CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

University of Toronto, Asian Institute of Technology and University of Carolina says that a literature review is a body of text that aims to review the critical points of current knowledge including substantive findings as well as theoretical and methodological contributions to a particular topic. Literature reviews are secondary sources, and as such, do not report any new or original experimental work. Most often associated with academic-oriented literature, such as a thesis, a literature review usually precedes a research proposal and results section. Its ultimate goal is to bring the reader up to date with current literature on a topic and forms the basis for another goal, such as future research that may be needed in the area. An attempt has been made to include the most recent and researched papers for the review.

According to Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann and Hirst (2002), the past decade has witnessed an increased interest in the role of affect in psychology (both mood and emotion), punctuated by a number of important theoretical advances including the conceptualization of emotional intelligence.
2.2 **EMOTIONS**

The emergence of emotional intelligence is a field of study in its own right; the growing personal importance of managing one’s emotions and improved knowledge and study of emotion, intelligence and the relation of emotion to cognition, and personality traits (Roberts et al. 2001). Salovey et al. (2000, p. 505), believed contemporary psychology had moved away from the view that reason is superior to emotion, toward an emphasis on the functionality of emotions. The modern human brain is made of three distinct layers that reflect its evolutionary history (Massey, 2001). These interwoven layers of neural networks have built upon each other over millions of years. The oldest controls the most basic bodily processes and the newest give the cognitive abilities that make us human. The construct of emotions is difficult to define since an emotional reaction, rather than being a single reaction, constitutes a constellation of reactions to an event. Frijda (1993) includes the following essential components, namely

- An experiential component – feelings have an emotional, non-cognitive element, resulting from the cognitive appraisal of an event,
- It is characterized as pleasant / unpleasant;
- Physiological changes accompany the emotion; and
- An action tendency / increased arousal and a general readiness to deal with the environment ensue.

Emotions cause us to act and also to think. Andy Hargreaves (1997) says that emotion is not an alternative to reason, but an essential part of thinking,
learning, and reason itself. If you can’t feel, you can’t make personal or value judgments.

### 2.3 TRADITIONAL THEORIES OF EMOTIONS

#### 2.3 a) James-Lange Theory of Emotion

William James, American psychologist and philosopher, seems to be the first influential theorist seriously interested in tracing the biology of emotion (LeDoux, 1998). James believed that the particular quality of the emotional experience is a direct result of bodily feedback to the brain, based on the fact that bodily responses (increased heart rate, tense muscles, sweaty palms etc.) often accompany emotions. He asserts that emotions feel different from other states of mind, and feel different from one another, since they are accompanied by different bodily responses (Davidson et al., 2000). James theorized that bodily changes follow directly on the perception of an exciting eliciting stimulus and that “our feeling of the same changes as they occur IS emotion” (James, 1884/1969, p. 247-248, emphasis in original). Ellsworth (1994) states that, as the current interest in neurological substrates of emotion resurges, “many of us found that James anticipated our own ideas” (p.223). According to Davidson et al. (2000), a major weakness of the theory involves the failure to account for the fact that some events trigger emotion-relevant peripheral changes whilst others do not.
2.3  b) Cannon and Bard Theory

Bard (1929) and Cannon (1927, 1929) hypothesised that cortical structures are involved in the experience of emotion and that diencephalon structures are involved in the expression of emotion. Cannon fiercely criticised the James-Lange theory, especially with regard to the stated absence of brain centres dedicated to emotion. Cannon believed that the brain provides the answer to understanding emotion. Emotional processes are completely contained in the brain, with the hypothalamus central to the process, activating the body with regard to bodily response and the brain to experience emotion. Therefore, emotional feelings and experience co-occur, rather than occurring sequentially.

He proposed an “emergency reaction” (the fight and flight response) that is adaptive, occurring in anticipation of energy expenditure required by certain emotional states. Cannon argues that this response is mediated by the sympathetic nervous system (a division of the autonomic nervous system) that responds to commands by the brain. The physiological arousal, according to Cannon, is the same, regardless of the emotional state experienced and can therefore not account for differences in emotion.

According to Davidson et al. (2000), Cannon and Bard’s most notable contribution to the field was their supportive evidence of a neural circuitry underlying emotional experience, thereby directly contradicting James in this regard.
2.3 c) MacLean Theory

One of the most influential and long-existing explanations of emotional life was the triune brain theory developed by MacLean (1949; 1952; 1970; 1990). He proposed that the limbic system had evolved to serve those functions necessary for survival and act as the primary stakeholder in experiencing emotion. He believed that the visceral brain integrates external sensations with visceral sensations from the body to produce emotional feelings. His theory is, like James’, a feedback theory. He argues that the emotional mechanism is basically one of communication in the nervous system, involving messages relayed by the travelling nerve impulses and possibly humoral agents carried by the blood stream (cf. Pert, 1999). In the process, highly integrated neurons sort, select and act on patterns of bioelectrical activity. MacLean (1949, 1952) proposed a hippocampus formation including the amygdala (currently recognized as an important structure in emotion) as important in emotional experience. He proposed that the brain developed to include three ‘brains’, evolutionarily superimposed on one another. These are, he claims, the reptilian brain (brain stem and cerebellum) and the paleo-mammalian and neo-mammalian brains. MacLean dubbed the paleo-mammalian structure, the limbic system. LeDoux (1998) praises the inclusiveness and convenience of this theory (for its time and context). “However, while the limbic system remains the predominant explanation (both in neuroscience and in popular culture) of how the brain makes emotions, it is a flawed and inadequate theory of the emotional brain” (LeDoux, 2002). Theorists such as Papez and MacLean triggered a renewed interest in finding and describing the neural pathways of
emotion. (For an excellent review and critique please refer LeDoux, 1998; 2002).

**2.3 d) Schachter and Singer Theory**

Schachter and Singer (1962) were social psychologists who also became involved in the study of emotions. They concurred that bodily arousal was important in experiencing emotion, but not as proposed by James (1884). In accordance with Cannon (1927; 1929), they believed that physiological feedback lacks specificity. Being in the midst of the cognitive revolution, they proposed that thoughts or cognitions accounted for the gap between the specific felt experiences and the non-specific physiological feedback. Heightened physiological arousal is named depending on the social and physical context associated with its experience. Thus, “emotional feelings follow when we are able to cognitively explain ambiguous bodily states by using environmental cues” (LeDoux, 1998, p.48). Thus, both arousal and cognition are necessary to produce emotion. Although Schachter and Singer (1962) received much criticism for both theory and method, their thinking was so influential that, even now, the psychology of emotion has mostly focused on the role of cognition in emotion.

**2.3 e) Arnold Theory**

At about the same time Arnold (1970) published her theory regarding appraisal. She believed that the stimulus (bear) is perceived and unconsciously appraised. An action tendency (Autonomic Nervous System /ANS activation) follows, after which we consciously experience fear as a result of the tendency to run.
She believed that people have introspective access or conscious awareness of the inner workings of their mind, accessing causes of their emotions.

Stimulus→ Appraisal →Action→ Feeling (LeDoux, 1998, p.51)

2.3 f) Others on Emotions

Others such as Lazarus (1966) also referred to the role of appraisal in, for example, stressful situations. He believed, for emotion to occur, cognition is both necessary and sufficient (Lazarus, 1991). According to LeDoux, appraisal forms the basis of cognitive approaches to cognition and “the evaluation of a stimulus is clearly the first step in the initiation of an emotional episode; appraisals occur unconsciously; emotion involves action tendencies and bodily responses, as well as conscious experiences” (1998, p.51). Despite this stance, he believes that too much emphasis on cognition causes unique aspects of emotion (distinguishing it from cognition), to be overlooked.

Emotional awareness brings our inner world into perspective and enables us to make good choices regarding our needs and the needs of others (Segal, 1997). Emotions assist with reason, and emotions or emotional intelligence offer us an intuitive, pre-reflective kind of logic; one that can be brought out into the open upon reflection (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997).

Davidson et al. (2000) contend that the amygdala has proved itself to be a pronounced site of plasticity, involved in emotional learning.

Salovey and Mayer's (1990) central theme of emotional intelligence was that emotions were functional and adaptive. They saw emotions as organised responses, crossing the boundaries of many psychological subsystems, including the physiological, cognitive, motivational, and experiential systems.
Emotions, they argued, typically arose in response to an internal or external event that generated positive or negative meaning for the individual. Mayer's (2000b) research revealed As research on emotions and thought moved from an emphasis on psychopathology to everyday moods and thoughts, the idea that emotions might be adaptive for thought coexisted with the idea that they caused bias' (Mayer 2000b, p. 412). In the period 1980 to 1991, prior to much of the work on emotional intelligence, Winefield and Peay (1980/1991) wrote an explanation of the relationship of neural pathways, emotion, and cognition.

This bio-psycho-social model of emotional experience helps us understand the antecedents for emotional intelligence. Gorman (2002), in an article in TIME magazine describing the biology of anxiety, revealed most people are clueless about what they are feeling. She reported on neuroscientific studies conducted with rats, which identified that two neural pathways activated in response to a stressor, such as an electric shock. One pathway is direct from sensory organs to the amygdala, activating the 'fight' or 'flight' response. The other neural pathway is long, circuitous route through the cortex, where the brain does its most elaborate and accurate processing of information. In relating this research on rats to humans, Gorman argued that the amygdala – in conjunction with other parts of the limbic system, namely, the thalamus and hippocampus – liaised with the prefrontal cortex to process and moderate the physiological effect of emotion felt in the human body. Ledoux (1994a) believed the amygdala to be an essential structure in the brain system involved in the formation of memories about the emotional significance of stimuli.
Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004b) summarized their meaning of emotions in relation to cognition as:

a. Each kind of emotion (anger, fear, etc.) shares certain essential features that are biologically based.

b. Simpler emotions may combine to form more complex emotions.

c. Emotions may be regulated but not fundamentally altered by display rules.

d. Emotions have the functional purpose of signaling relationships and change in relationships, real or imagined, principally between people and their environments (including other people).

e. Emotions and cognitions represent different functions of the mind, if not the brain, recognizing the two often interact and are expressed in an integrated form.

In developing his theory of Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT), Ellis (2003) reaffirmed his belief that thinking, emotion, and action were linked and overlap, Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) assumes that human thinking, emotion, and action are not really separate or disparate processes but that they all significantly overlap and are rarely experienced in a pure state. Much of what we call emotion is nothing more nor less than a certain kind—a biased, prejudiced, or strongly evaluative kind—of thought. But emotions and behaviours significantly influence and affect thinking, just as thinking significantly influences what we call emotions and behaviours (Ellis 2003, p. 221). Ellis argued for openness and flexibility in thinking to inform emotional health: REBT always was opposed to any kind of absolutism and is now more strongly opposed to this view. It holds that dogmatic, rigid, and absolutist thinking is one of the main essences of human neurosis and that openness, flexibility, and acceptance of human diversity is one of the main
essences of non disturbance (Ellis 2003, p. 234). At the core of Ellis' REBT is the A-B-C theory of personality (Ellis 2003, p. 241). The A stand for an activating event, for instance by some type of challenging life situation. B is the evaluation (cognitive-affective-behavioural) of the activating event – people's irrational beliefs, causing an emotional consequence, represented by the C.

It became clear that developing emotional knowledge was essential to developing emotional intelligence (Gosling & Gosling 2004; Weisinger 1998). Emotions: (1) Gave one feedback and helped one survive; (2) Connected and bonded one with other people in relationships; and (3) Caused one to act with altruism and to self-actualise – to fulfil one's life potential. Chopra seemed to share this view. In an address on 'The Soul of Leadership', Global Brand Forum, Singapore, December 2003, he said, “What we know from neurophysiology is that you cannot influence your limbic brain through your cortical brain. You cannot, for example, convince yourself to have ethical behaviour. You cannot convince yourself rationally, that morality is the right thing to do. You cannot command through your emotions...because emotions have their own rules. Human beings are ruled more by emotions than anything else (Chopra 2004, p.21).” This review of literature on emotion – as it related to the physiological impact of emotion on cognitive appraisal (intelligence), cognitive-emotional interactions in the brain, whether people are responsible for their emotions or emotional behaviour or whether emotions produce involuntary behaviour, and the impact of emotion on emotional intelligence – showed emotion was integral to the construct of emotional intelligence. Emotion informed and influenced intelligence.
2.4 UNDERSTANDING INTELLIGENCE

Intelligence has a core meaning in the sciences. It implies …gathering information, learning about that information, and reasoning with it – they all imply a mental ability associated with the cognitive operations (Mayer et al. 2000a, p.398). Mayer and Geher (1996) described three classes of intelligence:

1. The abstract, analytical, and/or verbal intelligences.
2. The mechanical, performance, visual-spatial and/or synthetic intelligences.
3. The less-studied class of social and/or practical intelligences.

High IQ is a human characteristic valued by almost everyone. And it was once thought having a high IQ was all one needed to be successful and fulfil one's potential (Lemann 1999). Achieving a high grade in a test, or having the ability to do well academically, is important. However, John Holt (1964) believed the true test of intelligence was not how much you know how to do, but how you behaved when you didn't know what to do. The author submits that emotionally intelligent people know how to behave when they don't know what to do. Today the reliability and validity of IQ tests are not beyond question (Mayer et al. 2000a, p. 399). We now know qualities such as perseverance, self-discipline, achievement and emotional abilities, are more important than having a high IQ (Caruso & Salovey 2004; Goleman, 1998a, b; Gowing, 2001; Mayer, 2005).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher</th>
<th>Theory/ Basic Ideas</th>
<th>Time Frame/ Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charles Darwin</td>
<td>Origin and evolution of the species.</td>
<td>1809-1882, England</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Francis Galton</td>
<td>Work with human intellect and differences.</td>
<td>1820’s, England</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alfred Binet</td>
<td>One of the first tests of intelligence. Intelligence is fixed at birth; can be measured quantitatively.</td>
<td>1857-1911, France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Dewey</td>
<td>Learning is interactive with environment.</td>
<td>1859-1952, US</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilhelm Stern</td>
<td>System for measuring the ratio of mental age to chronological age = IQ.</td>
<td>1871-1938, University of Berlin. Duke Univ. (1933-38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lewis Terman</td>
<td>Adapted Binet’s work to group tests.</td>
<td>1877-1956, Stanford Univ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sigmund Freud</td>
<td>Personality structure and behavioral research.</td>
<td>Late 1800’s-early 1900’s, University of Vienna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erik Erikson</td>
<td>Personality and emotional development. Student of Freud’s who expanded his theories.</td>
<td>Early to mid 1900’s, University of California, Yale University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jane Loevinger</td>
<td>Ego Development, assistant for Erik Erikson. Gave voice to women’s experience. Her Sentence Completion Test is a method of personality assessment.</td>
<td>Mid to late 1900’s, University of California, Washington University in St. Louis, Mo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hugh Harshorne, Mark May</td>
<td>Character Education...choices to do the right thing are situational.</td>
<td>1920’s, University of Chicago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jean Piaget</td>
<td>Cognitive growth takes place in stages. Cognition is an active and interactive process.</td>
<td>1930-60, working in Switzerland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lev Vygotsky</td>
<td>Hands-on experiences, comprehension important. Developed concept, “zone of proximal growth.”</td>
<td>Mid to late 1900’s, Russia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arnold Gesell</td>
<td>First to claim intellectual growth occurs in varying sequence. Established Institute of Child Development.</td>
<td>1940’s, Yale University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lawrence Kohlberg</td>
<td>Theory of Moral Development. Moral development occurs in sequential stages. Specific age-related stages of growth.</td>
<td>1960’s, University of Chicago, Harvard University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carol Gilligan</td>
<td>Moral development...expansion on Kohlberg’s ideas. Claimed his theory was gender-biased and that human compassion was missing from his ideas.</td>
<td>1936-present, Harvard University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Howard Gardner</td>
<td>Theory of Multiple Intelligences.</td>
<td>1980’s, Harvard University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hans Furtth</td>
<td>Expansion on Piaget’s notion of accommodation and assimilation.</td>
<td>1981, University of Chicago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patricia Arlin</td>
<td>Abstract reasoning, problem solving. Expansion of Piaget’s post-formal operations.</td>
<td>1986, University of British Columbia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antonio Damasio</td>
<td>View of how reason and emotion interact to produce decisions, beliefs, plans for action.</td>
<td>1994, University of Iowa College of Medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daniel Goleman</td>
<td>Developed Theory of Emotional Intelligence.</td>
<td>1995, Harvard University</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mayer et al. (2000a) suggested one alternative to dealing with IQ's limited predictive ability was to redefine intelligence as a combination of mental ability and non-intellective personality traits.

Earlier, Bar-On (1997a) suggested the genesis of emotional intelligence had its roots in 'non-intellective aspects of general intelligence'. Quoting Wechsler (1958), Bar-On (1997b) described general intelligence as, 'The aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his (or her) environment.' (p. 1) Quoting Kaplan & Sadock (1991) Bar-On then defined cognitive intelligence, generally measured by the 'IQ' (or intelligence quotient), as 'The capacity to understand, learn, recall, think rationally, solve problems, and apply what one has learned' (p. 2). Bar-On (1997b) emphasized that emotional intelligence grew out of the non-intellective aspects of general intelligence (competencies), calling his construct EQ – Emotional Quotient. Following Wechsler, Bar-On believed ‘Intelligence describes an aggregate of abilities, competencies, and skills that 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 1997b, p. 3). It is clear the interest in emotional intelligence challenged long-held assumptions of what leads to success in life, bringing 'a more balanced view of the role of cognition and emotion in determining life outcomes' (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003, p. 8). But Ledoux (1994a) argued that an important challenge facing neuroscientists was to determine how thalamic and cortical inputs to the amygdala interact in the initiation and control of emotional responses. Believing these neurological theories to be speculative, at the time, Mayer and Salovey (1993) suggested some sort of integration between affect and thought may occur at a
neurological level (and that) interconnections between certain brain locations may contribute to conceptualization of emotional-motivational patterns' (Mayer & Salovey 1993, p. 438).

Thus, the term emotional intelligence consists of two parts:

1. **Emotions** – Signals that convey meanings about relationships. Some basic emotions are regarded as universal.

2. **Intelligence** – Your ability to reason with, or about, something.

### 2.5 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

It can be summed as Emotional intelligence is 'the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking' (Mayer et al. 2004a, p. 197). Jack Block, a psychologist at the University of California at Berkeley, has made a comparison of two theoretical pure types: people with high IQ verses people with high EQ. (See Figure 12). The profiles differ slightly for men and women. They are extremes; all of us mix IQ and EQ in varying degrees, but the examples offer a look at what each of these dimensions adds separately to a person’s qualities. Jack Block has also compared the High IQ and High EQ between males and females. He lists how the characteristics vary between the genders besides the comparison between High IQ and High EQ.
Figure 12: Theoretical Types - High IQ & High EQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High IQ Male</th>
<th>High EQ Male</th>
<th>High IQ Female</th>
<th>High EQ Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Has an intellectual caricature.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Adept in the realm of the mind.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Inert in the personal world.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ambitious, productive, predictable, untroubled by concerns about self.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Critical, condescending, fastidious, inhibited.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Uneasy with sexuality, sensual experience.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Unexpressive, detached.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Emotionally bland, cold.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Socially poised.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Outgoing, cheerful.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Not fearful or worried.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Can commit to people or causes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Takes responsibility.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has an ethical outlook.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sympathetic, caring in relationships.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Emotional life is rich.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Comfortable with self, others, social universe.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has intellectual confidence.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Fluent in expression of thoughts.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Values intellectual matters.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has a range of aesthetic interests.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Introspective, prone to anxiety, rumination, guilt.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Hesitates to express anger openly...does so indirectly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Assertive, expresses feelings directly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Positive about self.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Life has meaning for her.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Outgoing, gregarious, express self appropriately.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Adapts well to stress.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Social poise...can reach out to people.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Open to sensual experience.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Rarely feels anxiety or guilt.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Jack Block’s comparison of High IQ and High EQ

As mentioned earlier in this thesis, In 1983, Howard Gardner’s groundbreaking book ‘Multiple Intelligences: The Theory in Practice’ was published, and the popular exploration of emotional intelligence began. Gardner’s research suggests that there are seven categories of intelligence that people may possess; among the seven are interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence, which are more popularly known as emotional intelligence. Gardner states that both interpersonal and intrapersonal faculties pass the test of intelligence. In his book, Gardner says, ""A sense of self emerges as one of the most marvellous of human inventions-a symbol that represents all kinds of information about a person and that is at the same time an invention that all individuals construct for themselves" Salevoy’s definition of emotional intelligence includes both inter- and intrapersonal skills, and is outlined in five
domains: knowing one’s emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others, and handling relationships (Salevoy & Sluyter, 1997). As mentioned earlier in this thesis, Mayer & Salovey's (1997) concept of emotional intelligence connects affect (emotion) and cognition (thought) of the three-part division of the mind.

**Figure 13: Mayer & Salovey’s concept of EI**

| REFLECTIVE REGULATION OF EMOTIONS TO PROMOTE EMOTIONAL AND INTELLECTUAL GROWTH |
| Ability to stay open to feelings, both those that are pleasant and those that are unpleasant | Ability to reflectively engage or detach from and emotion depending upon its judged informativeness or utility | Ability to reflectively monitor emotions in relation to oneself and others, such as recognizing how clear, typical, influential, or reasonable they are. |
| UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYZING EMOTIONS; EMPLOYING EMOTIONAL KNOWLEDGE |
| Ability to label emotions and recognize relations among the words and the emotions themselves, such as the relation between liking and loving | Ability to interpret the meanings that emotions convey regarding relationships, such as that sadness often accompanies a loss. | Ability to understand complex feelings; simultaneous feelings of love and hate, or blends such as awe as a combination of fear and surprise. |
| EMOTIONAL FACILITATION OF THINKING |
| Emotions prioritise thinking by directing attention to important information. | Emotions are sufficiently vivid and available that they can be generated as aids to judgement and memory concerning feelings. | Emotional mood swings change the individual’s perspective from optimistic to pessimistic, encouraging consideration of multiple points of view. |

Figure contd…
Similar to Salevoy, Goleman(1995) categorizes emotional intelligence into five different groups: emotional self-awareness, managing emotions, harnessing emotions productively, empathy, and handling relationships. Self-reflective capacities and the ability to recognize what others are thinking and feeling are the core of Jonathan Cohen’s social and emotional learning (SEL) theory (1999). This core provides the foundation for understanding, managing and expressing the social and emotional aspects of life. According to Cohen, social and emotional competencies, or modes of intelligence, define the capacity to solve social and emotional problems and to make something useful that is valued in one or more cultures. These competencies allow people to categorize emotions, to solve social problems creatively, to be effective leaders or collaborators, to be assertive and responsible, and to be able to ask provocative emotional and social questions that lead to new learning (1999).

Finally, David Ryback, through his research on the topic, defines emotional intelligence using four components: sharpening instincts, controlling negative emotions, discovering talents, and management (1998). His research focuses on adults who want to improve their emotional intelligence. Ryback’s characteristics for each of the four components show a relationship with the
previously mentioned researchers and their definitions of emotional intelligence.

Gardner, Salevoy, Goleman, Cohen and Ryback have similar definitions and characterizations of emotional intelligence. Each researcher includes both inter- and intrapersonal aspects of emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence was also variously defined as:

- The intelligent use of emotions: you intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to help guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance your results (Weisinger 1998, p. xvi, 1).

- Involving the ability to understand emotions in oneself and others, relate to peers and family members, and adapt emotionally to changing environmental concerns and demands (Stein, S J, Publisher, Mayer et al. 2002b, p. xiv).

- EI (if it is anything at all) may be a transactional construct reflecting the degree of match between the person's competence and skills, and the adaptive demands of the environments to which the person is exposed (Matthews et al. 2002, p. 531).

- A conceptually related set of abilities to do with one's own and others emotions, specifically; the ability to perceive and express one's own emotions; the ability to perceive and understand the emotions of others; the ability to allow emotions to direct one's own reasoning; the ability to manage one's own emotions; and the ability to manage the emotions of others (Palmer 2003a, p. 184).
• The capacity to deal effectively with one's own and others emotions. When applied to the workplace, emotional intelligence is about thinking intelligently with emotions; perceiving, expressing, understanding and managing emotions in a professional and effective manner at work (Genos 2005).

• Emotional intelligence refers to abilities to do with emotions including (but not limited to), the ability to perceive, understand, utilise and manage one's own and others' emotions (Palmer & Stough 2005).

Emotions are something that everyone feels and to a greater degree, battles with. Gross (1998) explains that emotions can be regulated and managed. Emotion regulation refers to “the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions” (Gross, 1998). It is argued that emotions provide a unique source of information about the environment and facilitate thoughts and actions (Sala, 2005). Therefore, Wong and Law (2002) conclude that people with higher emotional intelligence will be more able to regulate their responses to situations and have better control of their own emotions.

Emotional intelligence still remains an emerging construct in psychology and business (Zeider, Matthews & Roberts, 2004). Emotional intelligence (EI) is an individual’s ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures, so it is argued that EI is an important factor in determining life success. Research (Cooper, 1997, p. 32) suggests that people with high level of emotional intelligence experience more career success, build stronger personal
relations, lead more effectively, and enjoy better health than those with low emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) has been proposed as a complementary measure of human potential (Bar-On, Parker, & Alexander, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). There are two different views of EI: one sees EI as a personality component involving predispositions and tendencies to behave (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Shulman & Hemenover, 2007), the other sees EI as an ability (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Mayer et al., 2000).

Emotional intelligence (EI) exists and has significant impacts on individual and organizational outcomes, ranging from individual performance, health, and psychological well-being, to customer satisfaction and organizational performance (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Schutte, Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Bhullar, & Rooke, 2007). EI from this theoretical perspective refers specifically to the cooperative combination of intelligence and emotion (e.g., Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001). Various authors have theorised that high emotional intelligence would lead to greater feelings of emotional well-being (Goleman, 1995; Saarni, 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995).

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000) proposed four branch hierarchical emotional intelligence model (Figure 12) where they have discussed strategic and experiential emotional intelligence with regards to various abilities of perceiving, assimilating, understanding and regulating emotions.
In *Working with Emotional Intelligence*, Daniel Goleman writes: “Our level of emotional intelligence is not fixed genetically, nor does it develop only in early childhood. Unlike IQ, which changes little after our teen years, emotional intelligence seems to be largely learned, and it continues to develop as we go through life and learn from our experiences—our competence in it can keep growing. In fact, studies that have tracked people’s level of emotional intelligence through the years show that people get better and better in these capabilities as they grow more adept at handling their emotions and impulses, at motivating themselves, and at honing their empathy and social adroitness.

There is an old fashion word for this growth in emotional intelligence: *maturity*” (Goleman, 1998, p. 7). In agreement with Goleman’s assertion about the
relationship between emotional intelligence and experience, there is research that suggests that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and age and work experience. Goleman (1998) argues that by itself, emotional intelligence is not a strong predictor of job success and performance; rather it provides a foundation for competencies that are strong predictors. He makes a distinction between intelligence and competence. Emotional competence refers to the personal skills that lead to superior performance in the working world. Emotional competence is based on emotional intelligence and a certain level of emotional intelligence is necessary to learn the competencies (Goleman, 1998). For instance, the specific ability to recognize what another person is feeling enables one to develop a competency such as influence. Similarly, people who are able to regulate their emotions, find it easier to develop the competencies of initiative and achievement (Cherniss, 2000).

We have discussed various emotional intelligence tests in previous chapter. Emotional intelligence tests have been criticized on the grounds that they measure constructs that are primarily covered by personality tests and have been shown to produce significant correlations with personality measures (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Dawda & Hart, 2000; Newsome et al., 2000; Schutte et al., 1998).

### 2.6 ROLE OF EQ IN ORGANIZATIONS

Multinational organizations require a cadre of skilled managers and employees to be effective in their global operations. One competency that has received
increased attention and is believed to be important to worker effectiveness is that of emotional intelligence (Kelley & Caplan, 1993; Sosik & Megerian, 1999; Sternberg, 1996). The organisation by which people are employed offers opportunities for experiencing numerous emotions affecting employees’ thoughts, feelings, and actions, both in the workplace and when they are away from it (Brief & Weiss, 2002). The centrality of these emotions to work life have, however, largely been ignored and not openly discussed (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Burke, Brief, George, Roberson, and Webster (1989) and Fisher (2000) concur that there are relatively few studies on emotions experienced at work and that the influence of the work context on affective experience is largely unexplored. Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann and Hirst (2002) argue that progress in the understanding of organisational behaviour is hampered by a failure to consider the bounded emotionality aspects of human behaviour in addition to bounded rationality aspects.

On a theoretical level Muchinsky (2000, p. 801) purports: “The specialized field of industrial organizational (IO) psychology has generally followed the path of its parent discipline psychology in its neglect of emotions”. The upsurge of the academic interest in mood and affect within social psychology is mainly attributed to Isen and her colleagues’ work (e.g. Isen & Means, 1983). This interest flowed over to the organisational and workplace setting where examining affect and mood also became important. Scholars recorded its significance, both in the late 1980’s and 1990’s (c.f. Ashkanasy, et al., 2002).

Revans (1983) says that in any epoch of rapid change, those organisations which are unable to adapt will soon find themselves in trouble, and adaptation
is achieved only by learning, namely, by being able to do tomorrow that which might have been unnecessary today. Similarly, Zuboff (1988) observes that today’s organizations may indeed have little choice but to become a ‘learning institution’. Emotions spread like viruses through an organization, but not all emotions spread easily (Goleman, 2002). Research has shown that cheerfulness and warmth spread most easily, while irritability is less contagious and depression hardly moves around at all. Huber (1991) believes that organizational learning consists of four major constructs: knowledge acquisition, information distribution, information interpretation, and organizational memory. Just as with individuals, organizations must always confront the novel aspect of their circumstances. According to Michie and West (2004), the way a job is designed and people are managed, influences an employees’ emotional and physical well-being, their attitude to their job and the organization, as well as their performance and behaviour at work. (Cohen and Sproull, 1991)

In a number of empirical investigations, it has been observed that emotional intelligence and its related competencies are associated with excellence in personal, interpersonal, and organisational goals. Boyatzis (1982) says that in top performing managers and executives, the drive of personal ambition is held in check by strong self-control and focused towards collective goals. BarOn (2000) analysed the scores on over 77,000 administrations of the Emotion Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) and found that while men and women did not differ on the total EI, women did score significantly higher than men on empathy, interpersonal relationships, and social responsibility, while men scored higher than women on self-actualisation, assertiveness, stress tolerance, impulse control, and adaptability. A meta-analysis of the studies conducted by Eagly
and Johnson (1990) found females to have better social skills and to be described as “interested in other people.” Women leaders as a group, when compared to male leaders as a group, tend to be described as more friendly, pleasant, and socially sensitive (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). Further, Goleman (1995) believes that males and females have their own personal profiles of strengths and weaknesses for emotional intelligence capacities. But studies conducted by Mayer et al (1999) and Mayer and Geher (1996) indicate that women score higher on measure of emotional intelligence than men. While the current research findings do not provide a consistent pattern of gender effects across all raters, but females being rated significantly higher on several competencies, in particular by peer raters, is interesting. In a nutshell, it may be asserted that emotional intelligence of the employees helps them to be productive in whatever roles and responsibilities that they have been asked to perform at workplace. It is also believed that the role of emotional intelligence in both individual as well as organisational effectiveness has started taking due importance by the top-level management across the globe.

The role of emotion in organisations has been widely articulated in the literature, reflecting both the social-constructionist standpoint (Finemen, 1993, 1996; Hochschild, 1979, 1983) and the psychodynamic exploration of emotion at work (French and Vince, 1999; Hirschhorn, 1988; Hoggett, 1992; Kets de Vries and Miller, 1985; Obholzer and Roberts, 1994; Trist and Murray, 1990). Individual contributors in organizations usually do not have leadership or managerial responsibilities. During the course of their work day, events lead to the experience of a wide range of emotions, e.g., joy, worry, love, frustration, that can have an effect on one’s work performance (Ashkanasy, 2003). Because
most jobs involve the need to interact with other people, some of these emotions may occur during interpersonal interactions (Côté & Miners, 2006). Brown and Msohavi (2005) have proposed that EI may be the “X-factor” that advances and reinvigorates a more complete understanding of leader social influence and may be the key antecedent to transformational leadership

Huy (1999) labels organizational emotional intelligence “emotional capability,” defined as an organization’s ability to acknowledge, recognise, monitor, discriminate, and attend to its members’ emotions. Like team-level emotional intelligence, it is manifested in an organization’s norms, routines, and emotional display rules. Indeed, Ashkanasy and his colleagues are finding emerging evidence that a similar construct they label “emotional climate” affects organizational performance (Ashkanasy, 2003; Ashkanasy & Nicholson, 2003).

Any organization wishing to thrive through change must make the choice to promote, and allow employee expressions of emotional intelligence (Hunton et al, 1998; Robertson et al, 1999). It has also been found that by demonstrating self-awareness, persistence, and leadership qualities (Cherniss, 1998) and great focus (Martinez-Pons, 1997) that emotionally intelligent employees can be a model for others. Organizational learning is more effective if enacted by emotionally intelligent employees within clear operating boundaries such as those offered by participation in decision-making (Scott-Ladd and Chan, 2004).

Organizational awareness is a term shared by Goleman’s model of emotional intelligence. Goleman (1998) defines organization awareness as the ability to read the emotions and political realities of groups in order to gain insight into group and organizational hierarchies, a definition similar to that of the Public
Service organizational awareness competency. There is accumulating evidence that EI abilities and traits influence job satisfaction (e.g., Carmeli, 2003; Sy, Tram, & O’Hara, 2006). Emotional intelligence has been considered as a predictor of job performance (Johnson & Indvik, 1999). Zeng and Miller (2002) in their another research suggested that EI can be useful to predict job performance, particularly in jobs that require a proactive persona, or a customer service job, a job that includes a high amount of stress, or one that requires leadership and poise. The employees having EI competencies manage their negative emotions in the workplace and report fewer psychological problems with high levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Gardner, 2005). Mayer et al. (2004) argued for developing the emotional intelligence of individuals in the work place, and thereby the organization as a whole. Matthews et al. (2002) argue, 'emotions may influence work-related cognitive and motivational processes, which, in turn, affect task and social behaviour, and performance outcomes’.

Emotional Intelligence accounts for more than 85 percent of exceptional performance in top leaders” (HayGroup, 2000). A Gallup Organization study of two million employees at seven hundred companies found that how long an employee stays at a company and how productive she is there is determined by her relationship with her immediate supervisor (Zipkin, 2000).
The left-hand portion of the model below (Figure 16), illustrates three organizational factors that are interrelated. Each of these factors influences emotional intelligence through its impact on relationships, and each factor influences the other two. Goleman presents data showing how the emotional intelligence of organizational leadership influences organizational effectiveness through its impact on organizational climate. The model suggests two important implications for practice. First, any effort to improve the EI of organizational members will ultimately fail unless it affects naturally occurring relationships among those members. Boyatzis and Kram note, individuals bring
into the organization values, aspirations, and developmental histories that influence their response to EI promotion efforts.

**Figure 16 : A Model of Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Effectiveness**

The rich and insightful book Emotional Intelligence for Managing Results in a Diverse World explores this question and more, while highlighting the value of diversity and inclusion, and providing clear, practical tools and examples on how EI can help your career and your organization. According to Diggins [20], the best managers need to possess EI to make decisions based on a combination of self management, relationship skills and awareness of their behaviour's effects on others in the organization.
2.7 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND WORKPLACE SUCCESS

The following quote from the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations (2003, p. 1) further explains:

“Social and individual competencies are vital for a healthy and productive life. Personal awareness, optimism, and empathy can enhance personal satisfaction and productivity at work, and in other aspects of life. The workplace is the ideal setting for the promotion of these competencies in adults because work plays a central role in their lives. Not only do most of us spend the largest portion of our waking hours at work, but our self-esteem, identity, and well-being are strongly affected by our work experiences.” Jordan et al. (2002) reported that lower emotional intelligence levels contributed to reactions being more negative in the form of job insecurity and lower coping strategies. Conversely, higher levels have been found to generate positive interpersonal relations with others (George, 2000). Employees enthusiastically may take on organizationally prescribed roles but they also make friends, experience frustrations and have to present themselves differently to customers or clients, which implies that there are no definite divides between the public and private worlds of emotions (Bolton, 2005).

Goleman (2002) claims that people who rise to the top of their fields, whether its psychology, law, medicine, or engineering, are not just good at their jobs. They are affable, resilient, and optimistic. In other words, it takes more than traditional cognitive intelligence to be successful at work. It also takes the
ability to restrain negative feelings such as anger or self-doubt and focus instead on positive ones such as confidence and congeniality (Murray, 1998). Studies of close to 500 organizations worldwide indicate that people who score highest on measures of emotional intelligence rise to the top of corporations (Murray, 1998).

Social exchange theorists have reasoned that employment is a trade-off between effort and loyalty, and tangible and social rewards (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Brief & Motowildo, 1986; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). In addition, employees tend to personify the organisation (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). Emotional intelligence (EI) contributes to a number of important workplace performance indicators, such as: leadership style and effectiveness (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Palmer, Gardner & Stough, 2003); creativity, problem solving and workplace innovation (Jordan & Troth, 2004); interpersonal skills and the capacity to foster positive relationships with work colleagues (Ciarrochi, Forgas & Mayer, 2001; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Jordan & Troth, 2004; Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter & Buckley, 2003); motivation and enthusiasm (Abraham, 2004; Carmeli & Josman, 2006; Gardner & Stough, 2003); and team productivity (Ilarda & Findlay, 2006; Prati et al., 2003). “Positive emotions can transform organizations because they broaden people’s habitual modes of thinking, and in doing so make organization members more flexible, empathic, creative, and so on” (Cameron, Dutton, Quinn, 2003, p. 174). “The bottom-line message is that people should cultivate positive emotions in themselves and those around them, not just as an end-state in themselves, but also as a means to achieving psychological growth and improved psychological and physical well-being over time” (Fredrickson, 2004, p. 1367).
Gardner and Hatch (1989) noted that, “Many people with IQs of 160 work for people with IQs of 100, if the former have poor interpersonal intelligence and the latter have a high one. And in the day to day world no intelligence is more important than the interpersonal. If you don’t have it, you’ll make poor choices about who to marry, what job to take, and so on.”

As Goleman (1998, p. 19) states, “When IQ test scores are correlated with how well people perform in their careers the highest estimate of how much difference IQ accounts for is about 25 percent” (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Schmidt & Hunter, 1981).

Goleman’s theory is rooted in data from decades of inductive qualitative competency research carried out by McClelland and his former students (see Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). That research revealed that competencies falling theoretically under the categories of: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills were significantly more often demonstrated by the highest performing managers than the competencies theoretically categorized as “cognitive” (e.g., systems thinking, pattern recognition). At a later time, Goleman and his colleague Richard Boyatzis developed a self- and other- report survey (i.e., 360 degrees) that assesses perceived demonstration of the competencies in the model (see Sala, 2002; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000). Brackett, Mayer, and Warner (2004) concluded that low scores on EI were associated with poor quality peer relations. Suliman and Al-Shaikh (2007) revealed that employees with higher levels of EI were found to report higher levels of readiness to create and innovate. The HayGroup (2005), with which Goleman is associated, promoted emotional intelligence for star performance: 'Emotional intelligence is twice as
important as IQ plus technical skills. Emotional intelligence is more than 85 percent of what sets star performers from the average. Welch (2003) proposed that teams high on EI are likely to have far more initiative in dealing with organizational challenges and are sensitive to change. Langhorn (2004) explored whether managerial emotional intelligence was related to team satisfaction. The study was done with 161 general managers in the restaurant sector of leisure industry. Their emotional intelligence was measured with Bar-On’s EQi. The results showed that managerial emotional intelligence was able to predict team satisfaction with a reasonable degree of accuracy.

A study of store managers in a retail chain found that being able to handle stress was a predictor of net profits, sales per employee, sales per square foot, and per dollar of inventory investment (Lusch & Serpkenci, 1990). Sy, Tram, and O’Hara (2006) investigated the impact of employees’ emotional intelligence on job satisfaction and the effect of the interaction between managers’ emotional intelligence and employees’ EI on job satisfaction. Hierarchical regression analysis implied that employees’ EI predicted job satisfaction. In a study by Kernbach and Schutte (2005) the influence of service providers’ emotional intelligence on customer satisfaction was experimentally examined. The scale developed by Schutte et al. (1998) was used to assess service providers’ emotional intelligence. The study results revealed that higher emotional intelligence in service providers lead to greater customer satisfaction. Studies have revealed that performance in the workplace is influenced by a number of variables like motivation (Suh & Shin, 2005), satisfaction with job security (Yousef, 1998), personality (Berry, Page, & Sackett, 2007), general intelligence (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000), and emotional intelligence (Higgs, 2004;
A study indicated that 16% variance in individual success in organizational setting is explained through managerial intelligence, 27% by IQ, and an even higher 36% by emotional intelligence (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000).

According to Bagshaw (2000), emotional intelligence is being able to harness emotions effectively; hence, it plays a significant role in business success. Based on a considerable body of research, Cherniss (2000) suggested that a person’s ability to perceive, identify and manage emotions provides the basis for the kinds of social and emotional competencies that are important for success in almost any job. A study by Lam and Kirby (2002) investigated that whether emotional intelligence and its distinct emotional reasoning abilities contribute positively to individual cognitive-based performance over and above the level explained by general intelligence. The regression results indicated that, overall emotional intelligence and its sub-components namely perceiving emotions and regulating emotions all contributed positively to individual cognitive-based performance. Rosete and Ciarrochi’s (2005) study investigated the relationship between EI, cognitive intelligence and leadership effectiveness. According to results, EI was related to a leader’s effectiveness in being able to achieve organizational goals. Additionally, it was revealed that EI may be useful in identifying who is and is not likely to deal effectively with colleagues and staff. In studies by Slaski and Cartwright (2002) and Dulewicz, et al. (2003), the relationship of employees’ emotional intelligence with management performance was examined. It was found that emotional intelligence was positively correlated with managerial performance. Deeter-Schmelz, and Sozka (2003) undertook a qualitative exploratory study to
find a possible link between emotional intelligence and sales success. The findings suggested that emotional intelligence might be an important characteristic for sales success. Bachman, Stein, Campbel, and Sitarenios (2000) compared the emotional intelligence scores of successful and less successful accounts officers. The analysis strongly suggested that higher levels of emotional intelligence lead to increased cash goal attainment. In another study, Higgs (2004) examined the association between emotional intelligence and call center agents’ performance. Correlation analysis indicated that emotional intelligence was significantly related to call center agents’ performance. Sy et al. (2006) examined the impact of employees’ emotional intelligence on job performance. Results of hierarchical regression analysis revealed that employees’ EI positively predicted job performance.

Deshpande, Joseph, and Shu (2005) examined the impact of emotional intelligence on counterproductive behaviour of students and managers in China. The study revealed a significant difference in aggregate counterproductive behaviour between high and low emotional intelligence groups; thus, suggesting that high emotionally intelligent people tend to be better corporate citizens and hold better ethical attitudes toward their firm and work. Carmeli (2003) and Carson, Carson, Fontenot, and Burdin (2005) investigated the relationship of organizational citizenship behaviour with emotional intelligence. The results revealed that organizational citizenship behaviour was positively correlated with emotional intelligence. The results of Rooy and Viswesvaran’s (2004) study suggest that emotional intelligence measures have a predictive validity for performance in more than 90% of the situations, but the exact magnitude varies by situation.
2.8 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP

“Leaders we admire all build relationships and inspire us to give our best. Even though managers can be leaders it is not their managerial talent that inspires you to think of them as leaders. Usually, it is an interpersonal skill, a behaviour that is expressed in such a way that it elicits our choice to follow, to be influenced, to admire unselfconsciously”. – John Nirenberg (2003).

Leadership may be regarded as the single most important factor in organizational success or failure (Bass, 1990) and much research has been devoted to identify the determinants of effective leadership (Yukl, 1998).

One definition of leadership (Northouse 2001) states that it is “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal”, however, from the various leadership literature, there seems to be no consensus for the definition of leadership (Smith and Hughey 2006).

According to Covey (1989), leadership has been termed a high-powered right brain activity. It is an art, based on philosophy. It is creative and humanistic. Leadership is a process; something to be learned over time. It is more tribal than scientific; more a weaving of patterns and relationships than a gathering of information (DePree, 1989). “The real act of discovery consists not in finding new lands, but in seeing with new eyes” (Ryebac, 1998). The continuous environment of turmoil and change has been coined the “permanent white waters” of modern life (Vaill, 1996). Leadership is a key element in driving and managing these “white waters”. One only needs to look at the recent corporate scandals such as Enron and WorldCom and a corporate success such as Dell
Computer to see that leadership makes a difference. Effective leaders are those that get results within timeframes that are considered appropriate for their industries and stakeholders (Goleman, 2000). Examples include Chrysler Corporation and their recovery under Lee Iacocca, Gillette under the leadership of Colman Mockler and Kimberly-Clark during the years of Darwin Smith’s tenure (Collins, J., 2001).

“Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal: Great leadership works through the emotions” (Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee, 2002).

The study of leadership, its effectiveness and its impact on organizational performance is a key interest to Human Resource Development (HRD) scholars (Hamlin, 2003; Holton & Lynham, 2000; Kuchinke, 2000; Zehner & Holton III, 2003). Important leadership traits have been found to include emotional balance and control (Bass, 1990) and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998). Leaders’ ability to respond both appropriately and in an effective way in a given context, significantly impacts individuals, groups, and organisational outcomes (Bass, 1990)

Cacioppe (1997) holds the opinion that successful leaders have the ability to manage their own emotions while being responsive to others’ emotions. He believes leaders who are capable of regulating their own emotions may be more able to create an environment of fairness and trust. Emotional intelligence has been shown to have a strong link with Transformational Leadership. Emotionally intelligent leadership does indeed “see with new eyes” and is teaching us new and better ways to manage and deal with people; not only in
the workplace, but at home, at school, and in other areas of society. Being a strong leader is not just about being intelligent; it is more a construct of the relationships we form at work, home, school, and elsewhere in society (Goleman 2002).

George’s (2000) study shows how emotions are intertwined with traits and stimulates the cognitive processes and decision-making highlighting the relevance of both emotions and traits for leadership effectiveness. Dr. Harvey Silver, a leading management consultant in Canada, has said that, “Around one-third of a leader’s success is based on IQ and expertise, the other two-thirds on EQ (EI)” (Tomlinson, 2002, p. 7). This does closely parallel research into the importance of EI in career success (Dulewicz, & Higgs, 2000).

During the past two decades, no psychological concept has had a greater influence on leadership development than emotional intelligence (Lojoie, 2002), but as early as the 1940s research indicated a relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence. Utilizing the connection of emotion and leadership, Sosik and Megerian (1999) studied the relationship between transformational leadership behaviour, emotional intelligence and leader effectiveness. They collected data from 63 managers who responded about their transformational leadership behaviour and emotional intelligence, 192 subordinates who rated their manager’s transformational leadership behaviour and performance outcomes and 63 superiors who rated managerial performance. They found that categorizations of self-awareness were correlated between emotional intelligence of leadership and leadership behaviour. Subordinate ratings of transformational leadership behaviour were positively related to those leaders categorized as self-aware. They concluded “managers who maintain self-awareness (self-other rating agreement) possess more aspects
of emotional intelligence and are rated as more effective by both superiors and subordinates than those who are not self-aware” (Sosik & Megerian, 1999, p. 386). This study explained the influence of several aspects of emotional intelligence on leader effectiveness.

The Ohio State Leadership Studies suggested that “consideration” was an important aspect of effective leadership. More specifically, this research suggested that leaders who are able to establish “mutual trust, respect, and a certain warmth and rapport” with members of their group will be more effective (Fleishman & Harris, 1962). Bachman (1988) found that the most effective leaders in the US Navy were warmer, more outgoing, emotionally expressive, dramatic, and sociable. Being a leader means trusting one’s instincts, when doing leadership tasks and when acting as a leader (van Linden & Fertman, 1998) Leaders who are able to understand and manage their emotions and display self control act as role models for followers, enhancing the followers trust and respect for the leader. This contagion is carried over to the collaborative team.

“The ability to manage emotions and relationships permits the emotionally intelligent leader to understand followers’ needs and to react accordingly” (Gardner, Stough, 2002). A leader high in emotional intelligence is able to accurately appraise 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 organization” (Gardner, Stough, 2002, p. 70). “Leaders who are able to use emotions to guide decision-making are able to motivate subordinates by engaging in activities facilitated by emotions, and are able to encourage open-minded idea generation, decision
making and planning, because they can consider multiple points of view” (Gardner, Stough, 2002).

EI-based leadership is based around the concept of emotional contagion (see Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1992; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994; Neumann & Strack, 2000; Wild, Erb, & Bartels, 2001), which refers to the ‘contagiousness’ of emotions where moods and emotions of one individual are transferred to nearby individuals (Caruso et al., 2002; Goleman et al., 2002; Kelly & Barsade, 2001). Through relatively automatic and unconscious mimicking and synchronisation of facial expressions, vocalisations, postures, and movements with those of another person (Kelly & Barsade, 2001), emotional synchronization (Goleman et al., 2002) occurs. Newcombe and Ashkanasy’s (2002) study of subordinates’ perceptions of leaders found that a leader’s positively expressed emotion led to higher member ratings of the leader, and that members’ perceptions of leaders are associated with the level of congruency between the leader’s verbal message and their nonverbally expressed emotion. Subordinates’ level of positive affect was highly influenced by leaders’ emotional and affect expression (Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002).

For the ability to identify and understand the emotions of others in the workplace is important for leaders so that they can influence the feeling of subordinates to maintain enthusiasm, productivity, and organizational effectiveness (Gardner, Stough, 2002). “Given that the key components of the collaborative process are inherently emotional in nature, leaders who are successful in developing collaborative work cultures may be those who are able to manage, rather than deny, their emotional selves” (Slater, 2005, p. 330). “Given that the key components of the collaborative process are inherently emotional in nature, leaders who are successful in developing collaborative
work cultures may be those who are able to manage, rather than deny, their emotional selves” (Slater, 2005, p. 330).

According to Marc Michaelson of Glowan Consulting Group, the reason is simple: emotional intelligence is a prerequisite for effective leadership. “The best, most successful leaders master their own states of being before they try to lead others,” Michaelson says. “They know with great clarity and conviction who they are, what they believe, and how they wish to behave.”

Weiss (2003) in an analysis of the foundations of effective leadership outlined how leaders show energy, generate ideas, respond to others, and take command of situations in which coordination is critical. When considering leadership in 2004, a Wall Street Journal Gallup poll (Culpan, 1987) of 782 CEO’s from the largest corporations in the U.S. reported the following strengths and weaknesses of leaders:

**Strengths**

- Integrity
- Ability to get along with others
- Industriousness
- Intelligence
- Business knowledge
- Leadership
- Education

**Weaknesses**

- Limited point of view
Inability to understand others
Inability to work with others
Indecisiveness
Lack of initiative
Failure to take responsibility
Lack of integrity

Therefore, it appears that many of the traits of an effective leader are based on core personal traits and behaviours, together with skills in how to relate with others.

Leaders need to be aware of the areas they are strong in as well as those where they need to develop or to work with someone who will complement their style. Bennis (1982) on the other hand, has identified the following five traits of ‘super’ leaders based on interview data. These are:

- Vision
- Communication
- Persistence
- Empowerment
- Organisational ability

Leadership is about building long-term feelings of trust in relationships (Mann 2003, p. 19). But leadership is not just for leaders leading at the top anymore (Chopra 2004; Goldsmith & Morgan 2004). Emotional leadership is inside out; learning and applying emotionally intelligent behaviours that gain long-term trust in business, professional, and social relationships (Gosling & Gosling 2004).
Goleman (2002) states “the fundamental task of leaders is to prime good feeling in those they lead,” and that occurs, he says, “when a leader creates resonance; a reservoir of positivity that frees the best in people. At its root, the primal job of leadership is emotional” (p. 1)

As far back as 1981, psychologists Howard Friedman and Ronald Riggio found that even completely nonverbal expressiveness can affect other people. For example, when three strangers sit facing one another in silence for a minute or two, the most emotionally expressive of the three transmits his or her mood to the other two—without a single word being spoken.

The complementary transformational/transactional leadership model (Bass, 1990) is the general framework used for examining the empirical relationships between emotional intelligence and effective leadership (Gardner & Stough, 2002). Burns (1978) distinguishes the transformational leader as one who raises the needs and motivations of followers and promotes change/development in individuals, groups and organisations, and the transactional leader as one who meets subordinates’ current needs by focus on extrinsically motivated based exchanges (Gardner & Stough, 2002). Bass (1990) defines the transformational leader as “one who arouses awareness and interest in the group or organisation, increases the confidence of the individuals or groups, and attempts to move the concerns of subordinates to achievement and growth rather than existence” (Gardner & Stough, 2002, p. 68).

Cavallo & Brienza (2000) conducted a study on 358 managers across the Johnson & Johnson Consumer & Personal Care Group globally to distinguish leadership competencies of successful performers from low performers. 1400
employees were also surveyed to measure perceived successful leadership competencies, particularly those of emotional intelligence. A strong relationship was found between superior performing leaders and emotional competence, which suggests that emotional intelligence is a distinguishing factor in effective leadership (Cavallo & Brienza, 2000). Extending Palmer et al’s (2001) methodology and studying 110 senior level managers, Gardner and Stough (2002) found that EI correlated highly with all components of transformational leadership and the strongest correlation was found between individual consideration and understanding emotions external (Gardner & Stough, 2002). Examining leadership styles and emotional intelligence of 49 managers, Barling et al. (2000) concluded that emotional intelligence is positively related to three components of transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration) and contingent reward (a component of transactional leadership).

Daniel Goleman, Richard Boyatzis, and Annie McKee (2001) in December issue of Harvard Business Review talks about the investigation that was designed in part to look at how emotional intelligence drives performance—in particular, at how it travels from the leader through the organization to bottom-line results. “What mechanism,” we asked, “binds the chain together?” To answer that question, we turned to the latest neurological and psychological research. We also drew on our work with business leaders, observations by our colleagues of hundreds of leaders, and Hay Group data on the leadership styles of thousands of executives. From this body of research, we discovered that emotional intelligence is carried through an organization like electricity through wires. To be more specific, the leader’s mood is quite literally contagious, spreading quickly and inexorably throughout the business.
In ‘Primal Leadership’ Goleman has mapped the emotional intelligence competencies for Leadership.

Leadership Competencies (Daniel Goleman’s Primal Leadership)

**SELF-AWARENESS**

- *Emotional self-awareness.* Leaders high in emotional self-awareness are attuned to their inner signals, recognizing how their feelings affect them and their job performance. They are attuned to their guiding values and can often intuit the best course of action, seeing the big picture in a complex situation. Emotionally
self-aware leaders can be candid and authentic, able to speak openly about their emotions or with conviction about their guiding vision.

• *Accurate self-assessment.* Leaders with high self-awareness typically know their limitations and strengths, and exhibit a sense of humor about themselves. They exhibit a gracefulness in learning where they need to improve, and welcome constructive criticism and feedback. Accurate self-assessment lets a leader know when to ask for help and where to focus in cultivating new leadership strength.

• *Self-confidence.* Knowing their abilities with accuracy allows leaders to play to their strengths. Self-confident leaders can welcome a difficult assignment. Such leaders often have a sense of presence, a self-assurance that lets them stand out in a group.

**SELF-MANAGEMENT**

• *Self-control.* Leaders with emotional self-control find ways to manage their disturbing emotions and impulses, and even to channel them in useful ways. A hallmark of self-control is the leader who stays calm and clear-headed under high stress or during a crisis - or who remains unflappable even when confronted by a trying situation.

• *Transparency.* Leaders who are transparent live their values. Transparency – an authentic openness to others about one's feelings, beliefs, and actions – allows integrity. Such leaders openly admit mistakes or faults, and confront unethical behaviour in others rather than turn a blind eye.

• *Adaptability.* Leaders who are adaptable can juggle multiple demands without losing their focus or energy, and are comfortable with the inevitable ambiguities of organizational life. Such leaders can be flexible in adapting to new
challenges, nimble in adjusting to fluid change, and limber in their thinking in the face of new data or realities.

- **Achievement.** Leaders with strength in achievement have high personal standards that drive them to constantly seek performance improvements - both for themselves and those they lead. They are pragmatic, setting measurable but challenging goals, and are able to calculate risk so that their goals are worthy but attainable. A hallmark of achievement is in continually learning - and teaching - ways to do better.

- **Initiative.** Leaders who have a sense of efficacy - that they have what it takes to control their own destiny - excel in initiative. They seize opportunities - or create them - rather than simply waiting. Such a leader does not hesitate to cut through red tape, or even bend the rules, when necessary to create better possibilities for the future.

- **Optimism.** A leader who is optimistic can roll with the punches, seeing an opportunity rather than a threat in a setback. Such leaders see others positively, expecting the best of them. And their "glass half-full" outlook leads them to expect that changes in the future will be for the better.

**SOCIAL AWARENESS**

- **Empathy.** Leaders with empathy are able to attune to a wide range of emotional signals, letting them sense the felt, but unspoken, emotions in a person or group. Such leaders listen attentively and can grasp the other person's perspective. Empathy makes a leader able to get along well with people of diverse backgrounds or from other cultures.

- **Organizational awareness.** A leader with a keen social awareness can be politically astute, able to detect crucial social networks and read key power relationships.
Such leaders can understand the political forces at work in an organization, as well as the guiding values and unspoken rules that operate among people there.

• **Service.** Leaders high in the service competence foster an emotional climate so that people directly in touch with the customer or client will keep the relationship on the right track. Such leaders monitor customer or client satisfaction carefully to ensure they are getting what they need. They also make themselves available as needed.

**RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT**

• **Inspiration.** Leaders who inspire both create resonance and move people with a compelling vision or shared mission. Such leaders embody what they ask of others, and are able to articulate a shared mission in a way that inspires others to follow. They offer a sense of common purpose beyond the day-to-day tasks, making work exciting.

• **Influence.** Indicators of a leader’s powers of influence range from finding just the right appeal for a given listener to knowing how to build buy-in from key people and a network of support for an initiative. Leaders adept in influence are persuasive and engaging when they address a group.

• **Developing others.** Leaders who are adept at cultivating people’s abilities show a genuine interest in those they are helping along, understanding their goals, strengths, and weaknesses. Such leaders can give timely and constructive feedback and are natural mentors or coaches.

• **Change catalyst.** Leaders who can catalyze change are able to recognize the need for the change, challenge the status quo, and champion the new order. They can be strong advocates for the change even in the face of opposition, making the argument for it compellingly. They also find practical ways to overcome barriers to change.
• **Conflict management.** Leaders who manage conflicts best are able to draw out all parties, understand the differing perspectives, and then find a common ideal that everyone can endorse. They surface the conflict, acknowledge the feelings and views of all sides, and then redirect the energy toward a shared ideal.

• **Teamwork and collaboration.** Leaders who are able team players generate an atmosphere of friendly collegiality and are themselves models of respect, helpfulness, and cooperation. They draw others into active, enthusiastic commitment to the collective effort, and build spirit and identity. They spend time forging and cementing close relationships beyond mere work obligations.

Caruso *et al.* (in press) have also discussed theoretical relationships between emotional intelligence and effective leadership and have hypothesised specifically how emotional intelligence facilitates the functioning of an effective leader. These hypothesised relationships are derived from Mayer and Salovey’s (1997) four-branch model of emotional intelligence (identifying emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions). Within this model Caruso *et al.* (in press) propose that greater self-awareness influences performance, and therefore the ability to identify emotion allows the leader to be aware of their own emotions and the emotions of subordinates, assisting them to differentiate between honest and false emotions in others. Caruso *et al.* argue that leaders who are able to use emotions to guide decision making are able to motivate subordinates by engaging in activities facilitated by emotions, and are able to encourage open-minded idea generation, decision making and planning, because they can consider multiple points of view.

Understanding emotion is also considered to be important to effective leadership, because it provides the leader with the ability to understand their
own and other people’s point of view (Caruso et al., in press). Finally these authors also suggest that the ability to successfully manage emotions allows the leader to handle the stress of the job, the frustrations, disappointments and joys.

2.9 EQ APPLICABILITY TO EVERYDAY LIVING

Several studies have found that emotional intelligence can have a significant impact on various elements of everyday living. Palmer, Donaldson, and Stough (2002) found that higher emotional intelligence was a predictor of life satisfaction. Additionally, Pellitteri (2002) reported that people higher in emotional intelligence were also more likely to use an adaptive defence style and thus exhibited healthier psychological adaptation.

Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) found that higher emotional intelligence correlated significantly with higher parental warmth and attachment style, while others found that those scoring high in E.I. also reported increased positive interpersonal relationships among children, adolescents, and adults (Rice, 1999; Rubin, 1999). Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) found that lower emotional intelligence was associated with lower self-reports of violent and trouble-prone behaviour among college students, a correlation which remained significant even when the effects of intelligence and empathy were partialed out. Carroll (1993) suggested that an individual who is low on an ability that is related to performance can compensate for that weakness by being high on a different ability that is also related to performance. Likewise, Viswesvaran and Ones (2002) hinted that some individual difference characteristics may compensate for low cognitive intelligence.
In Figure 18, each row corresponds to one of the ‘significance modes’ that evolution has equipped us with. Across each row run the different aspects of that mode: what kind of archetypal event triggers it; how it feels; how it alters the ‘default settings’ of body and mind; how you tend to react behaviourally; the effect that it has on others around you; what successful resolution feels like; and I’ve also illustrated one of the ways in which the mode can go wrong.

**Figure 18: Some of the basic emotional systems**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trigger</th>
<th>Feeling</th>
<th>Reaction</th>
<th>Signal</th>
<th>Resolution</th>
<th>Pathology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alarm</td>
<td>Distress</td>
<td>Wriggle/cry</td>
<td>‘Help!’</td>
<td>Comfort</td>
<td>Hysteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threat ( escapable)</td>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>Flight/focus</td>
<td>‘Look there!’</td>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>Phobia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threat to resource</td>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>Fight/intimidate</td>
<td>‘Back off!’</td>
<td>Triumph</td>
<td>Chronic aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irretrievable loss</td>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>Withdraw/mope</td>
<td>‘Leave me alone’</td>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>Depression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depletion</td>
<td>Tiredness</td>
<td>Rest</td>
<td>‘Do not disturbi!’</td>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>Exhaustion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toxicity</td>
<td>Disgust</td>
<td>Close senses/expel</td>
<td>‘Avoid this!’</td>
<td>Relief</td>
<td>Compulsion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novelty</td>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Investigate/learn</td>
<td>‘Look at this!’</td>
<td>Mastery/power</td>
<td>Recklessness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disruption</td>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>Startle/vigilance</td>
<td>‘Trouble!’</td>
<td>Clarity/purpose</td>
<td>Anxiety disorder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource</td>
<td>Desire</td>
<td>Appropriate/consume</td>
<td>‘That’s mine!’</td>
<td>Satiation</td>
<td>Obsession</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Association of Teachers & Lecturers, University of Bristol.*

EI is a psychological formation that takes shape over the course of a person’s life under the influence of a number of factors that affect its level and individual features. It is possible to point to three groups of such factors (Figure 19).
2.10 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TRAINING IN ORGANIZATIONS

There are three clusters of competencies differentiating outstanding from average performers in many countries of the world (Bray et al., 1974; Boyatzis, 1982; Kotter, 1982; Luthans et. al., 1988; Howard and Bray, 1988; Campbell et al., 1970; Spencer and Spencer, 1993; Goleman, 1998; Goleman et al., 2002). They are:

(1) Cognitive competencies, such as systems thinking and pattern recognition;
(2) Emotional intelligence competencies, including self-awareness and self-management competencies, such as emotional self-awareness and emotional self-control; and

(3) Social intelligence competencies, including social awareness and relationship management competencies, such as empathy and teamwork

Current interest in "emotional intelligence" has raised the question of whether it is possible to improve the social and emotional competence of adult workers. Research in training and development, sports psychology, and behaviour change suggests that it is possible. Boyatzis (1999) reported the successful use of EI within a multinational consulting firm to assess experienced partners. The partners who scored above the median on 9 or more of the 20 competencies delivered $1.2 million (US) more profit from their accounts compared to other partners. Training and development efforts in industry have not always distinguished between cognitive learning and emotional learning, but such a distinction is important for effective practice.

Scholars have also focused on relating emotional intelligence to leadership (George, 2000) or showing how components of emotional intelligence such as empathy are important traits that contribute to leadership (Kellett et al., 2002; Wolff et al., 2002). Cherniss and Goleman (1998) estimated that by not following training guidelines established to increase emotional intelligence in the workplace, industry in the United States is losing between $5.6 and $16.8 billion a year. According to Cherniss and Goleman (1998), programs which utilize a cognitive learning process involve placing new information into already existing
frameworks and ways of understanding, consequently enriching and expanding the neural circuitry of the brain.

Goleman has also established an optimal process for developing emotional intelligence in organizations. Outlined in Figure 20, this process consists of four phases: preparation for change, training, transfer and maintenance skills, and evaluation. Preparation for change involves assessing the competencies which are most critical for organizational and individual effectiveness while convincing the workforce that improving their emotional competencies will lead to desirable outcomes. Goleman points out that motivational factor might be a particular issue in this step, as emotional learning and emotional intelligence are areas which are central to a person's identity, and thus many may be resistant to being told they must change themselves as people. The training phase focuses on experiential learning with repeated practice, modelling, and corrective feedback. Maintenance of skills is done through social support and a supportive work environment along with policies and procedures which support the development of emotional intelligence. Finally, evaluation is conducted to determine individual satisfaction with the training as well as to establish if the training has produced meaningful changes in on-the-job behaviour (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998). Cherniss and Adler (1998) readily admit that replacing one behaviour with another is hard work and is neither smooth nor linear. The biological basis for this difficult switch is because "automatic habits of dealing with thought, feeling, and action become the brain's default option:

Traditional classroom teaching methods are not the best method for training skills in emotion management (Cherniss, Goleman & Emmerling, 1998).
Teaching strategies should address different learning styles and incorporate visual, sensory, auditory, and interactive elements such as role playing, group discussions, and simulations (Laabs 1999).

Figure 20: Developing Emotional Intelligence in Organizations: The Optimal Process

Source: Goleman’s Optimal Process for developing EQ in organizations
AT&T participated in a large, cross-industry study that found in all levels of management (from line supervisors to senior executives) increased emotional intelligence, measured through the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal™, accounted for 20% more productivity than low EQ leaders. Ninety-one percent of top performers were high in EQ, while only 26% of low performers were high in EQ. Emotional intelligence explained nearly 60% of job performance across companies in the study (Bradberry, 2002).

The “honeymoon effect” of typical training programs might start with improvement immediately following the program, but within months it drops precipitously (Campbell et. al., 1970). Only fifteen programs were found in a global search of the literature by the Consortium on Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations to improve emotional intelligence. Most of them showed impact on job outcomes, such as number of new businesses started, or life outcomes, such as finding a job or satisfaction (Cherniss and Adler, 2000), which are the ultimate purpose of development efforts.

The few published studies examining improvement of more than one of these competencies show an overall improvement of about 10 percent in emotional intelligence abilities three to eighteen months following training (see Boyatzis, 2006 for a review of these studies and their impact).