities in the organisation and influence the culture. Any intervention should be carefully considered and thoughtfully approached. Much of the information required by the *needs analysis* can be gathered by interviews and a review of existing internal documents. The *needs assessment* process is an opportunity to begin to influence the organisation toward acceptance of the programme and to secure the necessary people and material resources to support it (Orme & Cannon, 2000, Wills, 1994).

4.4 Five keys to the needs assessment phase

The five keys to needs assessment are:

- a. Situation Analysis
- b. Vision
- c. Readiness of Key advocates
- d. Measures of Success
- e. Potential EQ Interventions (Orme & Cannon, 2000)

This outline will form the outline of the discussion that will follow below.

4.4.1 Situation Analysis

In the experience of Orme & Cannon (2000), many organisations are now waking up to the fact that emotions are part of the value proposition in any product or service, whether meeting the needs of internal- or external customers. Market research is demonstrating over and over that purchase decisions are largely based on emotions, not product or service features. For example, in the financial services industry "peace of mind" or comfort, is a large part of the emotional equation. The emotional factors in having your car repaired by a local garage might include trust in the integrity of the shop owner and confidence in the technical skills of the mechanic.

Orme & Cannon (2000) believe that addressing emotional intelligence can increase the value of the product or the service that the organisation provides.

It is important to explicitly identify this opportunity before undertaking an EQ intervention. For example, the intervention could increase the attraction of the product or service to new clients, make the organisation itself more attractive to highly qualified employees, increase the likelihood of a lifetime relationship with customers, etc.

As was mentioned earlier, there is a specific reason why an organisation is even contemplating an EQ intervention. It is important to identify that reason so that the intervention selected, has the highest potential to actually deliver the sought results. If an organisation decides to train its sales people in EQ, for example, but the sales managers are autocratic and punitive, the training will not produce desired results and could, in fact, backfire. With the additional self-awareness that results from EQ training, many of the sales people trained will recognise the problems with their leadership and may choose to leave the company (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

It is clear that many organisational initiatives have not worked in the past. Efforts to improve the quality of manufactured products, for example, may fail if the real problem is the insufficient motivation of the workers. Orme & Cannon (2000) strongly feel that the organisation needs to be clear about its purpose for emotional intelligence and its commitment to the outcomes and when the outcomes have been established, a decision must be made about whether an EQ intervention is the best approach for delivering those outcomes. For example, EQ training is not a substitute for good hiring practices. If people are not being productive it could be due to EQ reasons, for example poor emotional management, but it could just as likely be due to other factors, for example inadequate technological training to do the job. Emotional intelligence interventions have the potential to deliver significant results, but should only be used when the needs of the organisation are a match for what EQ has to offer.

The question that needs to be answered is, *What is happening right now that is making emotional intelligence training a priority?* Orme & Geetu (2000) states a recent critical incident. In one team a new Senior Manager had just

been recruited from outside the sector and there was tension between the new manager and his team. The EQ intervention was considered at a point when the team was finding it difficult to work with the manager. There was a conflict between the 'old thinking' of the existing team and the positive intentions of the dynamic, forward-thinking leader. The organisation thought that EQ training would give all the members of this newly formed leadership team the insights and the skills to identify and address the emotional barriers, which were preventing them from moving forward.

The stakeholders need to be considered. An emotional intelligence intervention can have an impact much wider and much deeper than may be first realised. For example the authors (Orme & Cannon, 2000) worked to integrate EQ into a performance management system at a non-profit agency. The stakeholder analysis revealed that the community partners of the agency were likely to feel a significant impact of that intervention, because of the improved relationships they expected to have with agency personnel. Knowing that going into the intervention allowed the project team to incorporate the community partners' perspectives and needs.

The individuals and groups have a stake in the success of the programme. The needs assessment needs to reveal what they care about. It's important to conduct a classic stakeholder analysis before making decisions about an EQ intervention. In the same way that this analysis helps a project team be clear about whose needs the project is serving and why, this analysis will help to uncover sources of support and potential sources of conflict for the EQ programme. Once discovered, the practitioner can work with these supporting and restraining factors to help assure success. Sometimes it is the most important stakeholders that can be overlooked unless we adopt a systematic approach (Orme & Cannon, 2000, Wills, 1994).

The alignment other initiatives, priorities and systems have to be assessed. One way to increase the amount of support to the EQ programme is to tie it to existing organisational priorities (Duguay & Korbut, 2002). The simplest and most effective are to identify the link between an existing competency

framework and the emotional competencies. For example, at one company the competency model for sales people detailed several competencies that was, in fact, emotional competencies. Information that was later circulated about the programme highlighted this connection and enabled personnel to attend the training since it was viewed as relevant to their jobs and not an "extra." Potential areas for alignment of organisation systems and emotional intelligence interventions are: selection, strategic planning, talent identification, compensation & benefits market research, reward system, product development, sales, public relations, project management and internal communications (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

The stakeholder analysis should uncover the potential barriers to successful implementation. They might be very specific, like as an individual who doesn't believe in emotional intelligence, or much less tangible, for example a culture that focuses on the results themselves, but doesn't care how those results are achieved. It's important to engage as many stakeholders as possible in identifying these potential barriers and in developing strategies to overcome them. Examples of potential barriers can be:

- resource and time limitations
- lack of ownership of the training programme by management
- lack of training evaluation skills
- training course aims and objectives not adequately define
- lack of top management commitment to a continuous training programme
- lack of honesty by employees in the area of training needs analysis
- employees who are too busy doing the job to worry about training (Tennant, Boonkrong, & Roberts, 2002).

4.4.2 Vision Statement for EQ

Creating a vision statement for emotional intelligence in the organisation can be useful, both in the process and for the results it achieves. A vision statement, by definition, should describe the emotional impact of the topic. In

this case, the vision needs to articulate the state of feelings in individuals and the organisation when the EQ implementation has been successfully accomplished (Wills, 1994). For some people, it is the vision, which motivates them to initiate and sustain a project - they find the vision more compelling than objectives and outcomes (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

The desired outcomes of the emotional intelligence intervention must also be addressed. The specific and measurable changes that are expected as a result of the EQ intervention must be considered. After these are clearly delineated, it will be possible to create the end-state vision for the EQ intervention. The following questions need to be answered:

- *What will it look like if this is implemented well?* A vision statement can be motivating and secure buy in from people across the organisation. The best vision statements are very vivid and they provide a compelling reason to carry out the programme. The key question is "What do we expect to be different as a result of the EQ intervention?" and it should be described very clearly. The answer to this vision question should follow naturally from the situation analysis. Specific, tangible expectations are more realistic and attainable than broad, culture changing, and company wide impacts. While it is attractive to state the vision in such sweeping terms, the vision will serve its purpose better if it is stated at a more tangible way. In identifying the vision for an EQ intervention with information systems personnel, the organisation stated that it expected the most talented technology employees to be hired as leaders in the non-technology parts of the organisation. They saw the emotional intelligence training as a way to open new career paths to their high IQ, technically competent staff (Orme & Cannon, 2000).
- *How can EQ support organisational strategic direction?* The Emotional Intelligence Consortium has published a list of guidelines to provide direction for those interested in developing and implementing high

quality EQ programmes. The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organisations was founded in 1996 in conjunction with Goleman and the Graduate School of Applied and Professional Psychology at Rutgers University in Piscataway, New Jersey. The mission of the Consortium, whose members are from such organisations as American Express Financial Advisors, Johnson & Johnson and Egon Zehnder International, is to aid the advancement of research and practice related to emotional intelligence in organisations. Its mandate is to study all that is known about EQ in the workplace, including identifying ways in which EQ may traditionally have been taught as soft skills, but can now be identified under other rubrics, such as management and executive development, stress management and diversity courses (Laabs, 1999). One of their recommendations is that the EQ intervention be tied to a business need.

4.4.3 Readiness of key advocates

The advocates for the emotional intelligence programme include the individual, considering bringing emotional intelligence interventions into the organisation and other individuals identified during the stakeholder analysis. While it is helpful to have internal support from key stakeholders, it is still important to weigh their personal value to the programme and leverage that contribution wisely. The senior HR executive, for example, may appear to be a logical advocate. However, the organisation may view this individual as someone who's always advocating for "soft" programmes or controversial initiatives. If this is the case, then the support of that individual should be channelled behind the scenes, for example in helping to identify funds in the HR budget. Sometimes the initial focus of an EQ intervention has been about developing the emotional intelligence of the key advocates before widening it to other people within the organisation (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

In the experience of Orme & Cannon (2000), organisations put the emotional intelligence of all individuals associated with it under the spotlight. Perhaps more than any other developmental programme, the EQ of those associated with it must be beyond reproach. That doesn't mean distributing the EQ test scores of all individuals involved, however. It merely means that attention should be given to whether or not those individuals have the required skills to do this work.

Until emotional intelligence finds its way into the mainstream, it is likely to be controversial in some organisations. Advocates for the programme may be challenged in ways they have never been before and will be able to sustain the energy and drive required if they are clear about their own purpose in doing this work.

4.4.4 Measures of success for an EQ training programme

The ultimate success of the EQ intervention will probably be based on whether the programme "delivers the goods." Identifying what the criteria for success are should be done during the needs assessment and not wait until the programme is completed. Orme & Cannon (2000) have found that the more rigorous the data collection and analysis, the more likely is it that the programme will be funded, implemented and ultimately extended throughout the organisation. The following questions need to be answered:

- *What are the key indicators that would demonstrate that the programme is effective?* The place to start in identifying the appropriate measures of success, is to look at what else the organisation measures. Many companies keep a "score card" that specifies the primary business measures it tracks to know how well it is doing. These measures may be enough to use as the basis for EQ programme evaluation. At one financial company the key measures for sales personnel were client satisfaction, client retention and sales. Leadership interventions might examine employee satisfaction,

retention, productivity, morale, etc. as indicators of leadership EQ. In team programmes, measures of a team could include the length and perceived 'difficulty' of meetings and the levels of personal stress within the team as perceived by self and others.

- *How can they be observed, measured, counted?* Organisations around the world are experimenting with ways to assess the effectiveness of emotional intelligence interventions. Largely, the same techniques used to evaluate training programmes are appropriate for EQ interventions. They include measuring business results before and after training. Several good EQ assessment instruments are on the market and can be used to identify the improvement in individual and group emotional intelligence, after the EQ intervention has been completed. Those same instruments are being used to create an EQ profile of successful performers and that profile is used to assess results (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

4.4.5 Potential emotional intelligence interventions

An EQ intervention is a targeted combination of assessment, training, coaching, and research. Each of these is outlined below and should be considered during the needs assessment phase of emotional intelligence.

Table 1: Potential emotional intelligence interventions(Orme & Cannon, 2000):

	<i>Questions to ask:</i>
<i>EQ Assessment</i>	<p>There are now a number of different assessment instruments for measuring emotional intelligence.</p> <p>The questions to ask include:</p> <p>a) Is the measure individual or organisational emotional intelligence?</p> <p>b) What does this instrument measure, specifically? Does it, for instance, measure perception, gaps</p>

	<p>in perception or facts?</p> <p>c) How will assessment data be used in this intervention? Will it be fed back to individuals or as a whole group?</p>
<i>EQ Training</i>	<p>Most EQ interventions will involve some degree of training – (this aspect of the intervention will be covered in detail in the rest of this chapter as well as in chapter 5).</p> <p>Some preliminary questions to ask at the needs assessment stage are:</p> <p>a) What does the target group already know about emotional intelligence?</p> <p>b) How motivated are they to attend training?</p> <p>c) What time period and structure of the training intervention is going to be realistic?</p>
<i>EQ Coaching</i>	<p>At times the most appropriate intervention is one-to-one coaching, especially for senior executives. One to one coaching should be considered where classroom training is impractical and when individuals need to correct low emotional intelligence in order to avoid career derailing.</p> <p>Key questions to ask here are:</p> <p>a) What are the capabilities of the EQ coach?</p> <p>b) What is the process to be used to stay on track with EQ development?</p>
<i>EQ Research</i>	<p>Under the of EQ research, the authors refer to the interventions that provide long term improvement to the organisation's emotional value:</p> <p>a) Developing an EQ profile of successful performance in a particular role. The question to ask is 'Do we know what makes for success in this particular role, or part of the business?'</p> <p>b) Identifying the specific emotions that a customer or colleague experiences in the 'customer' transaction through, for instance, Resonance Technology. The questions to ask are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ 'What are the emotions that customers experience? ▪ Are they the ones that we thought? ▪ What are the gaps?

(Orme & Cannon, 2000).

In the discussion above, Orme & Cannon (2000), have provided checklists and resources to help with the start of an EQ programme and to conduct a needs assessment. A recurring theme throughout has been that of when you are breaking new ground, the questions that come up, can be unpredictable. Work in emotional intelligence requires practitioners, to be operating with high levels of skill and professionalism at all times (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

4.5 Training and development of emotional intelligence

The design of the emotional intelligence programme lays the foundation for a successful training intervention. There are many organisational development interventions that target the improvement of skills and capabilities. The focus here is specifically on the development of emotional intelligence, which is a distinct set of capabilities as set out in chapter 2 and 3 in the literature study.

4.5.1 Best Practices for training EQ

The Consortium for research on Emotional Intelligence in Organisations is a panel of EQ experts and academics, whose mission is to identify and disseminate standards for EQ programmes. Members of the consortium studied the best practices of selected programmes and created technical guidelines for the development of emotional intelligence programmes. The guidelines are a rich source of information for practitioners and a recommended first step in designing an emotional intelligence programme.

The guidelines cover four areas: preparation, training, transfer and maintenance and evaluation. They emphasise the importance of gaining real commitment from those involved before, during and after the training, so those long-lasting changes can occur. The guidelines highlight the need to design the training in line with the principles of adult learning. They also emphasise the role of the trainer and the need to create a supportive learning environment (Goleman, 1998a).

- ***Phase 1: Preparation phase***

This phase consists of assessing personal strengths and limits, providing feedback with care, maximising learner choice, encouraging participation, linking learning goals to personal values, adjusting expectations, and gauging readiness (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998). Before training can begin, students must be motivated to commit to a change that will take concentrated effort over a period of time. Social and emotional learning is likely to be challenging to university students, because they have already formed perceptions of themselves and how they relate to others (Tucker, Sojka, Barone & McCarthy, 2000). Additionally, people are generally less aware of their social and emotional weaknesses than their technical deficiencies. To generate self-evaluation, students can rate their perceptions of their abilities to apply emotional intelligence, examine their responses by looking for strengths and areas of improvement and make a conscious effort to enhance their self-awareness and their social skills (Weisinger, 1998). Periodically, students can re-evaluate and reflect on their professional enhancement journey as they set new goals to work on for continuous improvement. Emotional intelligence instruments that can be used for this purpose will be discussed during the discussion on evaluation of emotional intelligence training programmes later on in this chapter.

When students perceive their self-assessment as a confidential development tool and the instructor's motivation as an interest in helping them succeed, the motivational- and emotional impact of the feedback is more positive. Because individuals are usually more motivated to change when given a choice to elect whether or not to participate in the training, instructors should consider offering this choice. Yet, an introduction of EQ that emphasises its importance to career success typically entices students to "buy in" (Tucker, et al. 2000). Further more, because EQ is thought of as "soft skills", students will commit more strongly in the development activities when the instructor demonstrates a strong commitment. To capitalise on self-fulfilling prophecies, students need to be assured that greater emotional competence will lead to valued outcomes and that emotional competence can be improved.

Instructors should provide additional individual attention to students with low self-efficacy, because generally they will opt out of the training if given the choice, yet they are the ones who would benefit most (Rubin, Rubin & Jordan, 1997).

According to behavioural change researchers (Prochaska, Norcross, & DiClemente, 1994), individuals move through stages of readiness for change. Cherniss & Goleman (1998) presented four stages of readiness, which are adapted here for university students:

Stage 1: Students deny that they have a need for change.

Stage 2: Students see the need to improve but are not sure that anything can be done or they delay action.

Stage 3: Students recognise the problem and understand that there are alternative ways of dealing with it, but have not worked out a plan.

Stage 4: Students have a plan and put it into action.

Using these stages, trainers can structure the EQ pedagogy to facilitate students' progression to *Stage 4* and increase students' commitment to the training. The use of an assessment tool will help move students from *Stage 1* to *Stage 2*. Then by providing theoretical background and motivation as well as incorporating experiential exercises into their courses, students can be moved into *stages 3 and 4* (Tucker et al. 2000; Williams, 1999).

- ***Phase 2 : Training***

In preparation for EQ training, trainers should gather individual students assessments, gauge each student's readiness stage, and provide an appropriate intervention. Cherniss and Goleman (2001) cautioned that in social and emotional learning, motivation continues to be an important issue during the training phase. Training consists of fostering a positive relationship between the trainer and learner, maximising self-directed change, setting clear goals, breaking goals into manageable steps, maximising opportunities to practise (Vermeulen, 2002; Williams, 1999, Boak, 1995), providing frequent

feedback in practice, using experiential methods, building in support, using models, enhancing insight and preventing relapse (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998). A positive relationship between the instructor and the learner is crucial if students are to succeed (Weisinger, 1998). The training phase will be discussed in more depth in the next section. This training phase provides participants with the knowledge of emotional change that will become a continuous self-learning process and, if applied, will transfer from the training experience to all aspects of their lives.

- ***Phase 3 : Transfer and maintenance***

Participants' success in the transfer and maintenance of social and emotional skills is largely contingent on the support given by the external environment they go back to (Donovan, Hannigan & Crowe, 2001). A supportive environment will encourage the continued use of effective social and emotional skills and provide a culture that supports further growth and development (Switzer & Kleiner, 1996; Elangovan & Karakowsky, 1999). Research confirms that transfer and maintenance of specific skills are directly correlated with the degree to which the organisation values learning and development in general (Williams, 1999; Senge, 1990; Tracey, Tannenbaum & Kavanagh, 1995) and highlights the significance of a supportive environment over time for the development of social and emotional competencies (Hand, Richards, & Slocum, 1973).

- ***Phase 4 : Evaluating Change***

Transfer and maintenance can also be supported by a follow-up assessment of skills during training. Evaluation can even take place at the end of each year to monitor change. This provides for continuous improvement. Rigorous evaluations can monitor social and emotional competence when linked to learning and the continual pursuit of quality (Morrow, Jarrett, & Rupinski, 1997), so that the programme will become more effective over time.

4.5.2 The parameters of emotional intelligence training

EQ training should comprise of at least three basic elements: Theory, practice and application. This means providing the background on what EQ is and why it's important in the workplace. Skills people can use to become more emotionally intelligent must also be applied. Lastly, tools must be provided to deal with participant's own situations and needs (Laabs, 1999).

An overall programme would start with theoretical introduction and self-assessment. Next experiential exercises and opportunities to practice newly learned skills should be provided (Boak, 1995). Lastly assessment should take place to gauge participants' progress (Tucker et al. 2000). Hays (1999) reports the outline of an emotional intelligence programme for financial advisors as a six-day programme. The six-day programme starts with how to recognise and talk about emotions and how emotions affect people, especially in the workplace. Scattered throughout the rest of the programme are courses on relationships and communication skills and how to balance work and family life.

Step one of the design process involves securing agreement on the boundaries within which the programme will be designed. These parameters determine the breadth and depth of the curriculum you ultimately create. The following factors must be considered at this stage (Orme & Cannon, 2001a):

- ***Who are the participants?***

The course designer needs to be clear about the intended audience of the EQ programme and the organisation's aims for the participants' development. The designer has to take into consideration if the participants are part of a team or work group, or are likely to be unfamiliar with one another. Their motivation to attend the programme and their current level of emotional intelligence must be established as far as possible (Orme & Cannon, 2001a; Rowe, 1996).

Emotional intelligence programmes should be developmental and not “remedial”. Where an individual and/or other team has a significant performance problem, other interventions may be appropriate, for example the use of coaching or conflict-resolution techniques. Ideally, all the participants will be attending on a voluntary basis (Elangovan & Karakowsky, 1999; Switzer & Kleiner, 1996; Boak, 1995). If this is not the case and they are part of a team whose members are all required to participate, for example, then you can increase their involvement by designing activities to take place early on in the programme that help identify the personal benefits they can realise by going through the training (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

- ***What are the learning objectives and outcomes and how will they be measured?***

It is essential to get agreement with the decision-maker on the expectations for the programme before commencing the design process (Boak, 1995). The expectations should address both what the training needs to do in other words its objective and the results or outcomes that the training is expected to produce. One question helpful in clarifying the programme’s outcome is: *“What do you expect to be different as a result of this training?”*

The outcomes may be expressed on two levels, that of the individual participant and that of the organisation as a whole (Elangovan & Karakowsky, 1999). Included in this discussion will be the parameters of the programme itself. For example, the number of days absorbed by training, the use of emotional intelligence instruments and whether or not there will be pre-course work an/or follow-up. Hays (1999) notes that most emotional intelligence programmes have zero follow-up. It may be necessary to help the client differentiate their absolute requirements (needs) from other desired outcomes (wants).

One of the most critical factors in the success of an emotional intelligence programme matches objectives and outcomes. Orme & Cannon (2001a) notes that many clients expect to see significant behavioural changes after only a brief programme, although this is not a realistic expectation.

As a rule of thumb, a one-day programme can be expected to deliver an awareness of emotional intelligence and the motivation to learn more. In a three-day programme, learners can begin to develop and practise skills that can be used on an everyday basis. For a more transformational experience, a longer programme (for example, five days) is required, which should be accompanied by a personal EQ assessment and one-to-one coaching (Orme & Cannon, 2001a). According to Laabs (1999) training sessions on emotional intelligence can range from a few hours to one-day sessions, and up to five days, spread out over several weeks (Laabs, 1999).

In suggesting a longer programme, Orme & Cannon (2001a) found that “distributed practise” is better than massed practise. In other words, if you implement a three day programme, it will be much more effective if it is divided into three one-day sessions, with each session separated by one or two weeks. Even though this may increase the cost of the training, ultimately it may mean the difference between a training programme that works and one that does not (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

- ***Who is the decision-maker and who will approve the design?***

The decision-maker’s needs and wants must be addressed by the design. It is also important to identify the decision points along the way to the approval of the final design. The amount of information that is required by the decision-maker to give the final ahead is a further area to consider. In this regard, Orme & Cannon (2001a) found that less is more. Since few decision-makers will have had previous experience with emotional intelligence curricula and content, Orme & Cannon (2001a) suggests that design templates are simple, yet complete.

- ***How soon does it have to be delivered?***

The time scales that the trainer is following need to be clarified. This information will then help to establish the time that is available for design, preparation and pre-course work. It should be considered if there is time to assess and influence the expectations of participants directly. Orme & Cannon (2001a) found that the quality of training is enhanced when there is an opportunity to connect in advance with some or all of the participants to clarify expectations and address their questions and concerns. Even in situations where it has not been possible to do this directly, a short letter explaining what will be happening can shape expectations and allay any fears (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

- ***What is the implication of the organisation's culture?***

The organisation's culture affects the use of experiential learning, self-disclosure, expressive media (such as art and music) and other techniques (Elangovan & Karakowsky, 1999, Switzer & Kleiner, 1996). While this information is important to know, it does not need to limit the methods used. The trainer must just be sensitive when using approaches that are unfamiliar or threatening to the participants. Orme & Cannon (2001a) found that giving an explanation to learners of why certain approaches are used, their anxiety reduces and participation increases

- ***Who will be presenting the training?***

It is crucial for the success of the intervention that the decision about the trainers is made carefully. In reality, few people are proficient in both programme design and programme delivery. Good trainers are not only well prepared, they also know their materials, can deliver the programme in "flow", and act as role models of good emotional management and connection (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

- ***What is the budget?***

When teams and organisations are new to emotional intelligence, it is useful to approach the first programme as a pilot programme. This provides the

opportunity to test and revise the programme to assure long-term success. A successful first experience with one group will often lead to a larger implementation with adequate funding. The budget must cover all phases of the intervention – preparation, training, transfer, maintenance and evaluation (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

- ***Which emotional intelligence model will serve as the organisation framework?***

All emotional intelligence programmes will include didactic information on what emotional intelligence is and which competencies are included in its scope. The trainer is likely to want to choose an EQ model for the organisation that can serve as the basis for future EQ programmes. In some cases, the decision about an EQ model will be influenced by the choice of EQ assessment instrument. For example, if the trainer uses the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory), Bar-One's model of EQ and the 15 competencies should be used (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

- ***What access to external resources does the course designer have?***

This is where the actual content of the emotional intelligence-training-programme is developed. The sources of information that can help the designer shape the contents are:

- a) *Content experts:* Seek out the experts in the areas that must be taught. For example if the model of emotional intelligence includes assertiveness, the experts on assertiveness should be sought out. As an alternative, there are a number of emotional intelligence practitioners with deep content expertise and background experience who may be helpful (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).
- b) *Certification in the use of EQ assessment instruments:* There are a number of accreditation programmes available that certify practitioners to use a variety of instruments including the EQ-i, the ECI, the EIQ, the EQ map, and the EI-360. While the content of these training programmes focus on the use of a particular assessment instrument,

all of them also provide general background in the field of emotional intelligence.

- c) *Attending EQ conferences:* There are now three major world conferences on emotional intelligence two offered by Linkage Incorporated (one in Europe and one in the USA) and one organised by Six Seconds (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

4.5.3 Design principles of emotional intelligence training

At this point in the design process, the broad shape should have been established of what must be achieved and with whom, the allocated budget, an internal or external “customer” who has approved the outline of the training, as well as a delivery strategy. The following questions to create and improve initial design can be used, as suggested by Orme & Cannon (2001a):

- ***Are sound adult learning principles followed?***

Adult learners use a variety of learning styles, and an effective design will address each, the auditory, visual and kinaesthetic. A good training programme on this topic should have all the elements of a good adult-learning programme, such as appealing to different learning styles. A typical programme might incorporate visual, sensory, auditory and interactive elements, like role-play and group discussion (Laabs, 1999). The unique learning requirements of adults at different developmental stage should also be considered. For example, a younger, Generation X training group may have different learning preferences than a middle-aged population (McQuater, Scurr, Dale & Hillman, 1995).

- ***Is the programme design learner-centred?***

According to the researcher learner-centred strategies are the most valuable and efficient way to learn. Using this approach requires that the designed programme addresses the values, interests and needs of the learners. It should reflect what was learned during the needs assessment about unique

requirements of the group. It should also be considered how the programme design can be aligned with the organisation's mission, strategy, values and competency frameworks (Orme & Cannon, 2001, Tennant et al. 2002; Duguay & Korbut, 2002). Rowe (1996) states that there can be a tension here: many organisations remain confused over whether they are in the business training of development and, if one is in the latter, one must be prepared for company strategy to be questioned.

- ***Are accelerated learning techniques optimised?***

The EI Consortium's best practise guidelines emphasise that there is a significant difference between cognitive- and emotional learning. Long-term behavioural change requires approaches that are different from conventional training. Accelerated learning is a multi-sensory learning system that connects the thinking brain to the emotional brain to increase motivation and the ability to learn (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

Emotional learning benefits from a learning experience that triggers emotions. The more feelings and sensory experiences are incorporated, the more likely it is that learning will be permanent. Learning approaches and activities that appeal to all eight of Gardner's intelligences must be included, namely visual/spatial, linguistic, interpersonal, musical, kinaesthetic, intrapersonal, logical and naturalist (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

O'Brien (1996) states that the following techniques can be used to enhance emotional intelligence:

- 1) *Raising Consciousness*: Noticing what you are feelings and thinking and escaping the conditioned confines of the past. Consciousness can be raised by catching yourself in the act of thinking, as often as possible, about certain feelings and behaviours.
- 2) *Framing and re-framing events to choose the most creative response to them*: Every time something important happens, as many interpretations as possible should be assigned, even unimportant ones. Interpretations most supportive of dreams for self-actualisation have to be chosen.

3) *Using imagery*: Run the course of action in your mind first to improve performance. Time to practise this skill can be set aside each day as a means of practise (Vermeulen, 2002).

• ***Does the learning environment support emotional learning?***

As much attention should be paid to the learning environment as to the curriculum itself. Elangovan & Karakowsky (1999) note that environmental characteristics that influence training have received less research attention than it should have. An optimal learning environment creates an ideal physiology for learning in the learner (McQuarter et al. 1995), stress hormones are reduced and alertness increases (Orme & Cannon, 2001a; Tucker et al. 2000).

Aspects of the learning environment that support emotional learning are:

- Group size (Emotional intelligence works best in small groups, usually 15 – 25 people is optimal. As with other training that only needs cerebral or intellectual involvement, EQ training thrives in group interaction that can only come with a smaller group (Laabs, 1999)).
- Physical and emotional safety
- Confidentiality
- Practise
- Fun/humour
- Reflection (In EQ training it's often good to give learners time during the training for a fair amount of personal time. Often this kind of training is new to them, so it's important for them to have moments (not only when they learn), but when they're able to reflect on what they've learning and what the impact is on them (Laabs, 1999)).
- Open-seating arrangement
- Food for energy and brain function
- Visual reinforcement
- Appropriate pace
- Interaction
- Sensory stimulation

- Physical space
 - Relationship
 - Music (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).
- ***Are training media selected that suit the participants and will deliver outcomes?***

A wide choice is available. The challenge is to have a variety of media (to appeal to all senses) without overdoing it. The choices include use of flipcharts, pinboards, videos, web-based programmes, CD-ROMs, posters, electronic presentations and self-directed study (Stansfield, 1997; Trasler, 2002; McQuarter, et al. 1995). A variety of media keeps the pace moving. This is truer of EQ development than other training. Since emotional learning creates behavioural change, boredom, and other negative emotions must be avoided. Orme & Cannon (2001a) found that the time spent in creating high-quality personal workbooks and participant materials that appeal to different learning styles, fully repays the investment.

4.5.4 Challenges of emotional intelligence training

As indicated at the beginning of the chapter, EQ training is a new evolving field with some challenges the organisation/training & development department should take notice of:

4.5.4.1 Inadequate content and design expertise

There is no substitute for adequate content expertise and no shortcut to acquire it. Orme & Cannon (2001a) are not aware of any single source of emotional intelligence content that can be used to create a development programme in the way that Peter Senge's, *The Fifth Discipline*, is considered the source document in the area of learning organisations. Because EQ work is relatively new and somewhat controversial, Orme & Cannon (2001) believe that the content must be "beyond reproach", that is, it must be of a higher standard than any other training programme. One reason behind this statement (according to the researcher) may be that ones a training programme's credibility is in question, the chances of gaining commitment from the learners and achieve training outcomes are in jeopardy.

A high standard is also required because the topic is emotional intelligence. Training in this field falls into the realm of behavioural science (as indicated in chapter 1), which requires that the designers and deliverers be academically trained in this area. While someone without this background could certainly follow a trainers manual, that does not guarantee they could adequately respond to the participants' questions. Frequently, questions are asked, which require basic psychological preparation, for example, does someone who is emotionally intelligent has the same qualities that Abraham Maslow would describe as "self-actualised"? If the designer does not have this background he/she must find an internal or external source that does. Having a psychology or counselling background helps ensure that the design of the training interventions stays within appropriate boundaries for an organisation-based training programme.

The challenge for practitioners is to try to minimise the likelihood that the training will slip into a "therapeutic" approach. One of the ways to do this is to set clear expectations at the outset of the training about what will be covered in the programme and how individual issues will be handled. The trainer can prepare for such personal issues by identifying in advance what resources (for example an employee assistance programme) the company provides to employees who have emotional problems or concerns (Orme & Cannon, 2001a). Designers need technical design skills that address both people and process issues. Having a technical background in the dynamics of group processes and interpersonal communication, are the fundamentals to design for this type of learning. As it relates to process design, sophisticated curriculum design skills are necessary in order to choose appropriate learning methods to meet the learning objectives. For example, while more and more corporate training is delivered in a distance-learning format, this method does not necessarily lend itself to behavioural learning (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

Duguay & Korbut (2002) reports the following design steps:

- Gain initial support for the programme
- Determine programme objectives
- Brainstorm training module topics
- Identify coaches

- Finalise and gain approval for the programme
- Provide document controls for the programme

4.5.4.2 The “grab-bag” approach of developing EQ

There are emotional intelligence programmes on the market that are merely a repackaging of existing materials in such areas as communication skills and conflict resolution. All materials in an emotional intelligence programme does not need to be original though and does not need to be created exclusively for this purpose. However, the learning outcomes must drive the design and that may require creating new material. Related to repackaging of content is the “rehash” strategy. Some emotional intelligence programmes contain no more than the teaching of the content of one or more books on emotional intelligence. While that information can increase participants’ awareness of emotional intelligence, it will not create behavioural change. Furthermore, it cheats the learners of the opportunity for deeper development (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

4.5.4.3 Inadequate time to create an effective design

In the experience of Orme & Cannon (2001a), the design process is highly interactive. It requires several design and redesign cycles before the client and designer are satisfied that the design will deliver the intended learning outcomes for the particular audience. Since there are no existing emotional intelligence templates for sale in the marketplace (as is the case with programmes for teambuilding), Orme & Cannon (2001a) suggest that the process of creating and designing a programme can take several weeks to even several months time (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

4.5.4.4 Assuming that “one size fits all”

No single design is effective for emotional intelligence that meets the requirements of individuals and groups. A rigorous needs assessment will reveal whether or not a particular design will meet the unique needs of a group (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

4.5.4.5 The emotional intelligence of the trainer

Emotional intelligence work requires a high degree of “transparency”, that is, being clear in your commitment and congruent with your message. To a certain extent, “ the medium is the message” in that learners look for authenticity and emotional intelligence in the facilitator (Orme & Cannon, 2001a). Opportunities for appropriate self-disclosure and other modelling behaviours should be built into the design. Research into accelerated learning suggests that learning is enhanced when the trainer uses eye contact, voice tone and facial expression to communicate authentic feelings. The trainer must do all that requires emotional intelligence: emotional awareness, emotional management and emotional connection (Orme & Cannon, 2001a). Attention should be paid to the credentials of the trainer. The trainer must be able to demonstrate emotional intelligence (Laabs, 1999).

4.5.4.6 Meeting of own needs rather than learners needs

In order to be effective in any training venue, and in particular with emotional development, the designer/trainer needs to be highly self-aware. Otherwise, his/her values, personal needs, strengths and weaknesses will inadvertently influence the design and delivery of the training (Analoui, 1994). Since the EQ development process can be unsettling to the learner, the designer should examine how much he/she needs to have the participants experience satisfaction at the end of the day.

The trainer’s comfort level with emotional intelligence content should match the trainer’s comfort level and prompt the trainer to stretch beyond that comfort zone, in the same ways that the learners are doing. Sometimes, this can be achieved by the trainer working through the same activities as they are, asking the participants to experience and making appropriate self-disclosures to create dialogue (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

Ultimately, life is the classroom for emotional intelligence development. Much of the learning and transfer of learning will happen outside the formal learning experience. Transfer of training is the application of knowledge, skills and attitudes learned from training on the job and subsequent maintenance of them over a certain period of time (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). The designer needs to be committed to including in the programme's design the tools that learners will use on an everyday basis to practise what they learned during the course (Orme & Cannon, 2001a). According to the researcher time and space for practising newly learned EQ skills in everyday life should be incorporated within the training design. Providing a break for a few days after training certain skills could do this.

4.5.4.7 Not planning for contingencies

During the design phase, assumptions will be made about how the training will be experienced by the participants. While doing this mental rehearsal, the designer should anticipate any problems that may occur with the participants and/or training itself. While it may be invisible to the learners, successful trainers are constantly assessing the training's effectiveness and making subtle or bold shifts in the design to meet their needs. The initial design itself can incorporate a certain amount of flexibility (Trasler, 2002) and offer alternative learning activities that can be used to accommodate real-time group needs, time constraints, etc (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

In conclusion, the design of emotional intelligence programmes is both exiting and challenging. It requires trainers to focus on specific needs and objectives and align them with high standards of design. A well-designed EQ intervention will create the behavioural changes it is designed to achieve (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

4.6 Guidelines for good practises of emotional intelligence training

Orme & Cannon (2001b) identified twelve criteria that should be considered in implementation of EQ training programmes. They are also the guidelines that the consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organisations uses and will be incorporated in the researcher's design method as discussed in chapter 5.

4.6.1 Fostering a positive relationship between the trainer and the participants

The above guideline is the first in the EQ Consortium's list of training guidelines, since Orme & Cannon (2001b) consider it to be the key to the successful implementation of the training. A positive outcome is more likely if programme participants perceive the facilitator to be empathic, warm and approachable, because they are more likely to be open to change and engage fully in the learning process. The positive relationship involves more than the facilitator's personal qualities, it is about giving attention to the relationships as well as to content during the design and delivery of the programme (Duguay & Korbut, 2002; Williams, 1999; Switzer & Kleiner, 1996). It is therefore (according to the researcher) important for the trainer to have excellent facilitation skills as well. This increases the effectiveness of the learning process. The confrontational teaching style interferes with learning and is inappropriate to emotional intelligence development work. At its very core, it turns learners off, at its most destructive, it triggers an emotional hijack (Orme & Cannon, 2001b). A positive relationship begins before the training and can be influenced as early as the preparation stage. Specific examples of actions prior to training are (Orme & Cannon, 2001b):

- *Negotiate a broad learning contract: before the event*, which includes what participants can expect from the facilitator and what the facilitator expects from participants. Because many participants' expectations will have been shaped through prior experiences, the completed

learning contract provides the facilitator with both valuable background information and an understanding of their assumptions.

- *Contact each person by telephone* before the programme begins to clarify any questions and allay concerns.
- *Provide a programme outline*, either in writing or communicated in person, in order to create an understanding of what they could expect, to participants.
- *Ask all participants* to respond to some basic questions before the event and have their answers available (and preferably typed up) when people arrive. For maximum value, it is best to use a mixture of factual questions (for example “*What is your name?*”, “*Where do you live?*” and more searching questions: “*What do you most want to gain from this programme?*”) This information can be presented in the form of a welcome board (using a white board, a poster, etc) on which each person’s name appears, together with their answers to the questions. This usually helps a participating group to get to know each other quickly at the outset of the programme (Orme & Cannon, 2001b).
- During the training, *positive relationships* can be fostered through the following:
 - *Make “strategic” self-disclosure*. Demonstrate that you are willing to share stories and experiences in order to facilitate participant’s learning. Be aware throughout of the level of rapport that you are building with the group and take care not to dominate the group through disclosures of your own personal “war stories”.
 - *Be available to participants* who wish to spend more time in a one-on-one basis discussing their personal experiences and issues. Meal times and breaks are useful for fostering good relationships with programme participants and for being available for deeper discussions.
 - *Work through activities yourself* at the same time that the group is completing them. Be prepared to share your own examples. This

helps participants to engage closely with the material and realise that you are continuing to develop your own emotional intelligence.

- *Encourage humour* and laughter through your choice of activities (balancing more serious ones with upbeat, light-hearted ones) and through your own careful use of humour. While EQ development work is of a serious nature, it does not have to be conducted in a formal tone (which can create barriers to learning for some participants).
- *A word of caution:* Because of the nature of the training the trainer must be careful not to create the impression that there are favourite participants (Orme & Cannon, 2001b).

Reflective questions to test this guideline:

a) *To what extent does the trainer give as much attention to interpersonal dynamics as to the programme content?*

b) *What messages does the trainer communicate about commitment to participant development by the way breaks and mealtimes are spend?*

c) *To what degree does the trainer work to develop an individual relationship with each person, as much as a relationship with the whole group?*

4.6.2 Maximise self-directed learning

This guideline is about creating choice in the learning process – by asking participants to set their own goals and deciding which emotional competencies they want to develop (Williams, 1999). This will help the trainer adjust the delivery of the programme based on participant's goals and preferences.

Ways to do this include:

- *Personal goals:* The trainer should ask each person to identify their goals at the beginning of the training event and then to review progress against them.

- *Shared ownership*: Everyone should be asked to record the goals of the other participants and return these in a structured way at key points during the training. This helps to create shared ownership for reaching desired goals. It can also direct the facilitator to spend a longer or shorter amount of time on a particular topic.
- *Learning reviews*: Conduct regular reviews using the following questions:
 - “What have you learned?”
 - “How can you apply this learning after the programme?”
 - “What did you like?”
 - What did you dislike? (or what is getting in the way of your learning?)
 - *Supported learning*: The course designer should include in the programme design some ways in which participants can support other’s learning.
 - *Modifying goals*: The trainer should provide opportunities for goals to be modified.

Reflective questions to be asked by the trainer to himself to test the successfulness of this guideline includes (Orme & Cannon, 2001b):

- a) “At which points in my training do I offer choice to my learners?”
- b) “How do I capture individual goals at the outset and keep these in focus throughout the training event?”
- c) “To what extent do I observe learning preferences early in an event and use observations to influence my style of facilitation?”

4.6.3 Set clear programme goals

Within each session, the clearer the programme objectives, the easier it is for participants to know what is expected of them (Orme & Cannon, 2001b). According to the researcher this can be incorporated in either a workbook or stated on a flipchart at the beginning of each session for everybody to see. It is particularly useful for the programme goals to link with what is important to

participants. Orme & Cannon (2001) have found that goals are more likely to be achieved where they relate to something that the individual values in their home or work life. Ways to do this include:

- *Modify your goals:* When you develop the programme goals, carefully consider the unique needs of each group and modify them accordingly.
- *Communicate the objectives* in advance of the training event.
- *Outcomes:* Write each goal in the form of an outcome, for example “By the end of this session, you will be able to...”
- *Ensure that the goals are SMART* (specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-scaled). For example, a goal like “By the end of this session, you will know what emotional intelligence is” will be hard to measure, whereas a goal like “You will be able to explain accurately the relevance of emotional intelligence to your job” is tighter and therefore easier to measure (Orme & Cannon, 2001b).

Reflective questions that the trainer should ask him/herself?

- a) *“How do I ensure that programme goals are learner-centred rather than trainer-orientated?”*
- b) *“Which method do I use to ensure that programme goals stay in focus throughout the training?”*
- c) *“How do I ensure that programme goals are meaningful enough to participants for them to want to “own” them jointly with the facilitator?” (Orme & Cannon, 2001b).*

4.6.4 Break goals down into manageable steps

This guideline is about taking participants’ goals and breaking them down into manageable steps so that they can more easily monitor the changes that occur (Williams, 1999). People are more likely to change if they perceive the change to be attainable. For instance, it will not be helpful to someone working on his or her “self-regard”, to express this goal in a simplistic fashion as “to increase my self-regard”. It will be more effective to include processes and tactical steps to help the individual achieve this overall goal.

Ways to do this include:

- *Progress*: Provide an explicit framework for moving from goals to actions.
- *Sharing goals and actions*: Ask participants to state their goals and action steps publicly, so that other participants can comment on the content and the detail of their actions.
- *Record the action steps* and use them as part of the follow-up support.

Reflective questions that the trainer should ask:

- a) *“What are the strategies for ensuring that participant goals and actions are stated in the positive (moving towards what they want), rather than in the negative (moving away from what they don’t want?)”*
- b) *“To what extent do I feel comfortable challenging a participant who has set goals that are too ambitious to be achieved?”*
- c) *“Which areas of my own life could be used to demonstrate the process of setting and creating specific action steps?”*

4.6.5 Maximise opportunities to practice newly learned EQ skills

While “life” is the real classroom of emotional intelligence development, the trainer can create situations during the programme, in which new skills are practised. Emotional intelligence development work often involves trying to alter deep-rooted patterns and habits. By explaining and working with new responses to particular situations, the facilitator is helping the participants to learn to create more adaptive behaviour and attitudes (Orme & Cannon, 2001b).

Ways to provide opportunities to practise:

- *Use training films and videos* to demonstrate the desired skills
- *Use role-play* to demonstrate the skills, for example, take a daily situation, such as frustration with technology, and role-play emotional management (Vermeulen, 2002).

- *Coaching*: Provide opportunities for participants to coach each other. For example, create triads in which two people take part in role-play and the third is a coach.

4.6.6 Provide frequent feedback on practice of EQ skills

The word feedback was first used in the *Systems Theory* in the middle of the last century (Orme & Cannon, 2001b). One useful way to think about feedback is by considering it as a communication process between facilitator and programme participant. Through feedback, the facilitator initiates a series of “nudges” to keep participants on the track with their goals. This is an important process in emotional development work. When learners are integrating their new skills and abilities, it is useful for them to know exactly how successful they are and which aspects of emotional intelligence they should work on. The simplest way for a facilitator to provide this self-awareness is through frequent and specific feedback during the training.

Ways to provide frequent feedback:

- *Tell participants what you (the trainer) observe* about them, both informally and during specific feedback sessions. One way to capture this feedback is to use a “feedback board”; where each person’s name is listed (including the facilitator), and the facilitator and participants add comments as the event unfolds. If this method is used, feedback must be positive, specific and must clearly identify what someone does and what they could do to an even greater extent.
 - *Model the importance of feedback* by asking for feedback on your facilitation and making adjustments where necessary (Orme & Cannon, 2001b).
 - *Build in structured methods* for participants to give each other feedback during practise sessions.
 - *Written feedback*: Provide opportunities for participants to write and share their feedback. For example, at the end of the programme, each

person randomly chooses a name and another participant and then writes a note to express appreciation for that person's contribution to the group

Reflective questions to be asked for the testing of this guideline by the trainer:

- a) *"What messages do I communicate about the importance of feedback in my learning contract?"*
- b) *"To what extent is there balance in the quantity and type of feedback that I give to others compared with the amount of feedback that I ask for and receive about myself?"*
- c) *"What methods do I use to ensure consistency in the quality of feedback provided to participants during training?"*

4.6.7 Rely on experiential methods

Because emotional intelligence involves social and emotional learning, it requires that more time is spent on experiential methods and less time on passive methods such as reading and lecturing (Stansfield, 1997; Tennant, et al. 2002). Orme & Cannon (2001b) have found that the use of different media helps people to create enduring behavioural change.

Examples of specific experiential methods:

- *Poetry* can be a useful method for focusing on emotions participants want more of in their lives. For example, each person is asked to write and read a poem about an emotion that they would like to experience more often. Usually, they choose a positive emotion like happiness, joy or fulfilment. This exercise can be used to reinforce concepts of personal power, communication and emotional self-awareness.
- *Well-known films* can demonstrate and reinforce key points about emotional intelligence. It is particularly powerful to ask participants to watch certain films before they come to a programme and reflect on the following questions while they are watching them:
- *Who had the highest emotional intelligence? Why?*

- *Who had the lowest emotional intelligence? Why?*
- Who are you most like?
- Who are you least like? (Orme & Cannon, 2001b).

Weisinger (1998) provides intrapersonal exercises in emotional intelligence. For example, an activity that develops *self-awareness* asks students to list all the emotions they can name. The trainer then asks students which of these emotions they expect to experience most during the rest of the day. Students are asked to make a list of the emotions they actually experience that day. During the next day the students compare their emotional expectations with the emotions they actually experienced and discuss the differences. One technique for learning how to manage emotions, is to ask students to write about a situation in which they experienced negative emotions, in as much detail as possible. The student then rewrites the situation by brainstorming different options to use in resolving the situation. It is helpful to discuss ideas for problem resolution in a small group (Weisinger, 1998).

To practise *relating well*, students can identify a troublesome relationship, involving either an isolated incident or an ongoing situation. Students need to identify the four dimensions of the relationship, namely boundary, expectations, perceptions and specific encounters. In reviewing the encounter, students evaluate their listening and speaking skills, as well as any non-verbal communication, to determine what they could have done differently (Weisinger, 1998).

To become adept at *emotional mentoring*, students learn techniques to help others to recognise when they are not in emotional control and to manage their emotions. These techniques include offering the person a seat or drink of water, encouraging the individual to talk more slowly or redirecting the conversation. Each of these tools aims to help the individual calm down, examine how they feel and or change the topic to a less emotionally volatile one. For this exercise, students can write a short scenario describing a situation in which another person is out of emotional control and rewrite the

scene using one or more of the techniques. Students should assess the emotions they experienced during the encounter and what emotions they anticipate experiencing when using their skills to help the other person (Weisinger, 1998). After completing the exercises, students reassess their skills and redefine goals for further improvement. Because self-awareness is one of the emotional intelligence core competencies, those who need this skill may profit the most from feedback (Weisinger, 1998).

Reflective questions to be asked by the trainer (Orme & Cannon, 2001b):

- a) *“Which media could I include in training to extend the reach, and therefore the power of emotional intelligence development work (the arts, nature, music, theatre, film, poetry, dance, and mime)?”*
- b) *“How do I discipline myself to explain the full rationale of why I am using a particular creative medium, before embarking on the journey of introducing a new activity to your group of participants?”*
- c) *“What examples from everyday life of emotional competence could I capture to use within training?”*

4.6.8 Enhance insight as a way to create personal awareness

Insight is the process whereby participants start to create deep personal awareness leading to change. A useful structure for designing emotional intelligence development work is the “three I’s”: *Information, Insight* and *Integration*. Accordingly, *Insight* should represent approximately one-third of the training (Orme & Cannon, 2001b):

Ways to enhance insight according to Orme & Cannon, 2001b:

- *Barriers*: Ask each person to state their “hot buttons” (the things that annoy them or get in the way during training events). In this way all participants and the facilitator can be more tuned into potential blockages or conflicts within the group. For example, one participant on a recent programme stated that she “hated people being late back from breaks.” She said that much valuable time was often wasted “while people took their own sweet time to come back after a comfort break or a refreshment break.” The facilitator was able to make the link with the emotional competence of “impulse control” so that she was more aware of her pattern and how this could affect her relationships with other people (both in the training and other parts of her life). Surfacing hot buttons can help to create insight within a group.
- *Reflection*: include many opportunities for reflection in the design of the training programme. The opportunity could be unstructured, for example, 10 minutes of journal writing, or targeted, such as responding to provocative questions (Orme & Cannon, 2001b)

Reflective questions to be asked by the trainer:

- a) *“What methods do I use to enhance my own insight? Which of these could I incorporate into training?”*
- b) *“To what extent do I include multiple processes to increase the insight of participants in training?”*
- c) *“To what degree am I comfortable with the balance in training between information, insight and integration?”*

4.6.9 Prevent relapse

Participants are more likely to be equipped with strategies for dealing with setbacks when they are able to predict their occurrence. This guideline is about including processes to prevent failure. It is important for participants to recognise that setbacks are a natural part of change so that they do not become discouraged when they occur.

Ways to prevent relapse include:

- *Reinforce the notion* that resistance is a natural stage before change or enlightenment. This can help participants to reframe difficulties that they encounter.
- *Include a “focus on obstacles”* during goal setting and development planning so those barriers are anticipated and addressed.
- *Create a structure* within the group for providing follow-up support. For example, each person could be encouraged to identify a “learning partner” for supporting his or her efforts after the training. The person then takes responsibility for telephoning or meeting their partner to provide mutual support for their actions.
- *Motivational letters:* Ask participants to write themselves a letter to provide themselves with motivational support. The letter is written on the day of the training and posted to them by the facilitator or their learning partner 30 days later.

Reflective questions to be asked by the trainer:

- a) *“To what extent does the training design reflect my acceptance of setbacks as a necessary part of change?”*
- b) *“What methods do I have for helping participants differentiate between “real” and “imaginary” obstacles?”*
- c) *“Which processes do I build into practices that provide direct support for participants after the event? Are they effective?”*

4.6.10 Provide models that explain EQ

It is easier to develop emotional skills and competencies when you have live models of emotional to follow (for example the models discussed by the researcher in chapter 2). This guideline suggests that, where possible, the inclusion of the role models of high emotional intelligence enhance learning.

Learning will be enriched whenever the facilitator uses these models for careful analysis, study and reflection (Orme & Cannon, 2001b).

Ways to provide models within emotional intelligence training (Orme & Cannon, 2001b):

- *Personal role models*: Participants should be asked early on in their training to state the names of their key role models for high emotional intelligence from their own lives, history or fiction. They must share information, stating who the person is and what qualities they possess. Make links between these qualities and the emotional competencies you are working with.
- *Responsibility as trainer should be recognised* (to be a model of emotional intelligence.) The trainer must use stories to illustrate emotional intelligence in action. Ability to stay focused must be modelled, clear and confident throughout the training.
- *Videotapes and training films should be used* to show models of high emotional intelligence. If a number of different video- and film clips are used, it must be sequenced in an order that involves moving from easy to more difficult so that learning progresses (Orme & Cannon, 2001b)

Reflective questions the trainer should ask at this guideline includes:

- a) *"Which aspects of emotional competence do I model well and which ones are you working on?"*
- b) *"Which processes do I include in training for discovering the life experiences of participants, which have helped to shape their views about emotional intelligence?"*
- c) *Among the films that I have seen recently, either on television or in the cinema, which scenes of high and low emotional intelligence do I recall? Which of these seem appropriate to use within training?*

4.6.11 Encouragement of use of skills on the job

Learning is enhanced if participants are encouraged to make use of their new abilities on the job. This is part of the “transfer and maintenance” phase described in the EQ Consortium’s guidelines. This guideline suggests that by encouraging the use of skills in the actual work situations, the new abilities are more likely to be applied as a result of the training investment (Williams, 1999). Ways to incorporate this according to Orme & Cannon (2001b):

- *Ask for examples:* Participants should be asked to give examples of specific situations where they can make use of a particular emotional competence.
- *There should be an action list* that participants can add to during the training so that they capture the specific situations where they can use emotional competence, once back in their work environment. The trainer must ask participants to share this list of situations at the end of the training. The list must be used to create a follow-up self-assessment of emotional competence. They could be encouraged to use this about a month after the training in order to gauge the extent to which they have applied their skills on the job.
- *Work projects:* As part of action planning, the trainer must ask participants to identify a specific work project that will help them make use of the skills they have learnt. From the experience of Orme & Cannon (2001b), tangible, concrete projects enable participants to use their energy productively to implement new skills and gain the support of their supervisors and line managers. This is particularly evident where projects are tightly defined, with clear goals, deliverables, and support and action steps.
- *Incentives:* The trainer must ask participants to create their own incentives for the applying for the EQ skills on the job.
- *The trainer must create an e-mail distribution list* for the participants. They can use this to share their experiences of applying EQ skills on the job.

Reflective questions to be asked by the trainer (Orme & Cannon, 2001b):

- a) *“What degree of support is necessary for participants to use their learning on the job fully? How much of this can I (the trainer) provide? Who else needs to be involved?”*
- b) *“To what extent does my own preference or lack of preference for pragmatism influence the number of on-the-job applications within your training?”*
- c) *“To what extent is my training a “mirror” of participants’ daily work lives, through the way it is conducted? Or is it more a “utopia”?”*

4.6.12 Provide an organisational culture that supports learning

When the training ends, participants return to their workplaces and their families, to people who often have not been part of their learning experience. It is important to recognise that the prevailing “culture” in these settings can serve to encourage or discourage the use of new skills (Rowe, 1996; Boak, 1995).

Kirkpatrick (1998) describes organisational cultures to which participants return after a training event under the following five categories:

- a) *Preventing* – the culture prevents the use of new skills
- b) *Discouraging* – the culture discourages the use of new skills
- c) *Neutral* – the culture neither encourages or discourages the use of new skills
- d) *Encouraging* – the culture neither encouraged or discouraged the use of new skills – for instance, through line managers reviewing the learning with each participant as soon as they return after a training event
- e) *Requiring* – the culture demands that the new skills be implemented as a natural part of the training investments that had been made.

Ways to influence an organisational culture so that it supports learning:

- *The trainer should ask participants* about the culture that they work in before a training event.
- *Design:* The above structure (information in this chapter) can be used to audit the culture before designing training programmes. Contextual knowledge can be used to influence the training design and the processes that are incorporated to maximise transfer of new skills.
- *The trainer must provide support and guidance* for the line managers of participants. This can be communicated before the event and reinforced afterwards. It is useful to create a simple fact-sheet explaining the following aspects of the training:
 - *What emotional intelligence is*
 - *its importance for work and personal life*
 - *what is covered in the training*
 - *the specific benefits that can result from the training (from the line managers perspective)*
 - *the ways in which the line managers can reinforce and support the participant's learning*
 - *things to avoid that can undermine the participant and their learning.*

Reflective questions that the trainer can ask (Orme & Cannon, 2001b):

- a) *"Which of Kirkpatrick's five categories do I think is the ideal culture for emotional intelligence development work?"*
- b) *"To what extent do I believe me (the trainer) and the participants can influence the context or environment through emotional competence?"*
- c) *"What support can I (the trainer) provide before and after the training to provide an encouraging environment for new emotional competencies?"*

In summary, this section reviewed guidelines for training of emotional intelligence and provided examples and checklists to help implement these

guidelines. The next section will be devoted to evaluating emotional intelligence programmes.

4.7 Evaluation of emotional intelligence programmes

There is little doubt that the evaluation of training is a difficult area (Lewis & Thornhill, 1994, Plant & Ryan, 1994). Evaluating training outcomes is an essential element of the learning process (Duguay & Korbut; 2002; Mann & Robertsen, 1996). Yet, according to Lewis & Thornbill (1994), there is widespread agreement with the proposition that this is the least well-conducted aspect of training activities. One of the main tasks of the trainer is to test for training effectiveness and to validate that the selected training methods have achieved a desired result (Hesseling, 1966). Torrington & Hall (1995) state that evaluation of training tends to be nebulous and unsatisfactory, yet it is important to demonstrate value for money.

Evaluation often receives little more than lip service. Most organisations use “happiness sheets” for delegates to complete at the end of training programmes. These have their place, but they say far more about the delegates than about the programme and doesn't reflect anything about how effectively delegates have digested the material and will apply skills in the workplace (Rowe, 1996; Mann & Robertson, 1996). In many companies, top management is also eager to see evaluation take place but is not greatly influenced by the findings (Rowe, 1996). In many cases the organisational culture must be changed to spread a norm of training evaluation (Lewis & Thornhill, 1994). Needs assessment must be an annual event that drives development requirements and budgets of training (Switzer & Kleiner, 1996). Lewis & Thornhill (1994) report reasons for absence or ineffectiveness of training evaluation:

- *The confounding variables effect.* This is where it is extremely difficult to disentangle the effect of training from that of other stimuli with which trainees have come into contact with. It can become difficult to establish if learning has occurred as a result of training or as a

consequence of normal activity. This trend occurs when continuous training is not followed.

- *The non-quantifiable effect:* The argument here is that the results of training are such that they are usually difficult to quantify (for example team building), or even if quantitative measures are attempted they run up against the problem of confounding variables (for example were the better results in the sales division are the effect of the sales training programme or due to an upturn in the economy).
- *The act of faith effect:* There seems to exist a very strong "training-must-be-a-good-thing" element too much of the activities carried out in organisations. In a sense, where training is readily accepted as part of the organisation culture, it would take a courageous person to argue the contrary.
- *The trainer sensitivity effect:* All trainers will recognise the fact that evaluation may point to the ineffectiveness of training and possibly also of the trainers, with all that implies for the future status of the function. How much easier not to evaluate or to do so in such a way that produces results that show the training in a favourable light.
- *The Organisational political effect:* Evaluation results that do not show training in a good light may be a function of an incorrect decision, taken higher in the organisation's hierarchy, to conduct training. In these circumstances it may not be politically advisable for the trainer to question the wisdom of the decision (Lewis & Thornhill, 1994)

Programme evaluation can be challenging in the area of emotional intelligence. To demonstrate the value of emotional intelligence programmes, practitioners have the opportunity to use evaluation to make a business case for EQ. This section provides guidance to help in the construction of the evaluation processes. Guidelines will be reviewed for programme evaluation. Practical insights and key learning points from practitioners around the world will be reviewed. Lastly EQ measurement instruments will be discussed.

4.7.1 The purpose of evaluation of training programmes

The question that needs to be asked is “Why does evaluation have to take place?” Evaluation is most effective when it is focused on the critical questions that the organisation wants answered (Rowe, 1996). It involves asking fundamental questions about what success would look like and, more importantly, deciding how the evaluation results will be used (Orme & Cannon, 2001c).

There are three primary reasons for evaluating emotional intelligence programmes. The task of practitioners is to identify how important they are to stakeholders (Orme & Cannon, 2001): to prove it, to improve it and to assess learning or change.

4.7.1.1 To prove that learning/behaviour change took place

Very often, the “evidence” depends on having established goals at the outset. The outset below identifies objectives that may help demonstrate the programme’s value (Tennant et al. 2002). Possible methods/metrics and the relevant evaluation levels of training according to Kirkpatrick (1994) will be discussed in a short while.

- *Levels of training evaluation criteria of Kirkpatrick (1994)*

It is difficult to discuss any set of training criteria without beginning with Kirckpatrick's four levels of criteria: reaction, learning, behaviour and results. According to Kirkpatrick (1994), he first suggested this model in 1959 and 1960 in articles that are now considered classics. He has updated his observations concerning these criteria in 1994. Kirkpatrick's system is certainly by far the most influential and most used approach by training practitioners, as well as being used by many researchers and thus will be presented next.

a) Reaction. (*What does the student think of the course?*)

Kirkpatrick defines reaction as what the trainees thought of the particular programme. It does not include a measure of the learning that takes place. The following are suggested guidelines for determining participant reaction:

- Design a *questionnaire* based on information obtained during the needs assessment phase. The questionnaire should be validated by carefully standardised procedures to ensure that the responses reflect the opinions of the participants.
- Design the *instrument* so that the responses can be tabulated and quantified.
- To obtain more honest opinions, provide for the *anonymity* of the participants. One of the best methods is a coding procedure that protects the individual participant, but permits the data to be related to other criteria, like learning measures and performance on the job.
- Provide *space for opinions* about items that are not covered in the questionnaire. This procedure often leads to the collection of important information that is useful in the redesign of the questionnaire.
- *Pre-test the questionnaire* on a sample of participants to determine its completeness, the time necessary for completion and participant reactions (Kirkpatrick, 1994).

Participant reaction is often a critical factor in the continuance of training programmes. Responses to these types of questionnaires help ensure against decisions based on the comments of a few very satisfied or disgruntled participants. Most trainers believe that initial receptivity proxies a good atmosphere for learning the material in the instructional programme but does not necessarily cause high levels of learning. It is important to realise that reaction measures may not be related to learning and eventual performance on the job. It is entirely possible for participants to enjoy the training but not to produce the behaviour that is the objective of the instruction (Kirkpatrick, 1994).

b) Learning. (*What has the student learned?*)

The training analyst is concerned with measuring the learning of principles, facts, techniques, and attitudes that were specified as training objectives (Rowe, 1996). The measures must be objective and quantifiable indicators of the learning that has taken place in the training programme. They are not measures of performance on the job. There are many different measures of learning performance, including paper-and-pencil tests, learning curves and job components. Again, the objectives determined from a needs assessment must be the most important determinants of the measure to be employed (Kirkpatrick, 1994).

c) Behaviour. (*Has the student applied the skill learned?*)

Kirkpatrick (1994) uses the term behaviour in reference to the measurement of job performance. Just as favourable reaction does not necessarily mean that learning occurs in the training programme, superior training performance does not always result in similar behaviour in the transfer setting. A large number of measures can be employed to assess on-the-job performance. It is important to ensure that on-the-job measures are related to the objectives of the training programme (Kirkpatrick, 1994).

d) Results. (*Has the organisation derived benefit?*)

Kirkpatrick (1994) uses this category to relate the results of the training programme to organisational objectives. According to the researcher this can also be done in the needs assessment by establishing if the organisation's objectives will be in line with the development of employees. One can also go a step further by investigating the objectives of the specific department/section. Some results that could be examined include costs, turnover, absenteeism, grievances and morale. Again, it is important to emphasise the tracing-out process so that the relevant criteria, stemming from the needs assessment, are developed. A criterion that has received increasing attention over the last several years is cost. Many organisations have designed instructional programmes in the hope that it will reduce other costs. Thus, an entry-level sales-training course is used in the hope that the

trainee, upon beginning the job, can produce at a higher rate than might otherwise be expected. Obviously, these kinds of analyses require very careful detailing of all the costs and gains associated with training (Kirkpatrick, 1994).

Duyer (1994) provides the following questions to be asked as a means of evaluation according to the model of Kirkpatrick:

- What was the trainee's reaction to the training?
- Did the trainees' enjoy the training and was it delivered in an environment conducive to learning?
- Did they learn from the training?
- What do they know now that they did not know before?
- What can they do now that they could not do before?
- Can the learning be measured?
- Has the learning been transferred to the workplace and effected a change in the performance of the individual?
- Is the behaviour of that individual in the workplace meeting the requirements originally specified?
- What effect has the improved performance on the individual had on the business?
- Has the training resulted in the organisational meeting or moving towards business objectives?
- Has the training had the desired impact?

The application of the levels of Kirkpatrick (1994) can be applied on the evaluation of emotional intelligence. According to Orme & Cannon (2001c) it can be applied to the identification of evaluation objectives:

To prove it	Evaluation methods /metrics	Kirkpatrick level
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To demonstrate that the trainer was competent and effective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Customer satisfaction data compared across different courses Specific feedback from participants on content, skill of facilitator and learning methods Cost/benefit comparisons of different providers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reaction Reaction Reaction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To prove that the intervention (for example coaching) was the best method of development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Research method using experimental and control group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Behaviour Results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To illustrate that the change is sustained over time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pre- and post assessments comparison 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learning Behaviour Results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To prove that emotional intelligence can be developed through a training intervention 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pre- and post-assessments using validated EQ instruments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Results Behaviour
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To make the case that it delivered the intended business results 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cost/benefit comparison of inputs and outcomes Measurement of selected business outcomes Control-group comparison 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Results Results Results

4.7.1.2 To improve the current EQ training programme

This involves reviewing all the major inputs: content, delivery methods, programme design, facilities, training personnel and audio-visual aids. In this section, when considering the evaluation methods, it is important in advance how the trainer intend to use what have been learned through the evaluation

process (Orme & Cannon, 2001c). This application of evaluation to improve provision is presented below:

To improve it	Evaluation methods /metrics	Kirkpatrick level
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To increase the alignment of content to objectives and needs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Systematic review of part of the programme against stated objectives Evaluation form Client interviews Follow-up survey 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learning Behaviour Reaction Reaction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To improve the facilitation of the programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Informal "check-ins" with participants during the event Customer satisfaction data from evaluation forms Interviews with facilitators and participants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reaction Reaction Reaction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To improve practical aspects of the programme (venue, materials) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> End- of programme evaluation of major factors and resultant changes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reaction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To improve participant follow-through on action plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Follow-up-study to identify how well individuals implement their plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Behaviour Results

4.7.1.3 To assess learning/change

The final purpose of evaluation brings together all of the specific changes that are hoped to be evidence of a successful intervention (Orme & Cannon, 2001c). Of course, while it is often difficult to isolate training as the primary reason for change, evidence that some change has occurred is often enough to demonstrate a programme's effectiveness. This application according to Orme & Cannon, (2001c) of evaluation is presented below as ways of assessing change:

To assess learning/change	Evaluation methods/metrics	Kirkpatrick level
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To assess changes and achievement against the original needs and objectives <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Accomplishment of the learning objectives - Measurement of changes in emotional intelligence - Assessment against stakeholders originally stated needs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initial assessment before the training using a questionnaire • Structured interview • Review of achievement against action plans • Repeat performance measurements 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning • Learning • Results • Results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To evaluate performance improvement on the job 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre- and post-performance comparison (with control group where possible) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behaviour • Results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To assess improvement in the well-being of participants (for example in the areas of health and relationship) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre- and post, self reports • Health indicators (for example blood-pressure readings and amount of sleep) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning • Behaviour • Results

4.7.2 Evaluation guidelines for the evaluation of EQ programmes

Cherniss & Adler (2000) offer the following guidance for the practitioner. These guidelines provide a useful framework for determining how to conduct an effective assessment of programme effectiveness.

- Evaluation should be a *process* focusing on continuous improvement and should not be seen as a “pass-fail” test, in which individuals associated a win or lose credibility. When an evaluation suggests that a programme fell short of its goals, it should not be used to punish a group or an individual, but rather improve programme effectiveness.

- Evaluation should focus on job improvement and business results wherever possible. Ultimately, what concerns organisations the most are, *“What is the return on our investment?”*
- Pre- and post- training assessments should be used, as well as follow-up assessments in order to track changes. Measure change after three months and regularly for up to one year, where possible.
- The selection of participants for the test and control groups should be based on a random sample. The experimental method can produce the most objective, compelling results.
- There are two acceptable alternatives where it is not feasible to include a control group:
 - Administer several measurement tools before the training begins (to have multiple baseline assessments)
 - Compare change on targeted competencies with change on competencies that were not targeted for training.
- The evaluation design should include both outcome measures for the targeted competencies, as well as relevant performance measures.
- It is worth remembering that the individuals who are closest to the programme may not be the appropriate people to measure the programme’s effectiveness. This may be particularly true if their jobs and/or performance depend on the results. Fear of failure may create some skew in the data and a desire to show easy evidence of the programme’s success.

Kenny & Reid (1986) report the following levels of training evaluation:

Level 1: reactions to the training, "Was it useful?"

Level 2: learning affected by training

Level 3: change in job behaviour, caused by training

Level 4: effects on the department

Level 5: effects of the whole organisation.

In summary, the evaluation of emotional intelligence programmes requires a rigorous, systematic, disciplined effort. Evaluation must form the core of the design. Focus must be on evaluation early in the intervention, rather than just an after-thought Orme & Cannon (2001c).

4.7.3 Measurement Instruments for the evaluation of EQ

Reliable and valid measures of emotional intelligence and its components are important efforts to:

- make theoretical advances in the area of emotional intelligence
- explore the nature and development of emotional intelligence
- predict the future functioning of individuals, for example in training programme, jobs or marriage
- identify individuals likely to experience problems because of deficits in emotional skills
- evaluate the effectiveness designed to increase emotional intelligence (Schutte & Malouff, 1998).

A number of scales assess what may be components of emotional intelligence and a few scales attempt to measure global emotional intelligence. However, researchers, clinicians and educators and trainers seeking a measure for emotional intelligence or one of its components face a daunting task. First, they must try to find relevant measures to consider. Secondly, they must obtain the actual relevant scales and scoring instructions. This sometimes requires writing to the scale developer, who may

have died, moved to another university or otherwise be unavailable. Thirdly they must collect relevant articles on the scales to determine whether initial findings with regard to reliability, validity and factor structure, have held up over time. The main evaluation measurements found in the literature study will be discussed in 4.7.3.1:

4.7.3.1 Emotional intelligence Scale (Schutte et al. 1998)

The Emotional intelligence Scale assesses perception, understanding, expression, regulation and harnessing of emotions in the self and others. The brevity of the scale and its accumulating reliability and validity evidence make this scale a reasonable choice for those who are seeking a brief self-report measure of global emotional intelligence. The model of emotional intelligence of Salovey and Mayer (1990) provided the conceptual foundation of the items used in this scale. A factor analysis of a larger pool of items suggested a one-factor solution of 33 items. This one-factor solution resulted in scale items that represented each of the following categories: appraisal and expression of emotion in the self and others; regulation of emotion in the self and others and utilisation of emotions in solving problems. The 33-item scale developed through factor analysis, which showed good internal reliability with two different samples. Two-week test-re-test reliability indicated that the scores were fairly stable over time. The scale showed evidence of validity. Scores on the scale were related to eight or nine measures, predicted to be related to emotional intelligence. These other measures assessed theoretically related constructs, including awareness of emotion, outlook on life, depressed mood, ability to regulate emotions and impulsiveness. Scores on the emotional intelligence scale differed between groups and one would expect it to differ on level of emotional intelligence as well. Psychotherapists scored higher than prisoners and substance abuse clients. Also, women scored higher than men did. The measure showed evidence of predictive validity in that incoming college students' emotional intelligence scores predicted their end-of-year grade point average.

In sum, the findings indicate that the 33-item scale hold promise as a reliable, valid measure of emotional intelligence, as conceptualised by Salovey and Mayer (1990). Potential uses of the scale in theoretical research involve exploring the nature of emotional intelligence, including the determinants of emotional intelligence, the effects of emotional intelligence and whether emotional intelligence can be enhanced (Schutte et al. 1998).

4.7.3.2 Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i, Bar-On, 1997)

The BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) is a commercially sold 133-item self-report measure, which consists of 15 clinical sub-scales and two validity sub-scales. Bar-On developed the scale on the basis of his professional experience and his review of the literature. The clinical sub-scales measure the following: emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualisation, independence, empathy, interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, problem solving, reality testing, flexibility, stress tolerance, impulse control, happiness, and optimism. The validity subclasses are called positive impression and negative impression. Bar-On originally described the scale as measure of "psychological well being" (Bar-On, 1988). The EQ-i technical manual (Bar-On, 1997) contains brief descriptions of a large number of unpublished studies of the EQ-i. With regard to reliability, the manual provides no results for total scale scores (Schutte & Malouff, 1998). For the 15 clinical sub-scales the manual reports internal consistency and one-month test-retest reliability statistics ranging from .70 to .87 for North American samples. The manual reports an exploratory factor analysis of the EQ-i, which showed that a) for four clinical sub-scales (self-regard, social responsibility, independence, and flexibility), all items loaded most highly on a single factor, b) for five clinical sub-scales (problem solving, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, stress tolerance, and reality testing) all but one or two items loaded most highly on a single factor, and c) for six clinical sub-scales (impulse control, empathy, interpersonal relationship, optimism, happiness, and self-actualisation), most items did not load most highly on a single, independent factor. The validity data reported in the manual includes many studies that found correlations

over 0.50 between EQ-i total scores and a) maladjustment measures such as the Symptom Check List-90 global severity, depression inventories, and 16 PF (Personality Factors) emotional stability; b) 16 PF openness to change, c) 16 PF social boldness, and d) Personality Assessment Inventory sub-scales dominance and warmth (Schutte & Malouf, 1998).

The manual also reports that EQ-i total scores significantly discriminated between a) highly successful business people and unemployed individuals; b) military recruiters who met their recruiting goals and military recruiters who came up at least 30% short; c) prisoners and normals, and d) cardiac patients and normals. The manual also reports that the score on the EQ-i total scale rose significantly after a) treatment of substance abuse and b) stress management training for cardiac patients. With regard to divergent validity for total EQ-i scores, the manual cites low correlation ($r=.12$) with cognitive intelligence scores.

With regard to 15 clinical scales, the manual shows a similar pattern of validity data as for the total scales. The manual does not present results in such a way as to show that different sub-scales have different patterns of validity. For instance, there is no evidence presented that the EQ-i impulse control sub-scale correlated more highly with a validated measure of impulsiveness than did the other EQ-i sub-scales (Schutte & Malouf, 1998).

4.7.3.3 Multi-factor Emotional Intelligence Test (MEIS, Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 1997)

Using the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model of emotional intelligence, Mayer, Salovey & Caruso (1997) developed a performance-based measure of emotional intelligence, which assesses the ability to perceive-, understand- and manage emotions. The 12 sub-scales which are the basis of the measure include four tasks hypothesised to measure perceiving emotions, two tasks hypothesised to measure assimilating emotions, four tasks hypothesised to measure understanding emotions and two tasks hypothesised to measure managing feelings about the self. Specifically *tasks*

1 to 4 involve recognising emotions in photographs of faces, in music, in design and in stories. *Task 5* requires describing emotions in sensory modalities (for example warm or cold, yellow or purple, sharp or dull). *Task 6* involves “assimilating one’s present mood into judgement” of how one feels “towards a fictional person at a given moment. *Task 7* requires analysing blended emotions (for example: “What does optimism consist of?”). *Task 8* focuses on understand how emotions progress over time. *Task 9* requires understanding how emotions follow one another. *Task 10* requires understanding the feeling of characters in “conflictual social encounters.” *Task 11* involves understanding how to manage the emotions of others, and *task 12* involves knowing how to manage one’s own emotions.

Many of the scale items call for subjective judgement by the test taker. Thus, scoring responses is a difficult task. The scale developers offer two different ways to score all the items: consensus scoring, which defines as correct the response given by the majority of respondents in a sample of a few hundred college students, and expert scoring, which defines as correct the judgements reached by the authors. Personal communication between Schutte & Malouff (1998) and Mayer and Caruso reveals that the developers of the instrument now recommends consensus scoring of all tasks (Schutte & Malouff, 1998). Perhaps in the future a scoring system combining the expert and consensus approach could be explored. The best scoring system might be based on the consensus of a panel of experts, making decisions blind to those of their peers, which would put the scoring system on par with the cognitive intelligence test, where little argument ever exists about what the correct answer is for a question.

An exploratory factor analysis provided partial support for the hypothesised 4-factor structure of the scale. The task intended to measure perceiving-, managing- and understanding emotions appeared to form three separate factors. The factor loading did not support the hypothesised existence of the assimilating emotions factor.

Internal consistency for the 12 sub-tests (tasks) varied widely (0.35 to 0.94) from sub-test to sub-test and scoring method to scoring method. Only the tasks making up the perceiving emotions factor (task 1-4) had good internal consistency (over 0.71) under both scoring methods. With regard to criterion validity, the overall score and the factor scores for perceiving emotions and managing emotions all correlated significantly with verbal IQ, empathy, life satisfaction and parental warmth (Schutte & Malouff, 1998).

4.7.3.4 Hay 360 Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI, Goleman, 1998a)

The Hay 360 Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) provides such an assessment and development tool for building EI competencies in the workplace (Watkin, 2000).

The Hay Group pioneered many concepts from which emotional intelligence evolved. Beginning in 1973, David McClelland suggested looking at outstanding performers and initiated the concepts of using the competencies they displayed to predict how well people would perform on the job. Daniel Goleman, a PHD student of McClelland, used this research to underpin his best-selling book *Working with emotional intelligence* (1998a). From this collaboration has grown a strategic partnership between the Hay Group, Daniel Goleman, and Richard Boyatzis, researcher/practitioner in leadership and competency development (Boyatzis, 1994; Boyatzis, 1996). One of the outputs of the partnership has been the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) – a questionnaire tool designed to assess and develop Emotional Intelligence in organisations. The 360 Emotional Competency Inventory defines Emotional Intelligence as the capacity for recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions within us and with others. It includes:

- *Self-awareness*: Knowing what we feel in the moment and using that to guide our decision-making, having a realistic assessment of our own abilities and a well –grounded sense of self-confidence. *Competencies*

measured: Emotional Self-Awareness, Accurate Self-Assessment, Self-Confidence.

- *Self-Management*: Handling our emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere delaying gratification to pursue goals, recovering well from emotional distress, deploying deepest preferences to take initiative, improve and persevere. *Competencies measured*: Self-control, Trust-worthiness, Conscientiousness, Adaptability, Achievement Orientation, and Initiative.
- *Social Awareness*: Sensing what people are feeling, being able to take their perspective and cultivate rapport with a broad diversity of people – our social radar. *Competencies measured*: Empathy, Organisational Awareness, and Service Orientation.
- *Social Skills*: Handling emotions in relationships well and accurately reading social situations, interacting smoothly, using these skills to persuade, lead and negotiate. *Competencies measured*: Developing Others, Leadership, Influence, Communication, Change Catalyst, Conflict Management, Building Bonds and Teamwork.

The ECI contains two measures of data validity, ‘Rater Familiarity’ and ‘Rater Agreement’, designed to assess the quality of the raters’ data and to aid participants in interpreting their feedback. The first looks at how familiar the raters are with what the individual does in their job, while the second assesses the amount of agreement between raters. The published version of the ECI contains 110 items with at least 3 items to assess each competency. To allow for subjective strength of responses a 7-point graduated responses format has been employed. For each behaviour the rater is asked to indicate how characteristic is the behaviour of the individual (Slightly – a, b; Somewhat – c, d, e; Very – f, g, h). After completion, the results are computer-processed and provide feedback against a generic algorithm (as discussed in chapter 2) of the competency clusters displayed by individuals outstanding in emotional intelligence. The algorithm is based on both level of competency and/or combinations of groups of competencies at the target level. Due to the number of possible combinations from the algorithm, it is possible to display emotional intelligence in a number of different ways and thus it is not a “one-

size-fits-all” model. Included in the report is an appendix showing how each question relates to each competency and anonymously how each rater scored each of the questions. This helps pinpoint possible development actions (Watkins, 2000).

4.8 A new Training model

The training design and guidelines outlined in this chapter correlates strongly with the training model of Dwyer (2001). In his proposed training model Dwyer (2001) suggests that training must be made more personalised, meaningful, lasting and enjoyable for all learners. The main concern in traditionally training models is the cognitive environment, and covering all of the curriculum in a specific time period. The new training model is learner centred, embracing three additional environments, which, combined with the cognitive environment are essential for effective learning. They are the importance of attending to the emotional, physical and social environments. This new training model seems to be applicable to all training events and not just EQ training.

4.9 Chapter Summary

In this chapter the researcher discussed an outline of the application of emotional intelligence training, according to a literature study. Guidelines of training of emotional intelligence were discussed in four clearly distinctive sections: needs assessment, training and development of emotional intelligence, guidelines for good practices of emotional intelligence training and evaluation of emotional intelligence programmes. In chapter 5 the application of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence will be discussed.

In this chapter the third specific research objective was met namely: *To determine the guidelines and methodology of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence.*

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL STUDY

As mentioned in chapter 1, the research study is divided into two phases: the literature review and the empirical study. Chapter 2-4 was dedicated to the literature review. Chapter 5-7 will be dedicated to the empirical study.

The second phase of this research that entails an empirical investigation will be discussed in chapter 5. This chapter thus entails the objectives of the empirical investigation, the training programme for development of emotional intelligence, the description of the sample, description of the measuring battery and the explanation of the methodology of the programme. The statistical analysis precedes a discussion concerning the hypotheses that will be formulated for this research.

5.1 The objectives of the empirical study

The objectives of the empirical study are to determine the effect of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence of the participants, before and directly after attending the programme and to make recommendations for the training and development of emotional intelligence.

5.2 The composition of the training programme regarding emotional intelligence

The training programme regarding the development of emotional intelligence was designed according to the literature study conveyed and discussed in chapter 4. As mentioned in chapter 4, the main authors regarding the development (and the only found in the literature) of emotional intelligence in training was that of Omre & Cannon (2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c) and Cherniss & Goleman (2001). Best practise training guidelines that supports training regarding emotional intelligence were integrated in the development of the training programme. The content and composition will be discussed in terms of the guidelines and training model discussed in chapter 4.

5.2.1 Needs Analysis

The need for the development of emotional intelligence was first identified by the top management of the financial organisation. The organisation identified emotional intelligence as a training strategy to foster the development of competencies identified in the organisation's mission, vision and strategic planning. This ensured that support from top management was gained for the training of emotional intelligence, because of the top-down approach. It was thus clear about why the organisation engaged in training of emotional intelligence. The needs analysis by the organisation also showed that development was needed specifically for their new entrants. This specific company only recruits students that hold bursaries and scholarships from the company. The advantage of this is that new entrants can be identified beforehand and can be developed in advance. The training in emotional intelligence will also help with the coming socialisation process and will foster productivity as discussed in chapter 4).

Because of the high costs of emotional intelligence training and the uncertainty that emotional intelligence can be developed, the organisation wanted to undertake a research study to have proof that this new trend of development works, before implementing it throughout the organisation. Although there are existing emotional intelligence programmes in the training market, little of them show proof that the training is actually enhancing emotional intelligence. Many of the programmes also do not take the specific needs of the different populations into consideration. The risks of implementing emotional intelligence interventions has thus been taken into consideration.

As mentioned in chapter 4, Orme & Cannon (2000) stated the choice of the trainer for an EI intervention is one of the most crucial decisions. The organisation did this by making an announcement of the intended training to selected training providers. The training providers that the financial company selected had to make a proposal for the intended training. The proposal had

to include training experience, costs, design and evaluation methods. The organisation chose the training design as discussed in this chapter.

The advantage of this was that adequate resources were provided (Hays, 1999) because of financial support provided by the organisations' Bursar Development department. It was therefore clear what the level of resources was that was necessary for a successful intervention. Appropriate respect for the topic of emotional intelligence has also been gained before the training. This helped with how the participants have been selected and how confidentiality was guaranteed (Orme & Cannon, 2000).

Because training in emotional intelligence is new and novel, the believe of the bursar development department was that you only get one shot at getting it right. Getting it right required a disciplined needs assessment of the target population, which uncovered the critical issues that had to be incorporated in the training objectives. The needs analysis conducted on the study population was done by the use of a pre-test using the BarOn EQ-i and resulted in the objectives of the programme.

5.2.2 Programme Division

The design of the programme was done accordingly to the best practises guidelines identified by Cherniss & Goleman (2001) namely:

- **Preparation phase:** Pre-test and meeting of participants prior to training and day 1
- **Training phase :** day 2 and 3
- **Transfer of training:** day 4 and throughout training
- **Evaluation of change :** post test

5.2.2.1 Preparation phase

The preparation phase of this training consisted out of two phases as identified by the researcher: a) prior to the training and b) the beginning of the training event.

- ***Prior to the training event***

A letter stating the purpose and outline of the programme was distributed to the participants prior to the first meeting with the participants. Each person was also contacted by telephone to clarify any uncertainties regarding the reason for the training event.

The purpose of the meeting with participants prior to the training event was to conduct the last phase of the need analysis (pre-test) and to foster a positive relationship with the target population. A broad learning contract was negotiated by stating what the participants can expect of the training event as well as from facilitators. A brief introduction to emotional intelligence according to the model of Bar-On (1997) was provided to make the participants more familiar with the concept of emotional intelligence. The use and relation of emotional intelligence training regarding to their future workplace was also explained. Consent for the use of the data in the form of research publications was gained by the use of a consent form, although confidentiality was guaranteed.

- ***During the training (Day 1)***

This phase consisted of an introduction to a model and theory of emotional intelligence and assessing personal strengths and limits (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998, 2001). Feedback of the self-report measure of emotional intelligence was also provided.

The programme outline to meet the needs of the preparation phase during training was the following:

DAY 1 : Emotional intelligence

Time	Activity
08:00 – 8:30	Registration
8:30 – 9:30	Ice Breaker
9:30 – 10:30	EQ Feedback and EQ Presentation
10:30 – 10:45	Break
10:45 – 11:45	Self- awareness
11:45 – 13:00	Collage building
13:00 – 13:45	LUNCH
13:45 – 14:00	Engergiser
14:00 – 15:00	Group : Collage feedback
15:00 – 15:45	SWOT analysis
15:45 – 16:00	Summary and end of day 1

Day 1 started with introducing the participants to their training environment. This was done at the registration phase where name tags, emotional intelligence “ work files” and coffee and tea were provided. The outline for day 1 was posted on a flip chart and made visible for the participants to see. An Ice-breaker followed to make the participants at ease and to divide the participants into small groups.

According to the literature study in chapter 4 it was revealed that emotional intelligence training is most successful when done in small group training. The ice-breaker was done to accommodate all learning styles and in an experiential method. After the ice-breaker, an EQ presentation was conducted and feedback of individual emotional intelligence was given in the form of feedback forms for each participant. This was done so that participants could see the need for change. A coffee/tea break followed this session.

The next activity was the completion of a types preference questionnaire and a discussion about it by the facilitator and in the groups. The purpose of this section was to deepen self-awareness. Next, participants were asked to make a collage according to certain broad guidelines provided for example: "What are you feeling now? What are the feelings you experience most/least?, Who are you? What do you enjoy?, What are your aspirations?" Lunch followed after which an "energiser" in the form of a "brain teaser" was given to the participants to solve.

The next session was devoted to the collages. Each group member had to give feedback to the rest of the group by explaining the collage. No guidelines were given to the form of the feedback, so that participants could share what they felt comfortable with. Because individual attention to the participant's development is crucial in emotional intelligence training (chapter 4) two facilitators (of which the researcher was one) formed part of the training. The two facilitators formed part of every activity and were part of the feedback sessions in the different groups.

The emotional intelligence feedback reports, the self-awareness gained during the self-awareness activity and the questions answered in the collages, formed the information base for the drafting of a SWOT analysis by each participant. Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats were identified in the form of a "*Business plan for my development*". The day was summarised by looking into the objectives of the day. Participants had to evaluate themselves, whether or not certain objectives had been reached as provided in their Workbooks: Day 1. The objectives were derived from the emotional intelligence model of Bar-On and from the needs analysis. Evaluation was done by ticking appropriate boxes:

"Today I achieved the following goals:

(Self-actualization)

I Know what I'm good at

I realised what I have accomplished in the past few years

I got excited about my interests

From today on I will be able to develop those things I enjoy

I have a good idea of what I want in life

(Independence)

I was able to make a collage, although not told how to do it

I relied on my own ideas

I made my own decisions in the self-awareness activities

I was a leader of my own destiny today

Other people needed me to finish an activity

I did not cling to others all of the time and finished my own activities

(Interpersonal relationship)

I think I was fun to be with today

I was sociable today

I get along well with others today

I was fairly cheerful today

I made friends easily today

(General Preparation to change)

I formed a concept of my emotional intelligence

I know what competencies of emotional intelligence I need to develop

During day 1 the participants were made aware that the gaining of emotional intelligence will be used in their future workplace. Certain emotional intelligence competencies were also integrated in day 1 to achieve this goal. The need for change was established through the different experiential activities.

5.2.2.2 Training phase of emotional intelligence

The training phase of emotional intelligence was incorporated in day 2 and 3 of which the outline is given below:

DAY 2 : Emotional Self-awareness

Time	Activity
08:00 – 8:30	Arrival : Coffee/Tea
8:30 – 9:30	Emotional Self-awareness scale questionnaire
9:30 – 10:45	Break : Coffee/Tea
10:30 – 10:45	Meet the emotions
10:45 – 12:30	Name the emotions
12:30 – 13:00	Group
13:00 – 13:45	LUNCH
13:45 – 14:00	Energize
14:00 – 14:30	Notes : Emotions
14:30 – 15:45	Communication of feelings
15:45 – 16:00	Summary

DAY 3 : Empathy, assertiveness and Impulse Control

Time	Activity
08:00 – 8:30	Arrival : Coffee and Tea
8:30 – 9:15	Notes : Assertiveness
9:15 – 10:15	Activity : Excuse me!
10:15 – 10:30	Break
10:30 – 11:00	Group
11:00 – 11:30	Notes: Empathy
11:30 – 12:30	Activity : Empathy
12:30 – 13:00	Group
13:00 – 13:45	LUNCH
13:45 – 14:00	Energiser

14:00 – 14:30	Theory and discussion
14:30 – 15:30	Activity : Anger (in file)
15:30 – 16:00	Group and Summary

Day two was devoted to the core of emotional intelligence (as discussed in chapter 2), namely emotional self-awareness. The session after arrival was dedicated to emotional self-awareness. The participants completed an emotional self-awareness questionnaire (Steiner & Perry, 1997) which they could self score and interpret. The results were discussed in the small groups. After the coffee/tea break the participants was introduced to emotions in a session named : "Meet the emotions". A list of basic emotions was provided and some questions the participants had to answer were:

"Identify the emotions that you do associate with yourself and those that you do not in general,

"Identify the emotions that you feel at this point in time and share it with the rest of your group if you feel comfortable enough to do so,"

"Name some more emotions that you have experienced during the day that are not listed".

In the next section "Name the emotions", participants were provided with pictures that contained certain emotional expressions, as well as pieces of music that contained certain emotions. Participants recorded their answers in their workbooks in two parts: *"Feelings I get when I look at this picture/ Feelings others had that I did not have"* and *"Feelings I get when I listen to this music/Feelings others had that I did not have"*. Participants were then referred to an emotional dictionary (the emotion is named as well as a description of each emotion, (Vermeulen, 2001) to look up the emotions they have named. Results were discussed in the group. One of the main purposes in this session was to show participants that different stimuli leads to different emotions in people and to broaden the emotional vocabulary of emotions. After lunch an energiser in the form of a brain teaser was again provided to maintain energy in the group by using humour. The next session

was devoted to facilitation by the trainer about the working of emotions and the morning's experiences.

In the "Communication of Feelings" session, the participants were provided with a list of statements. They had to differentiate between statements that described feelings and statements that convey feelings, but do not describe what it is. The exercise was first done individually and the answers then shared in the group. The next part was to increase self-awareness of the way in which participants express feelings. Certain incidents were given and the participants had to respond to the different situations by stating how they usually express feelings firstly by using words and secondly without using words.

The day ended with a summary of how they experienced the activities of the day using "feelings words". Next, participants had to look whether or not they achieved the objectives of the day namely:

(Emotional self-awareness)

It became easier for me to express my feelings

I became more in touch with my emotional side

I shared feelings with other group members

I am more aware of the way I feel

In future it will be more easier to describe my feelings

I am more aware of the feelings of others

I am more aware of the feelings of others

Day 3 was concerned with the application of the previous day's training in the form of using the communication of emotion in the skills of empathy, assertiveness and impulse control.

The first session was devoted to the facilitation of the underpinnings of assertiveness. Different learning styles were incorporated by instructing groups to provide portrayals of assertive and non-assertive behaviours in the form of pictures drawn on flipcharts. The groups had to present their pictures

to the rest of the groups. The application of the skill was done in the form of role-play. Triads were formed and each participant (of the three) had to rotate between three roles namely: "Victim, Villain and Observer. As discussed in chapter 4, time for reflection during emotional intelligence is important. Because of the latter, this section was concluded by a group discussion to share the phenomenon of assertiveness and usage of the expression of emotion to become assertive.

The second session, "Empathy" began by facilitation of theory regarding empathy and participants' experiences of this phenomenon. Groups discussed the skill of identifying emotions in others and communicating in the appropriate way. The activity of empathy was done in the form of a role-play and certain checklists and questionnaires that had to be completed. An example of the instructions is as follows: *"First, you must observe carefully what the person says and does. Secondly, you must generalise from these behaviours to a tentative description of what the person is experiencing, Thirdly, after gathering the information, you have to conclude what the person is experiencing in thoughts and feelings. Finally, you must express these ideas to the person in a constructive way.* This model of empathy therefore, starts with identifying feelings and thoughts and goes beyond them by responding. Triads were again formed and certain instances introduced. The session was concluded by individual group discussions on the topic. After lunch an energiser in the form of a brain teaser was introduced to maintain humour and a level of workable energy.

Impulse control was trained on two levels, namely handling emotions in anger and impulsiveness. The topic was facilitated in the broader group and then in the small groups. Participants shared their experiences in handling their emotions of anger. The participants then engaged in competing an activity and then by sharing their experiences and answers in their small groups for example: *"I feel angry when....," "When I am angry at my friends I usually..."*, *After expressing my anger, I feel..."* The next activity took place in small groups by answering the following questions: *"Write down five things that made your group angry, five major ways in which your group expresses*

anger, five major conclusions your group has to come to about what happens when anger is correctly expressed..”

The day was summarised in the small groups and participants had to “check” if the goals of the day had been met. This activity was done individually in their work books. The objectives of the day were:

(Assertiveness)

In future it will be easier to express my feelings to others

In future when I am dissatisfied with a situation, I will be able to tell about it

It will be easier to say no when I want to

It will be easier for me to stand up for my rights

(Empathy)

I am more able to understand and identify the way other people feel

I am more sensitive to the feelings of others

In future I will avoid hurting people by not acknowledging their feelings

(Impulse Control)

I will be more able to control my anger

I know when to stop and think before acting on an emotion

I will be less impulsive when acting on emotions

I will be able to work on my temper

I know now how to handle my anger in a constructive way

5.2.2.3 Transfer of training

Day 4 was dedicated to the usage of the learned skills in competencies like problem solving, stress tolerance and flexibility and all the other skills obtained during the programme as follows:

DAY 4

Time	Activity
08:00 – 8:30	Coffee/Tea
8:30 – 9:15	Problem solving : Notes
9:15 – 10:15	City of Atlantis
10:15 – 10:30	Break
10:30 – 11:30	Feedback and GROUP
11:30 – 12:30	a) Flexibility: Notes b) Winter Survival
12:30 – 13:00	Group discussion
13:00 – 13:45	LUNCH
13:45 – 14:00	Energiser
14:00 – 15:00	a) Stress Tolerance: Notes b) Please give me...
15:00 – 15:15	Break
15:15 – 16:00	Summary

Application of emotional intelligence regarding to problem solving, stress tolerance and flexibility were done in the form of three experiential exercises. Before each activity, an introduction to the activity was given and afterwards the feelings and experiences that each activity evoked in participants were shared. The different exercises also made use of different learning styles. Application to the work environment was made after each activity. A brief description of the different activities are as follows:

Activity	Description	Method
City of Atlantis	Problem solving exercise. A set of cards with questions and information are given to participants with no help from the facilitators. The solution is given at the end. Participants are allowed to communicate their set of cards, but may not show the	Small groups

	information to another group member.	
Winter Survival	A simulation in which the group must decide which items to use for their survival after an aeroplane crash. Items are real and the group must reach consensus.	"Fish bowl" (One group and observers) Rotation between players and observers
Please give me	The groups must complete an assignment of "building" different objects. All the objects needed to build the items are unevenly distributed amongst the groups. The groups must negotiate with other groups for the items needed to complete the objects. Each group have an appointed negotiator and a time limit is set.	Interaction between different small groups

The day was ended by a discussion of the different experiences and objectives were evaluated namely:

(Problem Solving)

I learned how to overcome difficulties by moving step by step

I collected all information when I was faced with difficult situations

I got an overview of the problems before trying to solve it

I stopped and thought before trying to solve the problem

I tried to look at each possibility and then decided on the best way to solve the problem

I thought of as many approaches as I could to solve the problem

I was able to communicate my emotions during this exercise

I was able to identify emotions in group members and communicate constructively to the emotions

(Flexibility)

I had to make certain adjustments of my viewpoints today

I have more confidence in my ability to change according to new situations

I recognised my feelings of frustration and at times was able to communicate it in a positive manner

I recognised and managed the feelings of others in the group in a constructive manner

(Stress Tolerance)

I know how to deal with my emotions in upsetting situations

I can recognise different emotions in stress events and manage them well

I now how to deal with anxiety

I believe in my ability to deal with upsetting situations

5.2.2.4 Evaluation of change

Day 5 was dedicated to the "Evaluation of Change Phase." The research objectives were measured by employing a pre-test/post-test control-group design. In this design the subjects are chosen at random from the population and assigned randomly to the experimental group or control group. Each group is given a pre-test and a post-test, but only the experimental group is exposed to the instructional treatment. Many of the threats to internal validity are controlled. Variables like history and pre-testing should affect the experimental group and the control group equally (Goldstein & Ford, 2001).

The Bar-On EQ-i was used to determine change according to the model of emotional intelligence of Bar-On. A Qualitative measurement was also used by the usage of a diary for participants to write their feelings and experiences during the training. The purpose of the qualitative measurement is to capture certain phenomena not measured by the quantitative measurement instrument, as well as to support the quantitative findings. The results of this questionnaire provide the evaluation of change in total emotional intelligence, in the subscales of emotional intelligence and change in one of the fifteen divisions in the subscales.

5.2.2.5 Rational of the compilation of the development program aimed at emotional intelligence

The program was developed according to the growth model of emotional intelligence (that the researcher developed). EQ as phenomenon was presented according to the model of Bar-On (1997) as discussed in chapter. The program started by giving a reference framework of emotional intelligence. This step provided a starting point and environment in which learning could take place. The next phase of the program was aimed at the awareness and recognition of emotion in self and others (Emotional self-awareness). The next phase was devoted to the application of the first phase in communication and decision making in self and others (Communication of feelings, empathy, assertiveness, impulse control (anger management)). The final phase (problem solving) provided situations in which the newly learned skills could be practised. This process is illustrated below:

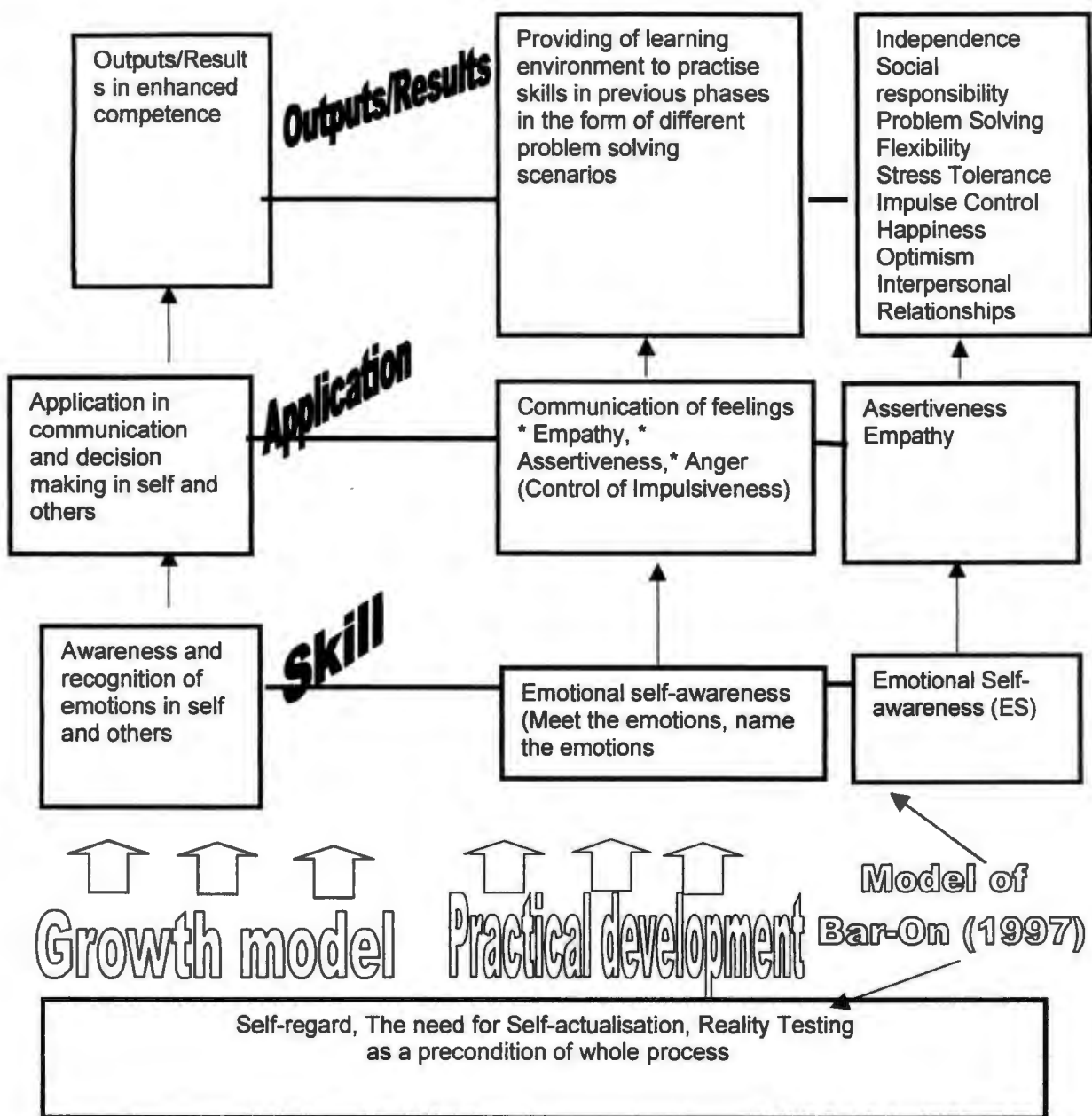


Fig 5. Compilation of EQ training programme: An application of the Growth model and model of Bar-On (1997).

5.2.3 Description of the Bar-On EQ-i (1997) as quantitative measurement

The measurement of emotional intelligence was undertaken by applying the BarOn EQ-i because the model (as indicated in fig. 5) and theory of Bar-On (1997) was used as a model of EQ.

The development and rationale, description, administration and scoring, interpretation, reliability and validity and the motivation for choosing the BarOn EQ-i are detailed below.

- Development and rationale

As a result of his work as a clinical psychologist, psychologist Reuven Bar-On sought to answer the question of why certain individuals experience better psychological well-being than other individuals. This contemplation expanded into an enquiry into why some people are more able to succeed in life than others (Bar-On, 1997). Bar-On (1997) subsequently undertook a review of factors believed to be associated with general success and positive emotional health. The review revealed that cognitive intelligence alone could not account for individuals' success. Emotional intelligence, concerned with understanding oneself and others and adapting to immediate surroundings, could therefore be used to explain those elements of human endeavour and success that cognitive intelligence could not (Bar-On, 1997).

The evolution of the BarOn EQ-i thus began in 1980 with the development of *"...a theoretically eclectic and multi-factorial approach to operationally defining and quantitatively describing emotional intelligence"* (Bar-On, 1997, p. 1). The general methodological approach to the development of the BarOn EQ-i, according to Bar-On (1997), involved four major stages:

a) Stage 1 - A priori factor selection

In the process of summarising various approaches related to the conceptualisation of the determinants of successful emotional functioning, Bar-On (1997) identified and reviewed a number of factors that are purported to determine successful functioning and positive emotional health. The categorization of these key components was based on a logical, non-statistical clustering involving analysis, grouping and labelling and was undertaken with the purpose of gaining a clearer perspective of the structure and major components of emotional intelligence. From this exercise, eleven factors emerged as determinants of successful emotional functioning. These factors are:

- Assertiveness
- Self-actualisation
- Interpersonal relationship
- Problem solving
- Flexibility
- Happiness
- Self-regard
- Independence
- Social responsibility
- Reality testing
- Stress tolerance

Four additional factorial components of emotional intelligence have subsequently been added, namely impulse control, emotional self-awareness, empathy and optimism (BarOn, 1997). The additions enjoy significant support from within related research as valid emotional intelligence subscales (Goleman, 1995).

b) Stage 2 - Operational definition of factors

The majority of the definitions for the factors are of a composite nature. Attempts were made to ensure that the definitions were clear, distinct and free of jargon. Psychologists were used to review the definitions and changes were made where necessary (Bar-On, 1997).

c) Stage 3 - Construction of the BarOn EQ-i inventory

The first step in the process of constructing the BarOn EQ-i entailed the generation of a pool of items sourced from mental health professionals and a survey on mental health literature. This yielded approximately 1 000 items. An item selection process rendered between 15 and 20 items per factor. A balance was maintained between abstract and specific, descriptive items and positively and negatively phrased items. The purpose of this was to reduce inconsistent response patterns where individuals attempt to only answer positively or negatively (Bar-On, 1997).

Item analyses were then conducted in various countries, resulting in the identification of between seven and nine items per subscale. Items have been arranged randomly with the exception of the least threatening items per subscale, which were identified and placed at the start of the inventory to increase rapport with the respondents (Bar-On, 1997).

A five-point self-rating response format was used for the inventory. The five-response format represents ranked values depicting the strength of the individual's response. A dichotomous response was avoided in so far as respondents may experience it as frustrating which might lead to test sabotaging. Although there are limitations to the use of words such as "often" and "seldom" owing to their temporal implications, they were considered preferable to other terms, for example "agree" and "disagree". The following format for responses was selected:

- 1 = Very seldom or not true of me
- 2 = Seldom true of me
- 3 = Sometimes true of me
- 4 = Often true of me
- 5 = Very often true of me or true of me

Methods for detecting test sabotaging have also been built into the inventory, including a positive impression scale to detect the pretence of enhanced emotional functioning and a negative impression scale designed to detect simulation or malingering. Another validity measure included in the inventory is the inconsistency index included to determine inconsistent responses. Ten pairs of items are included to assess response consistency (Bar-On, 1997).

The need to make changes, derived from research findings, respondents' comments and logical considerations, has resulted in the inclusion and deletion of certain items, the rewording of some items and the addition of new sub-scales (Bar-On, 1997). The original version of the BarOn EQ-i, piloted in 1983, consisted of a total of 240 items. The results of a post-pilot item analysis however, confirmed the inclusion of 133 items (Bar-On, 1997).

Furthermore, the response scale had originally consisted of a seven-point scale and this was reduced to the five-point scale described above (Bar-On, 1997). The direction of the response format was also reversed to logically combine a "Not true of me" response with the smallest value on the rating scale (1), while an "Always true of me" response is now represented by the highest value on the scale (5).

Bar-On's (1997) work on emotional intelligence was undertaken independently from other researchers in the field. There are however commonalities, both in terms of theory and research findings, that are shared by certain authors. Differences that do occur, reside in the labelling of constructs and conceptual components. The research was conducted in numerous phases, with the first experimental phase being carried out in South Africa between 1983 and 1986

as part of Bar-On's doctoral studies. Phase two was undertaken in Israel between 1986 and 1993, while the current phase involves a continued investigation into the ability of the BarOn EQ-i to measure emotional intelligence. Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies are currently underway globally (Bar-On, 1997).

- Description

The BarOn EQ-i consists of 133 items representing 15 sub-scales, each with between seven and nine items per sub-scale. Similar sub-scales have been grouped to form five composite scales, namely intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood. By adding all the subscale items, a composite scale, indicating an overall measure of emotional intelligence, has been created. Three validity scales have also been included (Bar-On, 1997).

The fifteen subscales, together with item numbers used to measure them, are as follows:

- a) *Emotional self-awareness* - Items 7, 9, 23, 35, 52, 63, 88, and 116 measure emotional self-awareness.
- b) *Assertiveness* - Items 22, 37, 67, 82, 96, 111 and 126 measure assertiveness.
- c) *Self-regard* - Items 11, 24, 40, 56, 70, 85, 100, 114 and 129 measure self-regard.
- d) *Self-actualisation* - Items 6, 21, 36, 51, 66, 81, 95, 110 and 125 measure self-actualisation.
- e) *Independence* - Independence is measured by item numbers 3, 19, 32, 48, 92, 107 and 121.
- f) *Empathy* - This subscale is measured by item numbers 18, 44, 55, 61, 72, 98, 119 and 124.
- g) *Interpersonal relationship* - Items 10, 23, 31, 39, 55, 62, 69, 84, 99, 113 and 128 measure interpersonal relationship.

- h) *Social responsibility* - Social responsibility is reflected in items 16, 30, 46, 61,72, 76, 90, 98, 104 and 119.
- i) *Problem solving* - Problem solving is measured by items 1,15, 29, 45, 60, 75, 89 and 118.
- j) *Reality testing* - Items 8, 35, 38, 53, 68, 83, 88, 97, 112 and 127 measure reality testing.
- k) *Flexibility* - Flexibility is reflected in items 14, 28, 43, 59, 74, 87, 103 and 131.
- l) *Stress tolerance* - This subscale is measured by items 4, 20, 33, 49, 64, 78, 93, 108 and 122.
- m) *Impulse control* - Impulse control is measured by item numbers 13, 27, 42, 58,73,86, 102, 117 and 130.
- n) *Happiness* - Happiness is reflected in items 2, 17, 31, 47, 62, 77, 91, 105 and 120.
- o) *Optimism* - Optimism is measured by items 11, 20, 26, 54, 80, 106, 108 and 132.

- Administration and scoring

The BarOn EQ-i can be administered individually or in groups. An administrator reads the instructions to the respondents. These instructions should include an explanation of the purpose of the assessment. Informed consent should also be obtained before administering the assessment (Bar-On, 1997).

There are no right or wrong answers and respondents are required to record their responses to set statements on a five-point scale reflecting the respondents' degree of agreement or disagreement with the statement. Respondents are asked to circle "1" for statements that are "Very seldom or not true of me", "2" for statements that are regarded as "Seldom true of me", "3" for items that are "Sometimes true of me", "4" for items that are "Often true of me" and "5" for items that are regarded as "Very often true of me or true of me" (Bar-On, 1997).

No time limit is imposed on the respondents but they are requested to respond to items with their initial reactions or impressions. All items must be completed. Results of the assessment are considered invalid when more than six percent of items have been omitted (Bar-On, 1997). In scoring the instrument, the following steps (Bar-On, 1997) are followed:

a) Items 23, 35, 52, 116, 22, 82, 111, 126, 24, 56, 70, 21, 36, 51, 66, 125, 3, 19, 32, 48, 92, 107, 121, 18, 10, 23, 69, 128, 30, 46, 76, 75, 118, 35, 38, 53, 68, 83, 97, 127, 14, 28, 43, 87, 103, 131, 49, 64, 93, 122, 13, 27, 42, 58, 73, 86, 102, 117, 130, 2, 17, 77, 91 and 132 of the BarOn EQ-i must be reversed.

b) Respondents' scores are determined through a process of, firstly, assigning points to the responses made by the respondents. Secondly, raw scores are calculated by adding the points of the items. Raw scores are then mathematically converted to standard scores through a statistical formula which ensures that each of the composite scales and subscales has a mean (100) and standard deviation (15) and that the respondents' age and gender are taken into account. Standard scores of 100, for any of the scales, are regarded as average, while scores around 115 are regarded as moderately high. Scores around 85 are deemed somewhat below average.

- Interpretation

The following table provides interpretive guidelines for scale scores obtained on the BarOn EQ-i.

Standard Score	Description	Interpretive guideline
130+	Markedly High	A typically well developed capacity
120-129	Very high	Extremely well developed emotional capacity
110-119	High	Well-developed emotional capacity
90-109	Average	Adequate emotional

		capacity
80-89	Low	Underdeveloped emotional capacity requiring improvement
70-79	Very Low	Extremely underdeveloped emotional capacity requiring improvement
Under 70	Markedly low	A typically impaired emotional capacity requiring improvement

(From BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory technical manual (1997) (p.40), by R. Bar-On, Toronto: MHS

High EQ-i scale scores indicate that the emotional skills being measured are well developed and functioning effectively, while low scale scores suggest a deficiency and need for improvement of particular competencies (Bar-On, 1997). "High" and "low" scores are distinguished by how distant they are from the mean score of 100. Scores exceeding the mean or falling short of the mean by more than one standard deviation (15) should be considered significant. It is also important to assess the validity of consistently high or low responses by examining scores obtained by the respondents on the Positive and Negative Impression scales (Bar-On, 1997).

Bar-On (1997) recommends the following eight steps in interpreting the results of the BarOn EQ-i assessment:

- a) Assess the validity of the EQ-i results by considering the Omission Rate, Inconsistency Index, Positive and Negative Impression Scales, correction factors and general validity issues.
- b) Interpret the total EQ scale score
- c) Interpret the EQ composite scale scores
- d) Interpret the EQ subscale scores

- e) Examine response style and critical items
- f) Compare the BarOn EQ-i results to findings from additional sources
- g) Summarise the findings and make recommendations
- h) Retest to evaluate progress whenever possible.

- Reliability and validity

As part of the developmental process numerous statistical analyses were conducted to determine the reliability and validity of the BarOn EQ-i assessment (Bar-On, 1997).

- *Reliability*

Two types of reliability studies were carried out on the BarOn EQ-i, including internal consistency and retest reliability. Internal consistency, or reliability, indicates the degree to which items of a particular scale measure the same construct. The internal consistency of the BarOn EQ-i was examined by using the Cronbach alpha (Bar-On, 1997). Table 3 presents the reliability coefficients for the EQ-i subscales based on a South African sample.

Table 3: Cronbach Alpha Coefficients for the EQ-i Subscales in a South African Sample

EQ-i Subscale	South African sample (n=448)
Emotional self-awareness	0,76
Assertiveness	0,78
Self-regard	0,89
Self-actualization	0,75
Independence	0,65
Empathy	0,69
Interpersonal relationship	0,74
Social responsibility	0,62
Problem Solving	0,74

Reality testing	0,69
Flexibility	0,69
Stress tolerance	0,77
Impulse control	0,77
Happiness	0,75
Optimism	0,72

Note. Alpha coefficient is acceptable at $\geq 0,50$

(Note. From BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory technical manual (p. 96), by R. Bar-On, Toronto: MHS.)

Retest reliability refers to the temporal stability of the instrument (Bar-On, 1997) and the average retest reliability coefficients for groups of South African subjects who were re-tested on the BarOn EQ-i after one month was 0,85 and after four months, 0,75.

Validity

Nine types of validity studies were conducted on the BarOn EQ-i instrument, namely content validity, face validity, factorial validity, construct validity, convergent validity, divergent validity, criterion group validity, discriminant validity and predictive validity. Bar-On (1997) concluded that the BarOn EQ-I is valid and capable of achieving the objectives for which it was designed.

- *Motivation for choice*

The BarOn EQ-i is the first empirically constructed test of emotional intelligence that has been made available commercially and which was regarded as the premier measure of emotional intelligence available at the time of this study. The inventory has a large normative base of approximately 4 000 participants. Of particular significance is the fact that data were obtained internationally from North and South America, Europe, Asia and Africa and in particular, South Africa (Bar-On, 1997).

In addition to depicting and assessing the multidimensional scope of emotional Intelligence, the BarOn EQ-i contains four validity indices, as well as a correction factor designed to adjust for response bias. Consequently, the inventory has good statistical reliability and validity (Bar-On, 1997).

The inventory is also versatile, allowing for application within a broad range of contexts, including corporate-, clinical-, medical-, research-h and educational settings. It is appropriate for individuals older than 16 years and is relatively easy to use (Bar-On, 1997). The BarOn EQ-i is fairly brief in comparison to other self-report inventories, taking approximately half an hour to complete (Bar-On, 1997).

The instrument was also chosen because of the overlap of the strategic objectives of the organisation as discussed in the needs analysis phase.

5.3 Sample Description

The sample group consisted out of bursars of the financial organisation as mentioned earlier in the chapter. Bursars from the Gauteng region formed part of the experimental and control groups. The names of the bursars were pooled and randomly tabulated into two groups. The composition of the experimental and control groups was as follows:

Variables	Experimental group	Control group	Total
Number in sample	20	20	40
Males	10	8	18
Females	10	12	22
Population group			
<i>White</i>	10 (5 males, 5 females)	12 (4 males, 8 females)	22
<i>Black</i>	7 (3 males, 4 females)	5 (2 males, 3 females)	12

	females)	females)	
<i>Asian</i>	3 (1 male, 2 females)	3 (1 male, 2 females)	6
Age average	20	21	20.5

5.4 Research Method

The research method included the following aspects: the orientation of the sample, the pre-test, the presentation of the development programme, aimed at emotional intelligence, and the post-test.

The orientation of the sample was done prior to the training event (as discussed in the "Preparation Phase of the Training"). It was in this phase that the pre-test was administered on both the experimental and control groups, restricted to a few days before the training event. The post-test was administered a few days after the training event. The presentation of the programme was done over two weeks as presented in the calendar below:

	Sun	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri	Sat
June				26 <i>Pre-test : Experimental and Control groups Introduction to EQ</i>	27	28	29
July	30	1	2 <i>Day 1</i>	3 <i>Day 2</i>	4 <i>Day 3</i>	5	6
	7	8	9	10	11 <i>Day 4</i>	12 <i>Day 5 Post-test of Experimental group</i>	13
	14	15 Post-test of Control Group					

The reason for the break of 5 days between days 1, 2, 3 and 4-5 is that emotional intelligence development is about a change in behaviour (as discussed in chapter 4) and can not be done as a “quick fix”. This also gave participants time to practice their newly learned skills in the external environment.

5.5 Scoring of the measurement battery

The scoring of the BarOn EQ-i will be done by the instruments' only distributor in South Africa, *Jopie van Rooyen and Partners*. The scoring of the qualitative measurement (the diary inscriptions) will be done by identifying themes and linking it to existing models and theory of emotional intelligence (where applicable).

5.6 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was done by using the SAS computer programme (SAS Institute, 1985). To serve the purpose of this research descriptive and inferential statistics were used. The research made use of descriptive data to organise the data meaningfully. Standard deviations (s) and arithmetic means (x) were computed to interpret the descriptive statistics. Arithmetic means (x) comprise a point, which coincides with the sum of scores divided by the number of scores. Standard deviations (s) show the amount the individual's score differs from the average distribution of the data. To compute standard deviations squares of the differences were used and the average served to determine the distribution. Student's t-tests were used to determine the significance of the difference between the average of the pre and post-tests of the control and experimental groups. This test was taken to determine

whether a significant difference existed between the changes in scores from the pre to the post-test. The assumption underlying the t-test is that the population is distributed normally even though the sample size is small ($N < 30$).

The d-value was computed to determine practical significance. The cut off point for practical significance is as follows, namely:

$d \geq 0,2$ small effect

$d \geq 0,5$ medium effect

$d \geq 0,8$ large effect

The d value (practical significance) for the comparison between the pre- and post-test for the control and experimental groups, respectively are computed as follows:

$d = x/s$ where

x = the arithmetic mean of the item, and

s = the standard deviation of the item.

The d-value (practical significance) for the comparison of the experimental and control groups are computed as follows, namely:

$d = (x_E - x_C) / S_{MAX}$ where

X_E = the arithmetic mean of the difference between the measurements of the experimental group,

X_C = the arithmetic mean of the difference between the measurements of the control group,

S_{MAX} = the maximum standard deviation between the experimental and control group.

Practical significance shall be determined at a significance level of $d > 0.8$, however, a medium significance of $d > 0.5$ will also be considered in this research.

5.7 Hypothesis formulation

The following null and alternative hypothesis were formulated namely:

5.7.1 Null hypothesis

H01: There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H02 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H03 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H04: There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *intrapersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H05 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *interpersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H06 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *adaptability* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H07 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *stress management* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H08 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *general mood* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H09 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *intrapersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H010 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *interpersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H011 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *adaptability* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H012: There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *stress management* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H013 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *general mood* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H014 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *intrapersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H015 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *interpersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H016 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *adaptability* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H017 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *stress management* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H018 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *general mood* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H019: There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding any of the EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

H020 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding any of the EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

H021 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding any EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

5.7.2 Alternative hypothesis

H1: There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H2 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H3 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the total EQ score of the Bar-On EQ-i

H4: There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *intrapersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H5 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *interpersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H6 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *adaptability* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H7 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *stress management* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H8 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *general mood* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H9 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *intrapersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H10 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *interpersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H11 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *adaptability* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H12: There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *stress management* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H13 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *general mood* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H14 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *intrapersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H15 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *interpersonal* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H16 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *adaptability* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H17 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *stress management* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H18 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *general mood* subscale of the BarOn EQ-i

H19: There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding any of the EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

H20 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding any of the EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

H21 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding any EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

5.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter addressed the research methodology with the aim of describing the empirical investigation, the composition of the development program aimed at emotional intelligence, the description of the sample, the measuring battery, and the research procedures concerning the gathering of the data for this research. There after, the statistical manipulations and the hypotheses were formulated. Chapter 6 will concern itself with the results of the empirical study.

In this chapter the general research objective was met namely:

To compile and evaluate a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

In this chapter results of the empirical study will be reported and discussed. The report will be given in the form of applicable evaluation criteria of Kirkpatrick (1994) as discussed in chapter 5:

- a) *Reaction* (What does the student think of the program?)
- b) *Learning* (What has the student learned?)
- c) *Behaviour* (Has the student applied the skill learned?)
- d) *Results* (according to the Organisational domain, has the training program contributed to organisational objectives/strategies)

A final criteria which will be added to the criteria of Kirkpatrick (1994) is the criteria of *training process*. This is a measure of what occurred during the assessment, development, and implementation of training. This forms an assessment or audit of the training intervention as a whole (O'Conner, Bronner & Delaney, 2002).

6.1 Reaction evaluation to the programme

This criteria was measured by tracing participant's reactions in the diary that they used during the programme. Learning reactions that could be traced was the following:

- "It did satisfy my curiosity at the beginning and I definitely was intrigued by the activities every day.."
- "Hierdie program het gehelp om sekere issues te verduidelik en te verstaan.."
- "At the beginning I just thought it was going to be a very long five days but actually had *lots of fun* and learned about a whole lot of aspects, which I never thought or knew related to emotions..."
- "Overall, the workshop was *very interesting*, if not always in the activity itself, then in the thinking or debates behind it.."
- "...Great Workshop!..."

- “I enjoyed myself. I am happy that this workshop was presented to us!..”
- “Before I went through life without thinking about EQ actively and that has *certainly changed*...”
- “...I’ve enjoyed the programme...”
- “..die aktiwiteite was “fun” en insiggewend...”
- “ I enjoyed the practical activities. They’re much easier to relate to..”
- “ It was a lot of fun for me...”
- “ I had tremendous fun...!”
- “ Dit was lekker om die aktiwiteite te doen war jy dit wat geleer was prakties te gebruik...”
- “...Thank you for the workshop...”
- “ Dit was lekker om die nuwe mense te ontmoet..”
- “I thought it was just going to be a lot of theory and that it would be boring, but in the end it was a great experience...”
- Ek was half skepties oor die hele workshop en die “emotional intelligence” konsep en hoe dit betrekking het op my voor die workshop begin het. Aan die einde het ek tog baie geleer...”
- “...It was amasingly effective....”
- “..All in all I had a very interesting workshop..”

The learners’ reactions indicate that participants enjoyed the programme and felt attending it was worthwhile.

6.2 Learning evaluation of the training programme

This evaluation will be given in two ways, quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data was obtained by using an experimental design:

Experimental Group (R)	T ₁	X	T ₂	
Control Group (R)	T ₁	X	T ₂	(Goldstein & Ford, 2002).

The qualitative data was obtained by asking participants to write their experiences in a diary. The qualitative data will be reported by identifying certain themes that was identified from the diary inscriptions.

6.2.1 Quantitative evaluation of the development programme aimed at emotional intelligence

Against the backdrop of the hypothesis stated in chapter 5, the quantitative evaluation will now be discussed. To discover whether the groups were equal to each other before the research commenced, a comparison of the pre-test scores of both the experimental and control groups will be made. Hereafter, the effect of the development programme aimed at emotional intelligence regarding changes in the group's total EQ, different sub-scales of EQ and different competencies of EQ (according to the BarOn-EQ-i) will be analysed and discussed.

The following statistics will apply in this quantitative evaluation, namely: arithmetic mean (\bar{x}) and standard deviations (s) for the experimental (EG) and control group (CG), the arithmetic means (\bar{x})-difference and the standard deviations (s -difference) of the difference between scores, and the practical significance (d).

6.2.1.1 Comparison of the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups

Table 6.1 reveals a comparison of the pre-test scores of the experimental group and control group in terms of the variables of the measuring battery.

TABLE 6.1

COMPARISON OF THE PRE-TESTING OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS (N=40)

Scale	EG (N=20)		CG (N=20)		p	d
	x	s	x	s		
Total EQ	105,15	9,70	99,00	11,40	0,07	
Intrapersonal	105,15	9,80	100,80	14,80	0,30	
Self-regard	104,40	9,09	104,35	13,18	0,99	
Emotional selfawareness	104,10	14,70	99,95	18,40	0,44	
Assertiveness	104,55	14,03	102,95	16,10	0,74	
Independence	101,15	12,63	100,00	11,86	0,76	
Self-actualisation	102,17	8,70	92,80	16,70	0,18	
Interpersonal	105,15	9,84	100,75	14,80	0,16	
Empathy	101,70	12,08	95,75	13,70	0,14	
Social responsibility	102,65	11,09	99,15	13,80	0,38	
Interpersonal relationship	103,30	12,60	98,90	16,15	0,34	
Adaptability	109,50	9,60	102,60	9,30	0,03	**0.70
Reality testing	104,80	10,40	96,25	10,70	0,01	**0.80
Flexibility	101,85	11,48	99,25	14,56	0,53	
Problem solving	105,55	9,52	102,45	11,72	0,36	
Stress Management	103,25	9,72	99,40	11,57	0,26	
Stress tolerance	106,40	11,55	103,55	15,80	0,51	
Impulse control	99,25	9,67	97,05	12,80	0,54	
General Mood	105,55	9,71	103,65	13,90	0,61	
Optimism	104,75	9,65	105,25	14,25	0,89	
Happiness	105,60	10,52	103,50	13,50	0,58	

** $d \geq 0,8$ (large effect)

* $d \geq 0,5$ (medium effect)

Table 6.1 shows that the experimental and control groups in general do not differ practically in terms of the pre-test measurements except for the sub-scale adaptability and in particular reality testing (large effect). It thus appears that the experimental group had a higher reality testing competence than that of the control group before attending the development programme, aimed on emotional intelligence. This tendency should be taken into consideration when the difference between the experimental and control groups, regarding post-testing will be measured. It can also be stated that although the experimental group had a higher total EQ level, the difference was not practical significant. The conclusion can thus be drawn that, based on total EQ level and sub-scales levels (with the exception of adaptability), the experimental and control groups were statistically equal before the training event.

6.2.1.2 Comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores regarding the experimental group.

Tabel 6.2 reports the results of the significant differences between the pre- and post-test measurements in terms of the BarOn EQ-i within the experimental group.

TABLE 6.2 DIFFERENCE OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST REGARDING MEASUREMENT OF THE BarOn EQ-i WITHIN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Scale	<i>Pre-test</i>		<i>Post-test</i>		X difference	s-difference	p	d
	x	s	x	s				
Total EQ	105,15	9,70	110,70	9,30	5,60	9,40	0,0161	*0,60
Intrapersonal	105,15	9,80	108,50	11,70	3,40	9,60	0,1344	
Self-regard	104,40	9,09	106,90	12,10	2,60	6,70	0,1035	
Emotional self-awareness	104,10	14,70	109,45	12,10	5,40	13,80	0,099-	
Assertiveness	104,55	14,03	105,10	16,60	0,60	12,30	0,8433	
Independence	101,15	12,63	101,95	13,95	0,80	9,50	0,7124	
Self-actualization	102,17	8,70	109,30	11,80	3,05	10,70	0,2173	
Interpersonal	105,15	9,84	107,90	9,00	4,85	10,40	0,0508	*0,50
Empathy	101,70	12,08	107,60	10,30	5,60	10,70	0,0299	*0,50
Social responsibility	102,65	11,09	104,40	9,60	1,80	10,02	0,4444	
Interpersonal relationship	103,30	12,60	107,50	8,70	4,20	10,50	0,0892	
Adaptability	109,50	9,60	113,45	9,30	8,50	7,20	0,0001	**0,90
Reality testing	104,80	10,40	112,90	10,40	8,05	6,20	0,0001	**0,80
Flexibility	101,85	11,48	107,50	11,40	4,20	10,50	0,8433	
Problem solving	105,55	9,52	112,70	11,80	7,20	8,20	0,0010	**0,80
Stress Management	103,25	9,72	105,70	9,04	2,50	11,00	0,3303	
Stress tolerance	106,40	11,55	111	10,50	4,60	9,30	0,0398	0,40
Impulse control	99,25	9,67	100,80	12,06	0,05	12,11	0,9855	
General Mood	105,55	9,71	109,70	10,80	4,20	9,90	0,0772	
Optimism	104,75	9,65	112,80	8,95	8,00	11,30	0,0051	**0,80
Happiness	105,60	10,52	106,15	11,70	0,55	11,05	0,8263	

** $d \geq 0,8$ (large effect)

* $d \geq 0,5$ (medium effect)

The following hypotheses as mentioned in chapter 5 are applicable to table 6.2:

H01: There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H1: There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H04: There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *interpersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H4: There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *interpersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H05 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *interpersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H5 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *interpersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H6 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *adaptability* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H06 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *adaptability* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H7 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *stress management* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H07 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *stress management* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H08 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *general mood* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H8 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding the *general mood* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H019: There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding any of the EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

H19: There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *experimental group* regarding any of the EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

Based on the results as presented in table 6.2, H1 can be accepted, which indicates that there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test in the experimental group regarding the total EQ score as measured on the BarOn EQ-i. It appears that there is a practical significant difference (medium effect) between the pre- and post- measurement of the experimental group in terms of the total EQ score.

It appears that there is a practical significant difference between the pre-and post-measurement of the experimental group in terms of the *interpersonal and adaptability* sub-scales of the BarOn EQ-i. Based on these results H5 and H6 can be accepted and H4, H7 and H8 can be rejected. H04, H07 and H08 can be accepted with regards to these sub-scales. There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post test of the experimental group regarding the sub-scales *intrapersonal, stress management and general mood*.

It also appears that there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group regarding the following EQ competencies as measured on the BarOn EQ-i: Empathy, Reality Testing, Problems solving, Stress tolerance and Optimism. H19 can therefore be accepted with regard to the above mentioned competencies. There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group regarding the following EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i: Self regard, Assertiveness, Emotional self-awareness, Self-actualisation, Independence, Social responsibility, Interpersonal relationship, Flexibility, Impulse control and Happiness. H019 can therefore be accepted with regard to the above mentioned EQ competencies as measured by the BarOn EQ-i.

6.2.1.3 Comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores regarding the control group.

Tabel 6.3 reports the results of the significant differences between the pre- and post-test measurements in terms of the BarOn EQ-i within the control group.

TABLE 6.3 DIFFERENCE OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST REGARDING MEASUREMENT OF THE BarOn EQ-i WITHIN THE CONTROL GROUP

	<i>Pre-test</i>		<i>Post-test</i>		X difference	s- difference	p	d
	x	s	x	s				
Total EQ	99,00	11,40	100,00	10,80	1,0	7,30	0,5477	
Intrapersonal	100,80	14,80	100,45	13,80	-0,30	7,8	0,8646	
Self-regard	104,35	13,18	101,85	11,60	-2,50	6,40	0,0965	
Emotional sel- awareness	99,95	18,40	99,70	17,08	0,30	7,30	0,8560	
Assertiveness	102,95	16,10	102,00	16,20	-0,90	10,80	0,6973	
Independence	100,00	11,86	100,20	12,60	0,20	9,30	0,9242	
Self- actualization	92,80	16,70	98,40	16,50	-2,10	9,50	0,3374	
Interpersonal	100,75	14,80	97,20	10,50	-0,15	8,78	0,9399	
Empathy	95,75	13,70	98,20	13,50	2,60	9,80	0,2480	
Social responsibility	99,15	13,80	96,60	13,00	-2,60	10,06	0,2623	
Interpersonal relationship	98,90	16,15	97,30	13,30	-1,60	8,20	0,3914	
Adaptability	102,60	9,30	100,60	11,70	2,40	9,60	0,2854	
Reality testing	96,25	10,70	99,20	12,30	3,00	10,80	0,2373	
Flexibility	99,25	14,56	101,90	17,10	-1,60	8,20	0,3914	
Problem solving	102,45	11,72	100,70	13,30	-1,80	8,50	0,3692	
Stress Management	99,40	11,57	101,90	11,30	2,50	7,10	0,1268	
Stress tolerance	103,55	15,80	102,45	13,90	-1,10	7,30	0,5063	
Impulse control	97,05	12,80	101,00	12,07	3,80	6,80	0,0233	0.30
General Mood	103,65	13,90	100,90	12,16	-2,80	8,40	0,1582	
Optimism	105,25	14,25	100,60	11,20	-4,70	9,80	0,0470	-0.3
Happiness	103,50	13,50	101,80	12,50	-1,80	6,90	0,2726	

** $d \geq 0,8$ (large effect)

* $d \geq 0,5$ (medium effect)

The following hypotheses as mentioned in chapter 5 are applicable to table 6.3:

H02 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H2 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H09 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *intrapersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H9 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *intrapersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H010 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *interpersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H10 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *interpersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H011 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *adaptability* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H11 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *adaptability* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H012: There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *stress management* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H12: There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *stress management* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H013 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *general mood* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H13 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding the *general mood* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H020 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding any of the EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

H20 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the *control group* regarding any of the EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

Based on the results in Table 6.3 there is no significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i. **H02** can therefore be accepted and **H2** rejected.

There is also no significant difference regarding any of the sub-scales of the BarOn EQ-i. Therefore **H09-H013** can be accepted and **H9-H13** be can be rejected.

A further investigation shows that there is no significant difference between the pre-test and post- test regarding any of the competencies of the BarOn EQ-I, with the exception of *impulse control* (small significant change) and *optimism* (small negative significant change). **H020** can be accepted with the exception of impulse control and **H20** can be rejected with the exception of the impulse control competency as measured by the BarOn EQ-i.

6.2.1.4 The significance of the difference between the changes in the experimental and control groups regarding pre-and post tests of the BarOn EQ-i.

Table 6.4 reports the differences between the pre-test and the post-test of the experimental and control group.

TABLE 6.4 DIFFERENCE OF THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST REGARDING MEASUREMENT OF THE BarOn EQ-i WITHIN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP.

	EG (N=20)		CG (N=20)		D
	X	s	X	s	
Total EQ	5,60	9,40	1,0	7,30	*0,50
Intrapersonal	3,40	9,60	-0,30	7,8	0,40
Self-Regard	2,60	6,70	-2,50	6,40	**0,80
Emotional-Selfawareness	5,40	13,80	0,30	7,30	0,40
Assertiveness	0,60	12,30	-0,90	10,80	0,10
Independence	0,80	9,50	0,20	9,30	0,06
Self-actualisation	3,05	10,70	-2,10	9,50	*0,50
Interpersonal	4,85	10,40	-0,15	8,78	*0,50
Empathy	5,60	10,70	2,60	9,80	0,30
Social Resonsibility	1,80	10,02	-2,60	10,06	0,40
Interpersonal Relations	4,20	10,50	-1,60	8,20	*0,60
Adaptability	8,50	7,20	2,40	9,60	*0,60
Reality testing	8,05	6,20	3,00	10,80	*0,50
Problem solving	7,20	8,20	-1,80	8,50	**1,05
Flexibility	4,20	10,50	-1,60	8,20	*0,60
Stress Management	2,50	11,00	2,50	7,10	0,00
Stress Tolerance	4,60	9,30	-1,10	7,30	*0,60
Impulse Control	0,05	12,11	3,80	6,80	-0,30
General Mood	4,20	9,90	-2,80	8,40	*0,70
Optimism	8,00	11,30	-4,70	9,80	**1,12
Happiness	0,55	11,05	-1,80	6,90	0,20

** $d \geq 0,8$ (large effect)

* $d \geq 0,5$ (medium effect)

The following hypotheses as mentioned in chapter 5 are applicable to table 6.4:

H03 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H3 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the total EQ score of the BarOn EQ-i

H014 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *intrapersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H14 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *intrapersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H015 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *interpersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H15 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *interpersonal* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H016 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *adaptability* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H16 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *adaptability* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H017 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *stress management* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H17 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *stress management* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H018 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *general mood* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H18 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding the *general mood* sub-scale of the BarOn EQ-i

H021 : There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding any EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

H21 : There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the *control and the experimental group* regarding any EQ competencies of the BarOn EQ-i

Based on the results as presented in Table 6.4, there is a significant difference between the **total EQ** score with regard to the difference of pre-

tests and post-tests of the experimental and control groups. **H03** can therefore be rejected and **H3** (medium effect) can be accepted.

Three of the five **sub-scales** of emotional intelligence as measured by the BarOn EQ-i, show a significant difference and improvement due to exposure to the development programme aimed at emotional intelligence. The sub-scales *Interpersonal* (medium effect), *Adaptability* (medium effect), and *General mood* (large effect) show a significant difference compared to the control group. Therefore **H015**, **H016** and **H018** can be rejected, while **H15**, **H16**, and **H18** can be accepted. As table 6.4 indicated, there is no significant difference in the sub-scales *Intrapersonal* and *Stress management*. Therefore **H014** and **H017** can be accepted while **H14** and **H17** can be rejected.

Based on the results as presented in Table 6.4 there is a significant difference with regards to some of the components of EQ as measured by the BarOn EQ-i. Therefore, **H021** can be rejected and **H21** can be accepted with regard to the following competencies of EQ:

- Self-regard (*large effect*)
- Self-actualisation (*medium effect*)
- Interpersonal relations (*medium effect*)
- Reality testing (*medium effect*)
- Problem solving (*large effect*)
- Flexibility (*medium effect*)
- Stress tolerance (*medium effect*)
- Optimism (*large effect*)

H021 can be accepted and **H21** can be rejected with regard to the following components of EQ as measured by the BarOn EQ-i:

- Emotional self-awareness
- Assertiveness
- Independence
- Empathy

- Social responsibility
- Impulse Control
- Happiness

6.2.1.5 Qualitative results to measure change in emotional intelligence

Themes were derived from diary inscriptions during and directly after the training intervention. The exact words participants used to indicate themes will be given:

a) Self-Awareness

“Ek het begin dink oor die manier waarop ek stres hanteer en kan dit verbeter....”

“I learned that I’m a strong extrovert and realised it is true”

“I should work a bit on my assertiveness although it already has improved a lot since high school...”

“I would like to become more flexible...Determined to improve myself on managing stress..”

“I would like to take what I’ve learnt and apply it, build on it and grow...”

“I am self-aware.....I do understand myself and try to use that effectively know...”

“After speaking to one of the facilitators I admitted that I don’t entirely enjoy my studies.....It is not as enjoyable as I have made it out to be...”

“Ek het tot die besef gekom dat ek myself onderskat..”

“I do know myself and my characteristics ...”

“This course awakened another part of me....different way to measure and improve my abilities...The EQ assessment has also helped me to identify areas of development and has illustrated the need to achieve certain goals..”

I have identified two major areas that I have to work one and that is my assertiveness and identifying my emotions...”

“...it gives me more tools...I can work on that aspect (my self-discipline) and sure as hell are going to do that!”

"I will work on being more assertive...I have learnt what an excellent ability that is..."

"Ek was nog altyd bang om standpunt in te neem oor goed wat ek dink, maar sal baie makliker praat oor hoe ek voel..."

"Nadat ek met my groepie gepraat het, het dit my gemotiveer om in alle opsigte van my lewe meer gebalanseerd te wees.."

"Daar is nog baie plek vir verbetering, maar ten minste het ek nou riglyne om my te help,.....Het `n paar goed van myself geleer en hoekom ek soms in sommige situasies op sekere maniere sou optree.."

"Dit was lekker om van myself te leer en om van ander te leer..."

"Ons het almal "issues" in ons lewe en dit is baie belangrik dat ons dit uitsorteer voor ons begin werk/trou..."

"I can work now on those things which I can improve or need to work on.."

"I find that I understand myself now..."

"Knowledge alone won't allow you to be successful in your workplace, how you relate to others and their feelings will determine your success.."

Support for this theme of emotional intelligence from the literature study comes from Gardner's (1993) definition of emotional intelligence (as discussed in chapter 2), "*Self knowledge*" and the "*Ability to relate innter and outer world*" as well as "*Self-awareness*", defined by Salovey and Mayer (1990).

b) Emotional self-awareness

"During the break between the two training sessions I became even more aware of my own feelings and being able to identify them and their sources..."

"I learned a lot about emotions and how to identify them and what to do about them."

"I will concentrate on my own and other people's feelings in future.."

"I also think I've become more emotionally aware..."

"Since the workshop I tried to control my anger because I gained a lot of knowledge about it.."

“I am emotionally aware of myself...”

“After speaking to one of the facilitators I admitted that I don’t entirely enjoy my studies.....It is not as enjoyable as I have made it out to be...”

“It definitely made me more aware of feelings as an important part of every day life...”

“Met die nuwe woordeskat wat ek nou geleer het kan ek dadelik en presies sê (en weet) wat ek voel en hoef ek dit nie te probeer verduidelik nie...”

“Ek het begin dink oor die manier waarop ek optree...”

“I was surprised to see the many aspects there are to emotions...I’ve learned steps to manage my emotions to be a better person...”

“I know know how to express my feelings...”

“Ek het geleer om te dink oor my gevoelens..”

“I became aware of my personal emotions...”

Support for this theme of emotional intelligence from the literature study comes from Goleman (1996): “Express feelings”, Salovey & Mayer (1990), “*Managing emotions*” and “Handling feelings so that they are appropriate” and Steiner (1997), “*Express own emotions productively, Manage and Control own emotions.*”

c) Empathy

“I will concentrate on my own and other people’s feelings in future..”

“Aware of feelings, not only mine but of the people around me..”

“I do understand other people’s feelings...”

“Before, I couldn’t understand other people’s feelings...”

“Mense dink en voel verskillend oor goed...”

“Better understanding of the feelings of others...”

“I learnt to consider other people’s feelings more...”

“Was lekker om nuwe mense te ontmoet en agter te kom hoe verskillend mense se emosies kan wees...”

“I became aware of the emotions of others...”

“..het geleer om ander se gevoelens in ag te neem..”

Support for this theme of emotional intelligence from the literature study comes from Goleman (1996, 1997), "*Sense what others are feeling*", Gardner (1993), "*Ability to understand others, what motivates them and how they work*" and Salovey & Mayer (1990), "*Recognising emotions in others*."

d) *Self-acceptance*

"I feel good about myself looking at both the good and the bad..."

"I feel free about myself now..."

"I am relaxed with myself ..."

"Ek het geleer om nie so hard op myself te wees nie..."

"Ek dink omdat die mense in my groep na my gesluit het, en ook na my opinies, het ek meer gemaklik en selfversekerd gevoel.."

"I learned to appreciate more certain things about myself which I have always seen as weaknesses and can appreciate them now...."

"Die grootste bate wat in die kursus gekry het was om my emosies te aanvaar en nie te onderdruk nie...om nie te dink mens mag nie so voel nie..."

"I learn't to except myself..."

This theme can be seen as a possible new contributing factor the field of emotional intelligence as no theorist incorporates this aspect in their view of emotional intelligence.

e) *Interpersonal relationships*

"Getting to know the other bursars has been great and I've really enjoyed it."

"Om nie bevooroordeeld te wees teenoor mense in die groep wat jy nie ken nie...Doen moeite om met hulle te gesels...jy sal besef jy het hulle heeltemal verkeerd opgesom..."

"Doing this course as a group of students makes it amazingly effective because you relate to your fellow bursars and communicate on a totally different level which is really good if we have to work together one day...."

“Nadat ek met my groepie gepraat het, het dit my gemotiveer om in alle opsigte van my lewe meer gebalanseerd te wees..”

“Ek dink omdat die mense in my groepe na my gesluister het, en ook na my opinies, het ek meer gemaklik en selfversekerd gevoel..”

“...beter leer kommunikeer met ander in die groepwerk...”

“I had preconceived ideas about certain people in my group but they got to be in my group and I actually got to like them..”

“I also enjoyed working in a group and although I am an introvert as the days passed by I felt more comfortable to give my opinions...”

“Ek het geleer dat groepwerk eintlik lekker is. Almal hier het hulle kant gebring..ek het die groepwerk geniet...”

“Learn’t how to work in a group effectively and listen to the ideas of others even if they don not directly contribute to the problem..”

Support for this theme of emotional intelligence from the literature study comes from Gardner (1993), “*Working co-operatively*”, Gardner & Hatch (1989), “*Rapport building*”, Steiner (1997), “*Emotional interactivity*” and Cooper & Sawaf (1997), “*Trusting relationships*”.

6.3 Results evaluation according to behaviour criteria

Students applied the skills they learned during the EQ programme on the last day. This statement can be made due to the *qualitative results* (improvement in problemsolving and competencies of emotional intelligence) and by *observations* by the researcher. After the break between the two training sessions, the participants shared their application of what they have learned during the time they were away from the training environment.

6.4 Results evaluation according to the organisational domain

According to the Organisational criteria, the training programme has contributed to organisational objectives/strategies). The programme was initially developed according to the organisations's development objectives and strategies.

6.5 Evaluation according to the design principles of training

a) Sound adult learning principles

A variety of learning styles were used and appealed to different learning styles, for example the use of lectures, music and practical exercises.

b) Learner centered design

The values, interests and needs of the learners were addressed. It clearly considered alignment with the organisation's mission, strategy, values and competency framework. This phase was clearly explained in the EQ introduction phase of the intervention – i.e. the link of EQ competencies to the competency framework of the organisation. The specific organisation has a strong viewpoint and strategy to training and development of new employees (bursars).

c) Optimisation of learning techniques

The design of the training intervention clearly followed combined learning techniques (cognitive and emotional learning) with the emphasis on emotional learning. Most of the activities were aimed at triggering the participant's own emotions, values and thoughts.

d) The learning environment

The size of the groups (emotional intelligence works best in a small group usually 15-25 participants) that was used was 20 participants. Confidentiality was guaranteed. The researcher experienced that the participants opened up by sharing their feelings and concerns. Each phase of the programme was practiced practically and a lot of fun and humour were incorporated throughout the programme. A lot of time was given for personal reflection

(either in group discussions or time for diary inscriptions. Background music was played continuously and the physical space was of high standard. Appropriate tea/coffee and lunch breaks were provided.

e) *Training media*

A variety of training media were used namely: flipcharts, electronic presentations and posters. A high quality personal workbook/file for each participant incorporated different learning styles.

6.6 Summary and discussion of results

The most salient conclusions to the quantitative and qualitative evaluation of the group facilitation programme will now be discussed.

Regarding the quantitative evaluation of the development programme aimed at emotional intelligence, the following results were found:

- The development programme aimed at emotional intelligence led to the development of *Total Emotional Intelligence*.
- Specific sub-scales of emotional intelligence that were developed were *Interpersonal*, *Adaptability* and *General Mood*. Although the *Intrapersonal* sub-scale showed no improvement, two of the competencies of the sub-scale *Intrapersonal* showed development, namely : *Self-regard* and *Self-actualisation*.
- The specific competencies in the *Interpersonal* sub-scale that showed development was *Interpersonal Relations*.
- The specific competencies in the *Adaptability* sub-scale that showed development was *Reality testing*, *Problem Solving* and *Flexibility*.
- Although *Stress Management* as a sub-scale showed no significant improvement, there was a development in the *Stress Tolerance* competency.
- The specific competency in the *General Mood* sub-scale that showed improvement was *Optimism*.

These findings indicate that participants overall managed to become more optimistic, adaptive and able to develop meaningful interpersonal relationships. These qualities are especially valuable in this specific environment as participants will enter the work environment in a while. The participants will also become colleagues in future. These qualities will also give participants a competitive advantage, because they will most likely be more adaptive to change and will have a positive attitude towards the work environment.

Regarding the qualitative impressions, it appears that the development programme aimed at emotional intelligence led to the development of emotional intelligence, because of the *Emotional Self-awareness* theme that was identified. Other qualitative themes that were identified that confirm an increase in emotional intelligence competencies are *Empathy* and *Interpersonal Relationships*. Two new themes (not measured by BarOn EQ-i) that can be investigated by further research (maybe as prerequisites for the development of emotional intelligence) are Self-Awareness and Self-acceptance.

Although the quantitative results did not indicate an increase in Empathy and Emotional Self-awareness, the qualitative results surely showed an improvement in these applications of emotional intelligence.

6.7 Chapter Summary

In this chapter the results of the empirical study was reported by using the evaluation model of Kirkpatrick (1994). The reactions of participants had towards the development programme aimed at emotional intelligence was also reported. The quantitative evaluation was undertaken in terms of pre-determined hypotheses as formulated in chapter 5. Qualitative results in the form of themes that emerged was also reported. Final conclusions indicated that the compilation and presentation of the development programme aimed at emotional intelligence, led to the development of emotional intelligence.

In this chapter the fourth and fifth specific research objective were met, namely: *to determine the quantitative and qualitative effect of a development programme aimed at emotional intelligence.*

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter the researcher will offer conclusions based on the examination of the results of the empirical investigation. Shortcomings of the research will be highlighted and recommendations will be made.

7.1 Conclusions

The conclusions for industrial psychology as a science will be based on the results as formulated for this study.

Based on the specific *theoretic objectives*, the following conclusions are made namely:

- a) The possible existence of non-cognitive intelligences can be traced back as early as 1920 by Thorndike's social intelligence. Wechsler (1952) also recognised emotional competence as part of the human array of capabilities. Gardner (1983) fostered the existence of non-cognitive intelligences by his multiple intelligence model, (inclusive on inter- and intra-personal intelligences) but still no mentioning of emotional intelligence per se was in existence. It was only in 1988 that Reunven Bar-On used the term emotional quotient (today known as EQ) in his doctoral theses, that notice had been given to this new evolving construct. In 1990 however, emotional intelligence was given its rightful place in the academic and research arena when Salovey & Mayer (1990) coined the term "emotional intelligence". The latter was done by determining emotional intelligence as an actual quantifiable intelligence. Goleman (1995) – a science journalist popularised and added on to the EQ model of Mayer & Salovey (1990) with specific application to the workplace. A new paradigm in psychology (as discussed in chapter 2) has seen the light, but not without controversy

of what emotional intelligence actually is and who the “father” of emotional intelligence ought to be.

In the search for emotional intelligence theories, the researcher took the stand to source only theories that strongly linked to the term “emotional intelligence” or EQ. The reason behind this is that the researcher regards (after examination of the literature study) EQ as an evolving “school of thought” on its own. Emotional intelligence is therefore regarded as a “starting point/root theory” on its own, and not as “part of” other theories. The literature study did not reveal a fixed growth process but rather points in time when cognition and emotion was “mixed”. Evidence for this viewpoint of the researcher comes from the *intelligence perspective* of Salovey and Mayer (1990), the *contradictive well-being approach* that Bar-On (1997) followed and the *workplace/competency approach* of Goleman, (1995).

Given the background above, three theories were discussed that strongly linked up with emotion and cognition. The theory of Salovey & Mayer (1990) was discussed first. Their model and theory focused strongly on both cognitive and emotional systems. In their theory and four-branch model the following components are reported: a) emotional perception, b) emotional integration, c) emotional understanding and d) emotional management. Their (Mayer & Salovey, 1990) definition of emotional intelligence refers to EQ as the ability to recognise the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and to reason and problem solve on the basis of them.

Bar-On (2000a) views emotional intelligence as an array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities that influence overall ability to effectively cope with environmental demands. Bar-On’s (1997) view of emotional intelligence is reported in the following model and theory: Bar-On, (1997):

Emotional intelligence can be clustered in the following factors:

- *Intrapersonal* – based on emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualisation, and independence
- *Interpersonal* – based on empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationship
- *Adaptability* – based on reality testing, flexibility and problem solving
- *Stress Management* – based on stress tolerance and impulse control and
- *General Mood* – based on optimism and happiness

Bar-On's (1997) model illustrated the relationship between the intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management and adaptability composite factors, which together with, and filtering through the fifth composite factor, namely general mood, leads to effective performance or success.

Goleman (1998a) defined emotional intelligence as knowing what you are feeling and being able to handle those feelings without having them overwhelming you; being able to motivate yourself to get hobs done; to be creative and perform at your peak; sensing what others are feeling and handling relationships effectively. Goleman (1998a) also defines emotional competence as a learned capability, based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work.

The latest model of Goleman (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000) comprises out of four domains:

- *Self-awareness cluster*: understanding feelings and accurate self-assessment
- *Self-management cluster*: managing internal states, impulses and resources
- *Social Awareness cluster*: reading people and groups accurately
- *Relationships Management cluster*: inducing desirable responses in others

- The researcher introduced a growth model for the development of emotional intelligence after an investigation of the models and theories of EQ. The growth model portrays the development of EQ as a skill (Awareness and recognition of emotions in self and others) as a prerequisite for the application of the skill during communication and decision-making in the self and with others. This two processes will lead to observable behaviour as results of the development process, for example: Stress management, Problem Solving etc. Environment factors such as Culture and Background can play a role in this development perspective as well as certain prerequisites namely Self-acceptance and Self-Regard. This newly developed growth model lead to another definition for application in a development perspective: *“Emotional intelligence is the result or output of acquiring the skill of becoming aware and recognising emotions in the self and others and by applying this skill in communication and decision-making efforts in the self and in others.*
- Emotional intelligence can be applied in the organisation through selection, recruitment, training and development of employees from senior executive to new entrant employees. Selection for different types of jobs (based on different EQ-competencies) can be done. Within specific domains in the organisations, which development of emotional intelligence can be applied to, leaders and groups within the organisation can be targeted.

The ability to manage emotions and relations permits the emotionally intelligent leader to understand follower's needs and to react accordingly (Barling, Slater, Kellaway, 2000). By working to establish norms for emotional awareness and regulation at all levels of interaction, teams can build the solid found foundation of trust, group identity and group efficacy they need for true co-operation

and collaboration as well as high performance overall (Druskat & Wolf, 2001). Within human resources functions, emotional intelligence can be applied to performance feedback (Abraham 1999). An emotionally intelligent delivery of criticism provides valuable information to employees to take corrective action before problems escalate out of control (Korsgaard, 1996). Lastly, the literature study indicated that EQ can enhance organisational commitment, foster organisational citizenship; can be a moderator of role conflict and may even moderate the impact of job control.

- Training and development of emotional intelligence have not yet emerged as a category (Laabs, 1999). The literature study also conveyed that only two authors specifically aimed to explore the phenomenon of training and development of emotional intelligence. In a series of four articles, Orme & Cannon (2000, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c) gave guidelines about EQ training in four phases: conducting a needs assessment, designing a programme, implementation and evaluating. Chemiss and Coleman (2001) highlight four phases in the design of EQ programmes: preparation, training, transfer, maintenance and evaluation.

Training employees on the topic of emotional intelligence is not the same as training other areas of interpersonal skills (Laabs, 1999). Teaching someone to be emotionally competent cannot be done in an afternoon session (Laabs, 1999), because behavioural changes have first to take place. Orme and Cannon (2001a) note that to see significant behavioural changes after only a brief programme is not realistic. EQ programmes have to take the audience of the EQ programme into consideration in the design phase. Sound adult learning principles must be followed and all learning styles must be incorporated (Orme & Cannon, 2001a).

EQ training works best in small groups (15-25 participants) (Laabs, 1999). Confidentiality has to be guaranteed and time for practise and

reflection of newly obtained skills have to be incorporated into the training programme's design (Laabs, 1999). There are emotional intelligence programmes on the market in the form of books, however, the learning outcomes (derived from the needs analysis) must drive the design. The outcomes from the needs analysis may also lead to the creating of new material (as done in this study). The trainer must also reveal emotional intelligence competence during training sessions. It is important to evaluate any training programme and specifically EQ programmes to determine development areas and to improve programme design.

Based on the specific empirical objectives, the following conclusions are made:

A development programme aimed at emotion intelligence had the following quantitative effects on participants:

- a) The development programme aimed at emotional intelligence increased emotional intelligence, as measured by the BarOn EQ-i. Specific areas of EQ that were developed included interpersonal, adaptability and general mood sub-scales. The following EQ competencies were developed due to exposure to the development programme aimed at emotional intelligence: self-regard, self-actualisation, interpersonal relations, reality testing, problem solving, flexibility, stress tolerance and optimism.

Regarding the qualitative impressions, it appears that the development programme aimed at emotional intelligence led to the development of emotional intelligence, because of the *Emotional Self-awareness* theme that was identified. Other qualitative themes that were identified that confirm an increase in emotional intelligence competencies are *Empathy* and *Interpersonal Relationships*. Two new themes (not measured by BarOn EQ-i) that can be investigated by further research (maybe as prerequisites for the development of emotional intelligence) are *Self-Awareness* and *Self-acceptance*.

Although the quantitative results did not indicate an increase in Empathy and Emotional Self-awareness, the qualitative results surely showed an improvement in these applications of emotional intelligence.

7.2 Limitations of the research

- The research targeted participants in a specialist area (financial) and as such, has resulted in a limitation to generalisation within other types of organisations.
- The effect of the pre-test was not accounted for, because only an experimental- and control group were included in the research. In future a three-group design could be added to determine the effect of the pre-test.
- The use of small groups made the transfer of EQ-skills a tedious and time-consuming effort.
- The empirical research did not make use of individual emotional intelligence coaching growth sessions, which could have affected the increase of emotional intelligence in a more positive way.
- The choice of evaluation measurement was restricted as only the BarOn EQ-i was regarded as valid and reliable by use of South African samples.
- The repeatability of the study can be a very costly effort because of the high costs involved in obtaining the measurement instrument.

7.3. Recommendations

- Emotional intelligence competencies should be incorporated in the curriculum of business educators, as they are the trainers of the business leaders of the future.

- Student's/Future employees must take yearly EQ assessments to gauge their progress and as a means for further development efforts.
- Future quantitative and qualitative research might focus on students' self-regard and need for self-actualisation with respect to the implementation of EQ programmes.
- There is also a need for further research to understand the interaction between individual's and organisation/environment in terms of its influence of the development of EQ.
- A development programme aimed at emotional intelligence must be undertaken and must start with a theoretical introduction by choosing one of the EQ models (as discussed in this research) and self-assessment. Training should be done in small groups and must have a strong experiential undertone. Time should be given between multiple training sessions for the application of newly learned EQ skills. Training design should be learned centred and adult-learning principles must be followed accordingly.
- Training of registered psychologists or human resource officials with a strong psychology background in the design and presentation of development programmes aimed at emotional intelligence should be conducted throughout the organisation.
- Support networks (after training has been attended) and the appointing of coaches should be established in order to maintain and further development efforts.

By making these recommendations the last research objective was met:
namely: *To make recommendations about the fostering of emotional intelligence in new labour market entrants.*

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