

**UNDERSTANDING THE IMPACT OF A HALF DAY LEARNING
INTERVENTION ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE COMPETENCIES
AN EXPLORATORY STUDY**

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**Understanding the impact of a half day learning intervention on emotional
intelligence competencies: An exploratory study**

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ABSTRACT

UNDERSTANDING THE IMPACT OF A HALF DAY LEARNING INTERVENTION ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE COMPETENCIES AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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Empirical evidence has identified emotional intelligence competencies as part of the transformational leadership style. The development of emotional intelligence competencies has been reviewed in the context of a leadership development learning intervention encompassing the model of assessment, challenge and support. The exploratory study researched “in what ways, if any, does a half-day classroom based corporate learning intervention impact the development of emotional intelligence competencies?”. This study has identified that the competencies can be significantly improved with a half-day workshop when combined with a coaching session.

This experiment, under live business conditions, has the potential to extend the body of knowledge relative to the use of the a leadership development model for emotional intelligence development, EQ-i assessment, qualitative behavior event interviews, the impact of a short classroom learning intervention and coaching on EI competencies. Practical application of the results lies in the design and implementation of the learning intervention, coaching session, assessment feedback and development processes in thousands of public and private commercial organizations that either use or

are considering using a classroom-based learning to improve emotional intelligence competencies.

DEDICATION

My mother, Joan Carrick, was my sole inspiration for life. It is only fitting to dedicate my dissertation in her honor. Mom could have predicted the findings of my dissertation because she believed that everyone had the ability to constantly improve. In her words, “Can’t means that you don’t want to”. She truly believed that everyone could learn to be a better leader, teacher, parent, mother, father, daughter, son, aunt, uncle or friend. She was an executive coach before the title existed. Her unending faith in me as a successful woman and mother was the motivation for my doctoral degree.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The voices of my family and friends are whispering through this dissertation. I could not have accomplished this without their encouragement and support. It took a cast of many to replace the motivation lost with my mom's passing. I thank you all from my heart.

My husband and daughter spent countless hours reading, editing while my son motivated me to continue my research and writing. My daughter even became my partner in coding all of the qualitative data. We are very much alike and now have an inter-rater reliability score to prove it. My friends all came to my rescue to inspire me to complete the dissertation. My friends include personal friends like Pat, my CLO friends, the 510ers, my professors, my clients and my dissertation committee. Sharon Ravnich, Annie McKee and Michael Wright challenged and inspired me to courageously make a significant contribution to my field through this exploratory study.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1	Introduction	1
	Cost of Development.....	4
	Framework	6
	Leadership	6
	Assessment, Challenge and Support.....	10
	Emotional Intelligence Assessments	18
	Emotional Intelligence Learning Intervention Analysis...	21
	Research Questions	26
	Purpose	27
Chapter 2	Literature Review	29
	Emotional Intelligence	29
	Leadership Styles.....	33
	Transactional versus Transformational Leadership.....	35
	Adult Learning Theories	43
Chapter 3	Methodology	53
	Research Design.....	53
	Instruments	54
	Data Collection.....	56
	Data Analysis.....	56
	Timeline.....	57
	Sample and Site	58
	Validity.....	60
Chapter 4	Results	61
	Finding #1	61
	Finding #2.....	66
	Finding #3.....	69
	Finding #4.....	71
	Finding #5.....	73

Chapter 5	Conclusions and Recommendations.....	76
	Research Implications.....	76
	Learning Intervention Finding.....	77
	Coaching Session Findings.....	78
	Intentional Change Finding.....	80
	Leadership Development Finding.....	80
	Implications for Emotional Intelligence Research.....	82
	Research limitations.....	82
	Implications for Future Research.....	84
Appendices	87
	Appendix A	87
	Appendix B.....	92
	Appendix C.....	93
	Appendix D.....	94
	Appendix E.....	95
	Appendix F.....	98
	Appendix G.....	99
	Appendix H.....	102
References	103

Chapter 1

Introduction

Are leaders born or made? Bennis (2006) states that “the most dangerous myth is that leaders are born - that there is a genetic factor to leadership, that people have certain charismatic qualities or not. That’s nonsense. Leaders are made rather than born”. The authors of *Becoming a Resonant Leader*, McKee, Boyatzis and Johnston (2008) agree, writing that although “inborn characteristics are few, and even most of these can be enhanced and leveraged. Far more elements of effective leadership are learned” (p. 8). According to Bass (1990), leadership can be developed and many factors can contribute to that development. Van Velsor, McCauley and Moxley (1998) argue that some competencies are developed and others appear to be hard-wired or innate. Boyatzis (1982) defined a competency as “the underlying characteristics of a person that lead to or cause effective and outstanding performance” (p. 21). Aligned with this supporting literature, it is apparent in today’s business world that many organizations believe leadership competencies can be developed. From 1997 to 2007, U.S. organizations have tripled their expenditures in leadership development (Ready, Vicere & White, 1993; Vicere, Taylor & Freeman, 1993; Fulmer, 1997; Paradise, 2008).

Daniel Goleman (1998) introduced Emotional Intelligence (EI) as the new yardstick for leadership success saying, “Twenty-five years worth of empirical studies tell us with a previously unknown precision just how much emotional intelligence matters for success” (p. 6). Emotional Intelligence is so important that without it, he/she will not make a great leader (Goleman, 1998a). Given this assertion, an essential question is can emotional intelligence be learned?

There is an emerging consensus that emotional intelligence competencies can be developed (Goleman, 1996; Boyatzis, Stubbs & Taylor, 2002; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Higgs & Dulewicz, 1999, 2003; Stienner, 1997; Hopfl & Linstead, 1997; Cooper, 1997; Martinez, 1997; Neils, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak & Hansenne, 2009; Sjolund & Gustafsson, 2001; Bar-On, Maree & Elias, 2007; Slaski & Cartwright, 2002, 2003; Zeidner, Murray, Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2006; Matthews & Roberts, 2009). The specific competencies of emotional intelligence have become a major topic of interest in leadership development. As early as 1997, the ASTD survey of benchmark practices among major corporations, found that four out of five companies are trying to promote emotional intelligence with their employees through training and development, when evaluating performance and in hiring (American Society for Training and Development, 1997). Studies regarding the effectiveness of just in time learning interventions such as half-day training programs are absent from the literature. Given this, it is unclear to what extent these interventions play a role in improving emotional intelligence competencies within organizations. Who is right? The people who believe that it can be developed over time or “the hucksters who claim that they can turn emotional dunces into emotional Einsteins in an afternoon?” (Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan & Adler, 1998, p. 4).

In what way, if any, does a half-day corporate learning intervention impact the development of emotional intelligence leadership competencies? This question was the essence of this exploratory study. Landy (2005) identified only 102 articles written in empirical journals about emotional intelligence from 1995-2005. Only 15 of these 102 articles were research related to the workplace. He also cited a Van Roy and Viswesvaran

meta-analysis that identified only 19 employment-type EI studies. “Of these, 13 studies were unpublished master’s thesis, doctoral dissertations or conference presentations”

(Landy, 2005, p. 2). Another global study reported the following:

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. But showing an impact on outcomes, while desired, may also blur how the change actually occurs. Furthermore, when a change has been noted, a question about the sustainability of the changes is raised because of the relatively short time periods studied (Boyatzis & Howard, 2003, p. 1).

A review of the literature and testimony from experts showed that none of the existing research analyzed a short learning intervention. There is a need for empirical evidence on workplace learning interventions and the development of EI competencies.

According to one 2001 Swedish study, participant’s pre and post scores revealed significant improvements in the EQ-i scores after a one-day emotional intelligence training session (Sjolund & Gustafson, 2001). This training was situated within a high potential management development program. The results were positive for the impact of a short corporate classroom-training program on improved emotional intelligence competencies (Sjolund & Gustafsson, 2001). The development of individual emotional intelligence competencies will be described in this research within the framework of traditional leadership development.

Van Velsor, McCauley, and Moxley (1998) make three points about leadership development. First, leadership development is about developing the capacities of an individual. Second, leadership development is about what makes a person effective in a variety of roles. Van Velsor et al. (1998) assumed all individuals are capable of

developing more effective leadership skills. Their final assumption is the most basic that people can learn, grow, and change. They admit that leadership capacity probably has some roots in genetics, but most importantly “adults can develop the important capacities that facilitate their leadership effectiveness” (Van Velsor et al., 1998, p. 5). Scholars believe emotional intelligence capacities are an integral part of this effectiveness. This is supported by studies of tens of thousands of working people that show that leadership success depends on “personal qualities such as initiative, empathy, adaptability and persuasiveness” (Goleman, 1998a, p. 3). Emotional intelligence competencies seem to be learned from our various experiences. Boyatzis and Howard (2003) state, “The few published studies examining improvement of more than one of these competencies show an overall improvement of about 10 percent in emotional intelligence competencies abilities 3 to 18 months following training. More recent meta-analytic studies and utility analyses confirm that significant changes can and do occur, but not with the impact that the level of investment would lead us to expect with many types of training” (Morrow, Jarrett & Rupinski, 1997; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Burke & Day, 1986 as cited in Boyatzis & Howard, 2003, p. 1). Corporations continue to spend a tremendous amount of money in learning and development since they believe leadership effectiveness can be learned.

Cost of Development

The use of an effective development model is important because the cost of the development of that leadership is big business. Corporate investment in leadership development grew dramatically from the 1960s through the 1980s (Ready, Vicere & White, 1993; Vicere, Taylor & Freeman, 1993). In 1997, Fulmer estimated annual corporate expenditures for leadership development at \$45 billion and growing (Fulmer,

1997). Ten years later, ASTD estimates that U.S. organizations spent \$134.39 billion on employee learning and development in 2007 (Paradise, 2008). Leadership development was a main focus for the “BEST” organizations for the past several years. The American Society of Training and Development give BEST awards to companies that are best at building enterprise talent and are supported by the organizations leaders fostering a robust learning culture. Michelle Thompson, Capital Group states “We like to focus our leadership development programs as an indicator of our success and efficiency. More than 95 percent of employees have taken part in a company sponsored training class or program” (Harris, Salopeck, Pace, Nancherla, Laff, Llorens & Ketter, 2008, p. 28). The Capital Group was rated number one in the ranking of BEST Companies in 2008 (Harris et. al., 2008).

There is also a need to continue to develop leaders. In spite of the billions of dollars spent for leadership development, many organizations have failed to develop true leadership bench strength or talent pool. According to the 2008-2009 Global Leadership Forecast conducted by Development Dimensions International (DDI), seventy-five percent of CEO’s identified improving or leveraging leadership talent as a top business priority. Pace argues, “only forty-one percent of the leaders surveyed in the same study were satisfied with what their organizations offered to help them develop leadership skills” (Pace, 2008, pp. 10-11). The dissatisfaction appears to be due to the methods and measurements that are being used to conduct the leadership development programs. Therefore, the design and implementation of an effective development model are important to leverage talent.

The ultimate result of development is the ability to see and measure meaningful change. This change is only visible through action. Fulmer believes “the new paradigm will be focused on learning as an action-oriented, lifelong process where global partners work together to produce a positive, profitable future for all” (Fulmer, 1997, p. 70). Senge (1990) agrees when he says, “over the long run, superior performance depends on learning” (p. 7). The Intentional Change model presented by Boyatzis and McKee in *Resonant Leadership* has five significant steps: the ideal self, the real self, your learning agenda, experimenting with and practicing new habits and developing and maintaining close personal relationships (p. 89). Emotional Intelligence leadership competency development requires meaningful change.

Conceptual Framework

The following leadership development framework is the foundation for this study (Table 1). In the corporate business environment, there are several leadership styles that have been identified throughout history. These leadership styles will be reviewed in detail in the literature review in Chapter Two. Empirical evidence has closely identified the emotional intelligence competencies as part of the effectiveness of the transformational leadership style. The development of emotional intelligence competencies is reviewed in the context of a cognitivistic learning intervention encompassing the model of assessment, challenge and support. The objective of this learning intervention is to improve EI competencies.

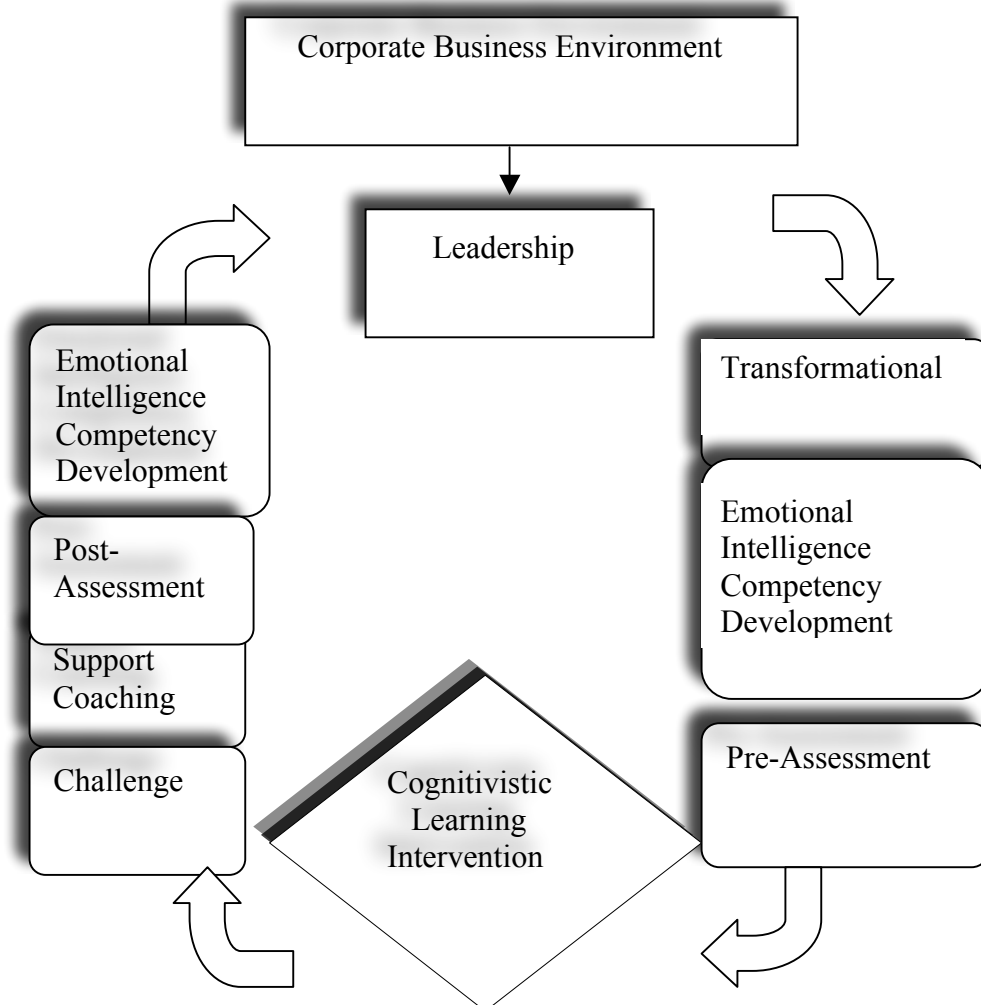
Defining Leadership

What is leadership? There are as many definitions, perspectives and theories of leadership as there are authors of essays on the subject. Stogdill identified more than 100

authors on leadership and 163 studies of leadership between 1949 and 1970 (Stogdill, 1974). Currently, there are countless books, journals and articles published on leadership. In 2008, a Google Scholar literature search for articles keyword for “leadership” returned 1,540,000 citations and almost 300,000 books. Yukl (1998) states, “the differences are not just a case of scholarly nitpicking. They reflect deep disagreement about the identification of leaders and leadership processes” (Yukl, 1998, p. 3). Within this body of research, the effects of transformational leadership has been argued to have the most positive results in contrast to transactional leadership (Barling, Slater & Kelloway, 2000).

Table 1

Conceptual Framework



Transactional leadership means that the followers complied with the leaders in exchange for rewards or praise or in avoidance of disciplinary action. Performance expectations are reached because of goal setting and reinforcement. Another form of Transactional leadership is evident in management by exception. In this case, the manager waits for a problem or issue to arise and then takes the appropriate action to correct the situation. In addition, laissez-faire management is also associated with transactional leadership. In this case, the leader avoids making a decision (Bass, 1990a). Overall, this transactional leadership style is directive in approach. There is little or no motivation for the follower, rather, they simply comply with the rules.

In opposition to the Transactional style, Transformational leadership style is based on the idea that followers are motivated to achieve performance beyond expectations by transforming the follower's attitudes, beliefs and values (Bass, 1985). "Transformational leadership," described by Burns (1978), is much more powerful and involves influence and empowerment of subordinates in the process of transforming the organization (Yukl, 1989). This transformation is a shared process involving many people in the organization at different levels. Transformational leadership is sometimes referred to as "charismatic leadership." Bass identified several dimensions of Transformational leadership including charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. Charismatic leaders provide vision and sense of mission, instill pride, and gain respect and trust. Inspirational leaders communicate high expectations for important purposes. Intellectual stimulation occurs by promoting intelligence and careful problem solving. Individual consideration happens when the leader treats each employee individually and coaches and advises when necessary (Bass,

1990a). These transformational or charismatic behaviors are believed to augment the impact of transactional leaders' behaviors on employee outcome variables because "followers feel trust and respect toward the leaders and they are motivated to do more than they are expected to do" (Yukl, 1989, p. 272).

Given the usefulness of transformational leadership, the next step is to determine what and how leadership factors should be developed. An exploratory study by Baring, Slater and Kelloway (2000) showed that "emotional intelligence is associated with three aspects of transformational leadership" (p. 159). The transformational leadership aspects that relate to emotional intelligence were idealized influence, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration. These were associated with five characteristics of emotional intelligence, which understand one's emotions managing emotions, emotional self control, understanding other's emotions and managing relationships. As important, it also found that transactional leadership was not associated with emotional intelligence competencies. Sivanathan and Fekken (2002) showed that followers with high EI competencies more effective and true transformational leaders. The leadership development model of assessment, challenge and support was used to study the impact of the development of the emotional intelligence competencies in the learning intervention. This model incorporates all of the elements of "Boyatzis' Theory of Self-Directed Learning" (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002, p. 110).

Assessment, Challenge and Support Model. The following sections review a model of leader development that describes how the factors of assessment, challenge, and support are related to individual development (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004). This model identifies three integrated elements in the process of development that are

important as a framework to approach the development of leaders. The model designed by the Center For Creative Leadership (CCL) is widely used, respected and effective in developing leaders. The assessment, challenge, and support model contributes to effective leader development (Chappelow, 1998; McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004).

Assessment. Personality, emotional intelligence and performance are interdependent factors in a person's daily experience (Pearman, 2002, p.11). When you have an expanded emotional intelligence and balanced personality, you have a healthier lifestyle, stronger relationships and overall greater satisfaction and job performance in your chosen work. Studies conclude that a strong emotional intelligence among leaders aids employee retention, productivity and performance (Goleman 1998, 1998a; McCall, 1998). It is usually a continuous process involving feedback and support from others. Davis, Skube, Hellervik, Gebelein and Sheard (1996) make the case that development rarely happens in isolation.

Assessment is critical to development because it gives people an understanding of their current strengths, level of leadership, and primary development needs. Training experiences that incorporate feedback to participants will aid in their understanding and help capitalize on their learning opportunities. In addition, assessment provides a benchmark for future improvement and can motivate individuals to close the gap between current self and ideal self (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). This gap in development tends to provide motivation for learning, growth, and intentional change. Therefore, using assessment and feedback in diagnosing developmental needs is a critical first step in any systematic management development effort (McCauley, Lombardo & Usher, 1989). Assessment data can be gathered either formally or

informally. It can come from oneself, one's peers, bosses, employees, friends, customers, or any number of others. Performance appraisals, customer evaluations, organizational surveys, self-assessments, 360 degree feedback and pretest-posttest research design can provide formal assessment data. It is essential that data is accurate as it not only motivates but it provides clues for how to close gaps.

Bennis and Townsend (1995) indicate another benefit for receiving feedback. Their view is that an important part of leadership development is listening to what others have to say and exhibiting care and concern. Feedback is garnered through a 360 degree, multi-rater processes and through by sharing and discussing the feedback received with those who contributed. In addition, feedback gathered through personality-based assessments can identify leader preferences such as the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). This tool assesses individual preferences in how people gather, integrate and process the information into their decision-making. This instrument is utilized in leadership development in order to identify natural preference and understand the diversity of the types. In the Myers Briggs, preferences are based on four bipolar dimensions of extroversion and introversion, sensing and intuition, thinking and feeling, and judging and perceiving. The result is a deeper understanding of self and a foreshadowing of possible feedback from others (Guthrie & King, 2004, p. 25).

The EQ-i assessment and corresponding feedback are an integral component of the EI learning intervention. Presenting feedback to participants in a facilitated workshop will tend to generate larger pretest-posttest improvement scores than it will by simply presenting the same information in writing. Bowers (1973) conducted a longitudinal feedback study involving more than 14,000 respondents in 23 organizations and found

that both what he called data handback and survey feedback were associated with positive changes, but the largest change was associated with the survey feedback method. What Bowers called the “survey feedback method” was equivalent to the feedback workshop in that it involved a facilitated discussion of the feedback data. His theory was that facilitating a discussion of the data helps participants to catalogue its implications and forge a commitment to improvement. Bower’s explanation for this improvement is that the discussion helps to focus attention on the changes necessary for improvement – making the point that having the opportunity to discuss feedback can be a positive factor in driving improvement.

According to Yukl and Lepsinger (1995), one can increase the likelihood of real behavioral change from feedback by having a facilitator explain the feedback and help managers to use it to their advantage. This corresponds to Bruner, Ausubell and Knowles whose theory includes that learning is based in prior knowledge (Bruner, 1966; Ausubel, 1963; Knowles, 2005). The facilitator guides the learners to new patterns of thinking and provides scaffolding to ensure learning occurs. Workshops can help participants understand their feedback, and accept their feedback, and use it to improve their effectiveness. For example, Hegarty (1974) illustrated those first-line supervisors who discussed their feedback with a consultant made more improvements in their supervisory behaviors than did supervisors who only received their feedback in writing. The learning intervention is followed by a one hour individual coaching session to ensure confidential understanding and development planning. In a related work on the managerial performance implications of developmental assessment center processes, Engelbrecht and

Fischer (1995) conclude that the feedback session helps managers to develop because it provides them with insight and facilitates their formulation of development strategies.

This design is evidenced in several of clients' leadership development programs and executive coaching experiences when the MBTI and an Emotional Intelligence assessment (EQ-i) are combined to highlight patterns of leadership behaviors. This process of utilizing more than one feedback method has been successful with my clients including Jarden Consumer Solutions, Wal-Mart, Constellation Energy, AirProducts, BDP International, Drexel University and Kennedy Health System.

The Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) created a leadership development process called the Leadership Development Program (LDP). Individuals start by developing self-awareness through extensive feedback from those with whom they work (Burnside & Guthrie, 1992). The feedback can come from supervisors, peers or subordinates. The purpose of the program is to change and adapt leadership behaviors beginning with awareness, "it recognizes that leadership is primarily a process of human interaction and that to improve it, a leader must begin with objective self-awareness" (Burnside & Guthrie, 1992, p. 2). The creators of the LDP are convinced that objective self-awareness of strengths and weaknesses as others perceive them is crucial to development of leadership. In the LDP, as in most of the other large-scale leadership development processes reviewed, self-awareness often begins with feedback. In an article about increasing leadership effectiveness, Argyris (1985) said that "in order for leaders to act they must first diagnose the situation accurately, they must design actions to achieve whatever results they wish to implement, they must produce these results, and

finally they must monitor their implementation in order to detect and correct errors” (p. 30).

There is also evidence that a pretest-posttest assessment design is valuable in the leadership development. Research shows that “eighty-three studies from 1982 to 2001 with formal training interventions were integrated via meta-analytic techniques to determine the effectiveness of interventions in their enhancement of performance, knowledge, and expertise at the individual, team or group, or organizational level. The data suggest that practitioners can attain substantial improvements in both knowledge and skills if sufficient front-end analysis is conducted to assure that the right development is offered to the right leaders” (Collins & Holton III, 2004). Once again, assessment is shown to be critical in leadership development.

Challenge. Along with assessment feedback, the second part of the model is challenge. Research illustrates that people require challenging experiences to help them develop strengths and new ways of thinking and acting (McCall, 1994; McCall, Lombardo & Morrison, 1988). Challenges force people out of their comfort zones requiring them to develop new capacities for success. Lack of experience, new situations, difficult goals, and situations characterized by conflict can all provide challenges. Challenge provides motivation as well as opportunity for development. Leadership can be developed on the job by taking on more responsible managerial positions (Sashkin, 1992). These different jobs and responsibilities are opportunities for leadership development with all levels of the organization. It is important to remember “people do not develop the capacity for leadership without being in the throes of the challenge of the leadership work” (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004, p. 9). The act of

leading different people in challenging situations brings development opportunities and learning. In other words, leadership itself is a challenge that is developmental. Leading is, in and of itself, learning by doing. (Van Velsor, et al., 1998, p. 14). This is evidenced in the Corporate Leadership Council and Learning and Development Roundtable 2006 report which states that only 10 percent of employee development is classroom based learning. Manager-lead development activities, like performance feedback and special challenging projects, have the most significant impact on development.

Support. The third and final element that contributes to leadership development is support. While assessment and challenge provide motivation and disequilibrium, support is needed to reassure people that their efforts to learn and grow are valued. Support can originate from many different sources in the organization. It can take the form of organizational policies, procedures or coaching. Organizations that support development have a strong belief that continuous learning and development of their staff is a key factor in their success. They help people identify development needs and construct plans to address them. Support for learning from mistakes is part of the organizational culture. It is also a key factor in maintaining the motivation to learn and grow.

The purpose of leadership development is to create the capability to shape a more positive future for the leader and the organization. Vicere (1996) confirms that there is a demand for a new type of development process that is focused on hands-on experience, anchored in real work, and aimed at development of both the individual leader and the organization. He details major leadership development processes at the Center for Creative Leadership, AT&T, and ARAMARK. His processes involve feedback instruments, development plans, and processes and tools targeted at behavior change.

The investment in this development work is divided among universities, company designed and delivered programs, and customized courses developed and delivered by business schools and consultants (Fulmer & Vicere, 1996; Vicere et al., 1993). Most of these are evolving toward a systems perspective that recognizes the need to combine the elements of assessments, challenges and support in the form of coaching.

One client uses this leadership development model and action learning in their leadership development program. AirProducts' Leadership Education Program (LEP) is designed in a three-session format. Bringing together high potential employees from around the world, the program is designed to build leadership skills specific to AirProducts' business strategies for today and in the future. Session one's focus is on gaining insight into one's strengths and areas for development. Using assessments (MBTI, Profilor and Emotional Competence Inventory, ECI), the participants have the opportunity to learn more about themselves through data and a full day's outdoor experiential activity. On the last day of the session, a panel of previous LEP graduates from across the company discuss their personal development, challenges and what they learned from LEP; each participant chooses an image that graphically explains their vision of leadership and uses that image to as a representation of their goals. The participants end the day by creating personal development plans. Each participant identifies one or two goals to focus on in the next three months. These goals are entered into a web-based development engine tool and participant progress is tracked over this period of time. This tool ensures follow-through on individual goals.

Session Two is designed to focus on two main topics, building global teams and inclusive leadership. Using the Cultural Orientations Indicator as a way to understand

personal cultural preferences, the participants learn more about what they need to do successfully to build and lead globally inclusive teams (Walker, Walker & Schmitz, 2003). Video, discussion groups, case studies and activities are used in this session. Again, the end of this session requires participants to select one or two goals to work on for the next three months.

The third and final session focuses on organizational strategy and organizational expectations of leadership. Senior leaders as used as faculty and they lead informal discussions and presentations that are designed to help participants gain more insight into company strategy, challenges and how to meet them. This session also includes graduates to present on projects they've led that addressed organizational change such as mergers and acquisitions, diversity initiatives, or building a global team. Participants are asked to reselect one or two goals to work on for three months. Finally, at program completion, participants are required to develop a leadership project that will be under their purview. This project will allow them to utilize the skills they have developed as a result of their participation in the program. Upon project completion, participants will present their results to senior management

Overall, the process for developing leaders using the assessment, challenge and support model is a time-tested, valuable model that was used in this research study. Specifically, the researcher examined how to improve a leader's emotional intelligence competencies. In order to provide a theoretical background for EI assessments, the three original emotional intelligence assessment models are described in the following sections.

Emotional Intelligence Assessments. There are several popular conceptual and assessment models for emotional intelligence, which contribute to confusion as to the most effective way to define and measure emotional intelligence. These assessment models are split into “ability models” and “mixed models” (Bar-On & Parker, 2000, p. 264).

According to the *Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology*, the three most commonly used EI instruments and models are Mayer-Salovey-Caruso (MSCEIT), Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (ECI), and Bar-On (EQ-i) (cited in Bar-On, Maree & Elias, 2007). The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso test (2000a) defines and measures the construct as an ability-based performance measure. The other two models are “mixed models” or trait based models. The Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) model views this construct as competencies that drive performance. In this model, EI is measured by multi-rater assessment and qualitative critical incident interviews. The Bar-On model (2002) defines and measures both emotional and social competencies using a self-report and multi-rater, 360 degree, assessment.

Salovey-Mayer Model. Emotional Intelligence (EI) is defined as a “type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others emotions to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Mayer and Salovey (1993) were the original researchers of emotional intelligence theory as part of social intelligence. Their model identifies the four interrelated abilities of perception, use, understanding and managing of emotions (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000). The models conceptualize that EI is a set of mental skills that can be assessed with performance tests. The test is based on answers to basic questions

about everyday living. The first test was the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) and the shorter version is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Murphy, 2006). The EI measurement in the ability model uses “performance based response format from which a correct answer can be derived. A correct answer is based on the percentage of respondents who endorse a particular option rather than a definite result” (Bar-On, Maree & Elias, 2007, p. 260).

Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee Model. The 360 degree Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI-360) was co-designed and developed by the Hay group in conjunction with Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee to assess emotional intelligence competencies. “In general, the ideal evaluation relies not on any one source but on multiple perspectives” (Goleman, 1998, p. 261). The assessment and report provide information (from 7-12 raters) on the consistency and competence demonstrated in 18 emotional intelligence abilities. The ECI measures four critical areas of emotional intelligence that encompass the following 18 abilities: Self-Awareness: Emotional Self-Awareness, Accurate Self-Assessment, Self-Confidence; Self-Management: Emotional Self-Control, Transparency, Adaptability, Achievement Orientation, Initiative, Optimism; Social Awareness: Empathy, Organizational Awareness, Service Orientation; Relationship Management: Developing Others, Inspirational Leadership, Change Catalyst, Influence, Conflict Management, Teamwork and Collaboration (Ziedner, Matthews & Roberts, 2009). These EI competencies are usually not innate talents, but learned abilities, each of which uniquely contributes to making leaders more resonant and therefore more effective (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002, p. 38). With awareness and understanding, emotional intelligence can be developed to improve the leader’s performance.

Bar-On Model. Reuven Bar-On (1985) created the first scientific, cross-cultural normed, self-assessment of the emotional, personal and social components of intelligence. Reuven Bar-On coined the term Emotional Quotient (EQ) in 1985 based on his model of emotional-social intelligence (Bar-On, 1985). The assessment is called the Emotional Quotient Inventory, EQ-i. According to this model, “emotional-social intelligence is a cross-section of interrelates emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how we effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate them and cope with daily demands” (Bar-On, 2006, p. 3).

Emotional intelligence is an important factor in determining ability to succeed in life and directly influences general psychological well being (Bar-On, 1997). Emotional Intelligence describes the aggregate of abilities, competencies, and skills that are defined by 15 factors according to the EQ-i assessment (Reuven Bar-On, 1997). They are identified as follows:

INTRApersonal Composite scale is about your inward focus and thoughts

1. Self regard
2. Emotional Self-Awareness
3. Assertiveness
4. Independence
5. Self-Actualization

INTERpersonal Composite scale is about your social interactions with others

6. Empathy
7. Social Responsibility
8. Interpersonal Relationships

Adaptability Composite Scale is a combination of your inward focus and interactions

9. Reality Testing
10. Flexibility
11. Problem Solving

Stress Management Composite Scale is about your self-management

- 12. Stress tolerance
- 13. Impulse Control

General Mood Composite Scale is about your overall disposition in life

- 14. Optimism
- 15. Happiness

The adjective *emotional* is employed to emphasize that this specific type of intelligence differs from cognitive intelligence. Research demonstrates that these non-cognitive capabilities can be learned, developed and enhanced cognitively through various learning interventions (Boyatzis, Stubbs & Taylor, 2002; Dulewicz & Higgs 2004; Cherniss & Goleman, 1998; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). Based on the theory that development of specific EI competencies leads to greater success, the devotion of time and effort to understand and improve on areas of weakness is rapidly becoming a priority for personal growth (Goleman, 1998). Based on the findings of successful EI development programs, and research on effective behavior modification training, the only sustainable behavioral changes are those that are intentional and self-directed (Boyatzis, 2000). Studies have demonstrated that individuals can improve their levels of emotional intelligence by personally recognizing areas of strength and weakness, and then going through a process of emotional learning (Goleman, 1995). These improvements can be measured in several ways by various assessments and interviews.

Emotional Intelligence Classroom Learning Intervention Analysis. The foundational Emotional Intelligence program that was used as the basis for my research study is Leadership Excel. It has been customized and delivered to various clients including Constellation Energy, AirProducts and Chemicals, GlaxoSmithKline, Jarden

Consumer Solutions (Sunbeam), Drexel University faculty and Executive MBA's, Kennedy Health System, Raritan Bay Medical Center, University of Pennsylvania and XL Group. It is designed to stand alone as a four to eight hour workshop or can be customized into an existing leadership or management curriculum. The following section will detail and analyze the four-hour workshop that was used in the study.

Learning Objectives. The first objective of the leadership workshop is to provide feedback for each participant on his/her level of Emotional Intelligence. This provides a baseline for each participant to identify areas of strengths and opportunities for development. The second objective focuses on providing the participants an overview of the components of EI that allows for understanding EI and its importance in the management of people. The third objective focuses on explicating how an individual's Emotional Intelligence can be improved and further developed. Lastly, the workshop intends to provide individual coaching for understanding and improvement. In order to meet these objectives, the facilitator covers the following topics. First, cognitive intelligence and emotional intelligence is defined, analyzed, examined and discussed. EI competencies, using the Bar-on model, are explained individually in detail and then how they are inter-dependent as well as how they differ. Secondly, the participants engage in a review of the EQ-I assessment results and discuss its application to their work and personal lives. Finally, the participants set individual goals and objectives to develop specific emotional intelligence competencies.

A cognitivist theory of learning was used to design this learning intervention. In order to learn EI, the participants must understand the importance and relevance of emotional intelligence in both their professional and personal domains (Murray, 2006).

Once individuals understand and internalize the concepts, they can assimilate the various benefits of developing emotional intelligence and the competencies can be developed. Piaget can help explain this process (Piaget, 1968). He argues cognitive structures or schemas change by a process of adaptation including assimilation and accommodation. He (1968) defined a schema as the mental set of perceptions, ideas, and/or actions. He considered schemata to be the basic building blocks of thinking. By integrating Piaget's ideas, workshops on EI will ensure the transfer of learning into actions.

A cognitive-based approach to training was recommended by Murphy as one of the preferred approaches to training (Murphy, 2006, p. 228). This cognitivist learning theory is evident in this sample outline of the first two hours of the workshop. As pre-work, participants are asked to read Goleman's Harvard Business review article "What makes a leader?" (Goleman, 1998a) This is completed after the EQ-i online assessment and before the workshop. By reading this article, participants understand the empirical evidence that underlies the concepts and gives them a framework for our session. The first large group activity is for each person to discuss a personal experiences of leadership competencies for success. The participants identify a leader that they admire or respect and what characteristic makes them admired. This list of characteristics describes the emotional intelligence competencies for the workshop. This activity immediately gets the attention of the class, puts the workshop into perspective and challenges the mental models of the individuals. The facilitator then offers background on emotional intelligence history, theories for understanding, neuroscience and definitions of Cognitive Intelligence and Emotional Intelligence. These concepts are discussed and differentiated. The next step is to discover the various benefits of EI in their work and personal lives.

Since the participants must understand and be aware of their competencies before they can learn to improve them, the remainder of the workshop focuses on the EQ-i assessment and their individual results. Sustainable changes are those that are intentional and self-directed (Boyatzis, 2000).

Curriculum design. The curriculum has been designed as student-focused learning model with practical activities (small group, large group, pairs) and assessment work. The teacher's or facilitator's role in this workshop is to provide data, facts and insights to assist in the student's understanding and learning. The facilitator provides a scaffold for the learners as scaffolding provides "support to the learners while they engage in activities that are normally out of their reach" (Soloway, Jackson, Klien, Quintana, et. al., 1996). The concepts of emotional intelligence are normally new to the participants in the class. In a safe and confidential environment, the facilitator inspires the learners to ask questions, apply the competencies and set improvement goals in areas that are important to their lives. This workshop is based on current research and empirical evidence, which examines the factors that make leaders successful in the business environment (Goleman, 1998). This research shows that a specific grouping of skills and characteristics are consistently exhibited in the best leaders worldwide. For example, the development of stress management and impulse control competencies are crucial. Without them, leaders cannot be successful. For example, Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) show that lack of impulse control is the number one derailer of executives. Interestingly enough, these same factors also determine which individuals are more successful in life in general. I could easily have called this program "*People Excel*" because it is truly about life success as much as it is about leadership.

Although the workshop is pre-structured, the activities are designed to be flexible to the student and to their specific assessment results. The workshop contains real-world applications on every composite scale of the emotional intelligence components as well as movie video examples. This interactive, action learning, approach is designed to allow the learners to understand, construct meanings and to apply the skills.

This decontextualized workshop is usually facilitated in a traditional classroom-training situation. However, it is contextualized throughout the workshop in work-related scenarios and activities. For example, when discussing the 15 composite scales of the EQ-i assessment, the facilitator of the workshop describes the factor and gives work related applications.

Empathy is the ability to be aware of, to understand and to appreciate the feelings of others. 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. In the workplace, understanding the duties and demands being placed on fellow staff members creates cohesive functioning. Understanding others’ points of view and feelings will help make you a team player. (Bar-On 2002, p. 106)

The facilitator reinforces the information by a showing a video of real-world applications, debriefing the small group activities and discussions on application to work and personal life.

The overarching goal of this cognitivistic, student-centered workshop is a pathway to individual human development in the areas of emotional intelligence. To ensure individual development, the workshop design also includes individual one hour coaching sessions. This coaching session helps the participants with their individual development action plans that were constructed during the workshop. These confidential

coaching sessions are conducted after the workshop, either in-person or remotely by an EQ-i certified trainer. Participants are also encouraged to review the self-help reference guide that is in the reference section of the participant workbook for additional details and understanding of each of the composite scales (Appendix D). Workshops can help participants understand their feedback, accept their feedback, and use it to improve their effectiveness. The emotional intelligence workshop, individual assessment and coaching guided the participants toward a pathway of human development. In summary, this analysis identifies the emotional intelligence learning intervention as cognitivist, student-centered, pre-structured, decontextualized, and a pathway to human development.

This workshop analysis parallels two major emotional intelligence development models. The technical report from the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations on *Bringing Emotional Intelligence Into The Workplace* identifies 22 steps to designing effective EI workshops (Charniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan & Adler, 1998). The EI workshop that is being used in this study meets their criteria for effective development of EI competencies and not a “huckster” (Charniss, et. al., 1998, p. 4). The second EI development model was designed by Ciarrochi and Mayer (2007). They (Ciarrochi & Mayer, 2007) proposed “learning principles to guide EI skills training: assessment, guided experience, transfer, ongoing support and follow-up evaluation” (p. 56). A detailed analysis is presented in the literature review in Chapter Two to reinforce the framework for the research questions in this study.

Research Questions. This exploratory study examined the following two research questions:

1. In what ways, if any, does a half-day classroom based corporate learning intervention impact the development of emotional intelligence competencies?

2. How does a half-day learning intervention affect the participant?

Purpose. The purpose of the study is to investigate the impact of a half-day workshop on developing emotional intelligence competencies. The relationship between pretest-posttest of the qualitative and quantitative behaviors of emotional intelligence competencies and a four-hour classroom based learning interventions was examined during this study. In what way does the learning intervention impact the development of emotional intelligence leadership competencies?

The significance of this study derives from the ability to answer the research question from a fact-based perspective as opposed to an intuitive or anecdotal position. This study attempts to answer these research questions by means of an exploratory study conducted in organizations. This experiment, under live business conditions, using randomly assigned employees, has the potential to extend the body of knowledge relative to the use of the EQ-i assessment, qualitative interviews and the impact of a short classroom learning intervention on EI competencies. It also has the potential to provide fact-based evidence about the effectiveness of self-assessment tools and learning intervention that many practitioners take for granted.

Practical application of the results lies in the design and implementation of the learning intervention, coaching session, assessment feedback and development processes in thousands of public and private commercial organizations that either use or are considering using a classroom-based learning to improve emotional intelligence competencies. The business-world nature of this study makes the results applicable to a

broad spectrum of leadership populations in U.S. based businesses (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1996). Chapter Two reviews the existing empirical evidence on the topics that were briefly discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This section explores the relevant literature on emotional intelligence, leadership, assessments, critical incident interviews and adult learning theories as it relates to an emotional intelligence corporate learning intervention study. A review of the literature identified significantly more workplace empirical leadership research studies than those specifically on the topic of emotional intelligence in the workplace. The literature review analyzed the topics within the framework outlined on Table 1 in Chapter One.

Emotional Intelligence

The literature review on emotional intelligence revealed several theories, definitions and models. The construct of emotional intelligence or the intelligent use of emotions is applied to many organizations, individuals and teams (Ashkanay & Tse, 2000; Goleman, 1998, 1998a, 2002; Caruso & Wolfe, 2002). The Mayer & Salovey (1993), Goleman (1995) and Bar-On (1998) models are outlined in Chapter 1. There are commonalities in the various models. Each model defines EI as the ability to use emotion and reason, and each claims that EI makes a positive contribution to personal and professional life. Emotional Intelligence (EI) is defined as the ability to identify, use, understand and manage emotions (Caruso & Wolfe, 2002).

The roots of emotional intelligence go back to the early writings of Thorndike in the 1920s, Wechsler in the 1940s and Gardner in the 1980s (Bar-On, 2006). Thorndike (Bar-On, 2006) discussed socially accepted behaviors while Wechsler added two sub-scales to measure aspects of social intelligence to his well-known cognitive intelligence test. Wechsler (1943) wrote the following:

The main question is whether nonintellective, that is, affective and conative abilities are admissible as factors of general intelligence. The contention of this paper has been that such factors are not admissible, but necessary. I have tried to show that in addition to intellective there are also definite nonintellective factors that determine intelligent behavior. If the foregoing observation is correct, it follows that we cannot expect to measure total intelligence until our tests also include some measures of the nonintellective factors (p. 103).

Gardner (1983) believed that intelligence encompassed multiple dimensions or “multiple personalities”. He called it personal intelligence that included intrapsychic capacities and interpersonal skills. These two components are still part of the current research of Bar-On and the Emotional Quotient model (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

The initial definition of emotional intelligence surfaced in the early 1990’s. Mayer and Salovey (1993) were the original researchers of the “emotional” aspect of intelligence. Emotional Intelligence (EI) is defined as a “type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ emotions to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Mayer & Salovey, 1993, p. 434). The models conceptualizes that EI is a set of mental skills that can be assessed with performance tests. This ability model of EI is described as “the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions and manage them” (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2002). Their model, MSCEI, identifies the four interrelated abilities of perception, use, understanding and managing of emotions (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000a).

The other two models, Goleman (ECI) and Bar-On (EQ-i) are referred to as mixed models. The mixed models are based on non-cognitive personality traits and dispositions (Caruso & Wolfe, 2001; Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000). Mixed models typically are

measured by self-report and observer ratings (Bar-On, 2000; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Cooper & Swaf, 1997).

Daniel Goleman introduced Emotional Intelligence as the new yardstick for leadership success with his two books “Emotional Intelligence” (1995) and “Working with Emotional Intelligence” (1998). According to Goleman (1998), traditional cognitive intelligence takes second position to emotional intelligence in determining outstanding job performance. Goleman popularized the term Emotional Intelligence, saying “twenty-five years worth of empirical studies tell us with a previously unknown precision just how much emotional intelligence matters for success” (p. 6). Goleman (1998) states that research clearly shows that “emotional intelligence is the sine qua non of leadership” (p. 94). Without it, he/she will not make a great leader (Goleman, 1998a). Boyatzis and McKee (2005) raise the bar and state that “Great leaders are emotionally intelligent and they are mindful: they seek to live in full consciousness of self, others, nature and society” (p. 5). Recent findings about emotions and the brain suggest a neurological basis for these competencies and as such, they suggest “These emotional intelligence competencies are usually not innate talents, but learned abilities, each of which has a unique contribution to making leaders more resonant and, therefore, more effective” (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002, p. 38). In a 1998 publication of the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence, Cary Cherniss and Daniel Goldman identified a 22 step process as a guideline for developing emotional intelligence in organizations (Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan & Adler, 1998). This process is graphically represented in Appendix C and detailed on page 52. The outlined guidelines are included in the Emotional Intelligence workshop.

Two other key researchers have significantly contributed to the emotional intelligence body of knowledge, Annie McKee and Richard Boyatzis. Annie McKee is cofounder of Teleos Leadership, University of Pennsylvania faculty and author of numerous articles and books. As co-author of *Primal Leadership*, *Resonant Leadership* and *Becoming a Resonant Leader* with Boyatzis, she is an expert in the fields of emotional intelligence, leadership development, mindfulness, resonance and change management. “Mindfulness is a skill that helps people keenly focus on the present moment and drop distracting thoughts rather than getting lost in them, thus producing a calming effect” (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002, p. 103). Resonance is demonstrated when leaders drive positive emotions. “Great leaders build relationships with those around them” (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005, pp. 2-3).

Richard Boyatzis is Professor in the Departments of Organizational Behavior, Psychology, and Cognitive Science at Case Western Reserve University and Human Resources. He is the author of more than 100 articles on leadership, competencies, emotional intelligence, management education, and thematic analysis and six books. *The Competent Manager* was his first book, written in 1982 (Boyatzis, 1982). His landmark study included a 50-year longitudinal study of EI developments with multiple cohorts of MBA students (Boyatzis, Stubbs & Taylor, 2002). The results of this longitudinal research study show that emotional intelligence competencies, that are crucial to effective leadership, can be developed in MBA students. He designed a Self-Directed Learning Model (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). His model follows five stages of discovery: my ideal self; my real self; my learning agenda; experimenting with and practicing new behaviors, thoughts and feelings to the point of mastery; developing supportive and

trusting relationships. This self-directed learning model corresponds to the framework of the EI workshop that was described in Chapter One.

The third mixed model is the EQ-i. Reuven Bar-On (1997) created the first scientific, cross-cultural normed, self-assessment of the emotional, personal and social components of intelligence. The EQ-i was the first to be published by a psychological test publisher; the first to be peer-reviewed in the *Buros Mental Measurement yearbook* and most widely used measure of emotional-social intelligence to date (Bar-On, 2006; Bar-On, Maree & Elias, 2007). He coined the term Emotional Quotient (EQ) in 1985. EI is defined by Bar-On (2002) "as an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures"(p. 14). People who are "emotionally and socially intelligent are able to understand and express themselves, to understand and relate well to others and to successfully cope with the demands of daily life" (Bar-On, Maree & Elias, 2007, p. 2).

An analysis of variance of North American normative sample was conducted to examine the effects of age, gender, and ethnicity on EQ-I scores (Bar-On, 2006). The findings were that older people are more emotionally and socially intelligent than younger people, females are more aware of emotions than males and males are more adept at managing emotions and have a higher self-regard. There are no significant differences between the ethnic groups (Bar-On, 2002).

Leadership Styles

A literature review of leadership has identified hundreds of variations in viewpoints. The seminal works of Stogdill (1948) suggests that leaders orchestrate group activities while Bass (2008) identifies leadership as a focus, a personality, an act or

behavior, an instrument, an emerging effect of interaction, the initiation of structure, the art of inducing compliance, the exercise of influence, a form of persuasion and a power relationship. Dupuy and Dupuy (1959) refer to other elements like obedience, confidence, respect and loyal cooperation in their definition of leadership. In Bass and Stogdill's *Handbook of Leadership* (1990) they write "leadership is an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members" (p. 109). Joseph Rost (1991) in *Leadership for the Twenty First Century* reviewed 221 definitions of leadership. Summarizing all of the definitions, Circulla (1995) notes, "one can detect a family resemblance between the definitions. All of them talk about leadership as some kind of a process, act or influence that in some way gets people to do something" (p. 21). She explains that the major difference is how the leader gets the followers to do things. A noted futurist, Joel A. Barker reflects this point by suggesting, "A leader is someone you will follow to a place that you would not go by yourself" (brainyquotes.com, 2009). Simply stated, a leader must have followers and followers must have a leader.

Beginning in the twentieth century, research into the question of leadership became more systematic and sophisticated. In the 1920s, innovative research led to the development of the Trait Theory of leadership (Bass, 1990). This theory included leadership characteristics that pertaining to a leader's physical characteristics such as height and weight, their social skills as well as their personality type including being dominant or independent (Bass, 1990). This research was unsuccessful in attempts to identify a common characteristic of effective leaders: Stogdill concluded that both the personal trait of the "person and the situation had to be included to explain the emergence

of leadership” (as cited in Bass & Bass, 2008, p. 50). The next major attempt at a general theory of leadership was Style Theory in the 1940s (Bass, 1990). McGregor (1966) cultivated a basic understanding of leadership styles by defining leaders within two particular contexts: ‘theory X’ which is conventional in nature and focuses on leaders enabling employees to complete a task that meets an organizational need. His second theory is ‘theory Y’ which describes empowering employees and fostering their development (McGregor, 1966). Contingency Theory, where leadership is based on a particular situation, dominates current research (Goffee & Jones, 2000). Researchers referred to contingent reinforcement as the core component of effective leadership. This is referred to as the “transactional leadership” theory (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003). Transactional and Transformational leadership was born from Contingency Theory. Burns (1978) was the first author to contrast transforming and transactional leadership styles.

Transactional versus Transformational Leadership. Simply stated, transactional leadership means that the followers complied with the leaders in exchange for rewards or praise or in avoidance of disciplinary action (Bass, 1990). Generally, performance expectations are reached due to goal setting and consistent reinforcement. Transactional leadership also includes management by exception and laissez-faire leadership (Bass, 1990). With management by exception, the manager waits for a problem or issue to arise and then takes appropriate action to correct the situation. With laissez-faire leadership, the leader avoids making a decision (Bass, 1990a). These styles indicate that transactional leadership styles are directive in approach. The transactional leadership style is often characterized as one that reflects little or no motivation particularly since compliance is

the hallmark of this approach.

On the other hand, the literature reflects the transformational leadership style, as one that is based on the concept that followers are motivated to achieve performance beyond expectations by transforming the follower's attitudes, beliefs and values (Bass, 1985). Burns (1978) argues transformational leadership is much more powerful and involves influencing and empowering of subordinates in order to transform the organization (Yukl, 1989). This transformation is a shared process that involving many people in the organization at different levels.

Transformational leadership is sometimes referred to as "charismatic leadership" (Bass, 1985). Bass (1990a) identifies several dimensions of transformational leadership such as charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. Charismatic leaders provide vision and sense of organizational mission, while instilling pride and gaining respect and trust. Inspirational leaders communicate high expectations for important purposes and support intellectual stimulation by promoting intelligence and careful problem solving. The leader treats each employee individually and coaches and advises when necessary (Bass, 1990a). These transformational or charismatic behaviors are believed to augment the impact of transactional leaders' behaviors on employee outcome variables because "followers feel trust and respect toward the leaders and they are motivated to do more than they are expected to do" (Yukl, 1989, p. 272).

Bass (2008) describes numerous types of theories and models of leadership, including: personal and situational theories, interaction and social learning theories, theories and models of interactive processes, and hybrid explanations. Bass argues

transformational leadership is a hybrid category. This means that it includes a combination of cognitive, behavioral, and interactional explanations to describe leader-follower relations and outcomes. He references the following from Yukl (1989):

Transformational leadership refers to the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organization members and building commitment for the organization's mission, objectives, and strategies. The concept describes a leadership process that is recognized primarily by outcomes such as major changes in the culture and strategies of an organization or social system (p. 269).

In a seminal work, Burns (1978) provided the first comprehensive theory to explain the differences between transactional and transformational political leaders. The field of transformational leadership in organizations experienced renewed interest in the mid-to-late 1980s due to several driving forces (Conger, 1999). A rapidly changing environment, combined with reductions in layers of management, means that leaders must do more than manage. Leaders are acting as change agents where they develop their team members (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991). General dissatisfaction with earlier models of leadership, combined with intense global business competition and declining employee commitment, sparked renewed interest in studying and understanding transformational leadership.

The writings of Burns (1978), a political scientist and social historian, have led to the development of the theory of transformational leadership. Burns (1978) described management or supervision based on contractual relationships as "transactional." In this type of relationship the employee, in fact, agrees to a contract in which certain duties or activities are performed in return for rewards from the organization, such as pay and benefits. Burns's (1978) early work stimulated many transformational approaches.

Bass (1985) built on Burns's theory by developing an assessment tool, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ measures both transactional and transformational leadership. The Bass transformational scales include: idealized influence, which was originally labeled "charisma"; individualized consideration, which deals with personal attention, support, and encouragement; intellectual stimulation dealing with new ways of thinking and viewing problems; and inspirational motivation dealing with vision (Bass, 1985). Bass talked about transformational leadership in terms of its effect on followers. His MLQ has been used in many research studies and has been refined numerous times (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). The research has included work with emotional intelligence and leadership behavior (Butler & Chinowsky, 2006). His work has provided a sound initial grounding for the scientific study of transformational leadership.

Bennis (1984) describes organizations with effective leaders as places where people feel important, learning and competence matter, people are part of a community, and work is exciting. Bennis and Nanus (1985) recorded five behavior patterns demonstrated by exceptional leaders. Their study involved conducting in-depth interviews with 90 exceptional CEOs from both public and private organizations of all kinds. The leadership behavior patterns they identified included management of attention, communication, trust, respect, and willingness to take risks. They called this type of leadership "transformative" and, like Burns, distinguished it from management, which consists of a set of "contractual exchanges" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). They observed that,

Leadership is "causative," meaning that leadership can invent and create institutions that can empower employees to satisfy their needs.

Leadership is morally purposeful and elevating, which means, if nothing else, that leaders can, through deploying their talents, choose purposes and visions that are based on the key values of the work force and create the social architecture that supports them. Finally, leadership can move followers to higher degrees of consciousness, such as liberty, freedom, justice, and self-actualization (p. 218).

Kouzes and Posner (1987) developed a clear, behavioral explanation of transformational leadership. Their research was conducted by asking managers to describe their own “personal best” cases, from which they created questions about leadership behavior. They then asked hundreds of managers to answer those questions about exceptional leaders who they had known. Eventually they identified five clear factors that they included in their questionnaire, the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Each of the five factors includes two leadership behaviors (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). The first factor involves challenging the process and starts with searching for opportunities and taking sensible risks. The second is inspiring a shared vision, which encompasses constructing a future vision and building follower support. Kouzes and Posner’s (1995) third factor describes enabling others to act, including fostering collaboration and supporting followers in their personal development. Fourth, Kouzes and Posner (1995) encourage modeling the way by setting examples through personal behavior and focusing on step-by-step accomplishments. The last step, encouraging the heart, includes recognizing followers’ contributions and finding ways to celebrate achievements.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) maintain that transformational leadership is about change, innovation, and entrepreneurship. Their study involved in-depth interviews, each lasting several hours, with high-level executives in large organizations, including Jack Welch at General Electric and Lee Iacocca at Chrysler (Tichy & Devanna, 1986). They identified seven characteristics that they claimed differentiate transformational leaders

from transactional managers. Transformational leaders identify themselves as change agents; are courageous individuals; believe in people; are value-driven; are life-long learners; have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty; and are visionaries. The role for these transformational leaders is described as recognizing the need for revitalization, creating a new vision, and institutionalizing change.

Kotter and Heskett (1992) based their work on a series of qualitative studies in over 200 organizations. Like Schein (1993), their conclusion was that leadership effectiveness is based on the leader's ability to change and influence organizational culture. They (Kotter & Heskett, 1992) discussed several actionable characteristics of effective leaders, including bringing an outsider's perspective, having insider knowledge, creating the need for change, developing a direction-setting vision, broadly communicating the vision, and encouraging subordinate managers to take action to implement the vision.

While these authors have highlighted the evolution in research pertaining to leadership effectiveness, Yukl (1989) states,

The confused state of the field can be attributed in large part to the disparity of approaches, the narrow focus of most researchers, and the absence of broad theories that integrate findings from the different approaches. (pp. 253-254).

Yukl (1994) argues in support of integrative research and the creation of a model of leadership that integrates the various pieces into a full-fledged leadership theory.

Since transformational leadership is flexible by definition, determining one effective transformational leadership style and definition for all people, for all situations, at all times seems an impossible task. In fact, researchers argue it is impossible to determine one particular leadership style for all employees in all situations (Blanchard,

1985). Blanchard (1985) argues that leaders need to have a flexible style when developing employees. He outlines this in his Situational Leadership design and illustrates what he considers to be essential capacities for leaders (Blanchard, 1985). This includes the following areas: telling, selling, participating and delegating (Heresy & Blanchard, 1969). Blanchard (1985) revised his leadership design and includes additional styles, such as directing, coaching, supporting and delegating.

Several authors agree with Blanchard's framework. For example, Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) in the book *Primal Leadership*, state that effective leaders use more than one style every day (p. 55). They name six leadership styles: visionary, coaching, affiliative, democratic, pacesetter and commanding (Goleman et al., 2002). In the Harvard Business Review article "Leadership Run Amok," Spier, Fontaine, and Malloy (2006) identify six effective leadership styles: directive, visionary, affiliative, participative, pacesetter, and coaching. Senge (1990) suggests that a new leadership role emerges from the learning organization where the role of the leader will be that of a designer, teacher and steward. The book *Good to Great* identifies five levels of leadership, with Level 5 executives "building enduring greatness through a paradoxical blend of personal humility and professional will" (Collins, 2001, p. 20). Maxwell (1998) developed "The 21 Irrefutable Laws of Leadership" to help leaders know how to lead. A review of the literature shows vision as a common characteristic in most of these models. In transformational leadership terms, vision can be defined as charisma. Weber (1946) identified vision as one of the five elements that contribute to charisma. House (1977) states that charismatic leaders demonstrate a number of behaviors including articulating an ideology that enhances goal clarity, task force and value congruence.

These varying transformational leadership styles and characteristics bring challenges to leadership and the development of the leaders. However leadership is defined, it must exist at all levels in organizations and the capability for leadership must be developed over time (Eddy & Burke, 1980). Warren Bennis (2006) states that “the most dangerous myth is that leaders are born not made-that there is a genetic factor to leadership, that people have certain charismatic qualities or not. That’s nonsense. Leaders are made rather than born” (p. 4). The development of that leadership skill is big business. If leadership is, simply stated, a “1. position or office of a leader 2. Capacity or ability to lead” (Webster, 1995, p. 624) then we must concentrate our efforts on the leader within the organization. Corporate investment in leadership development grew dramatically from the 1960s through the 1980s (Ready, Vicere, & White, 1993; Vicere, Taylor, & Freeman, 1993). Fulmer (1997) estimated annual corporate expenditures at \$45 billion and growing. Fulmer (1997) states that most organizations have shifted their focus from training managers to developing leaders. Paradise (2008) highlights that ASTD estimates that U.S. organizations spent \$134.39 billion on employee learning and development in 2007. It would be valuable for organizations to establish and utilize a model or a framework to develop leaders.

The exploratory study by Baring, Slater and Kelloway (2000) showed that “emotional intelligence is associated with three aspects of transformational leadership namely, idealized influence, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration.” (p. 159). The Baring et al. (2000) describe idealized influence as the ability to know and manage your own emotions, to display self-control and delay gratification. Inspirational motivation is the ability to understand the emotions of others. Individualized

consideration is explained as the ability to positively manage relationships and use empathy. As important, this exploratory study also found that transactional leadership was not associated with emotional intelligence competencies. Sivanathan and Fekken (2002) showed that followers with high emotional intelligence competencies are more effective and are true transformational leaders. EI has been shown to be an essential quality of managers (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997), an important component of organizational commitment (Abraham, 1999) and a key tenet of leadership performance (Dulewicz, Young, & Dulewicz, 2005; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Ashkanasy and Tse (2000) also theorized that emotional intelligence correlated with transformational leadership. One critical point is that transformational leaders need to demonstrate emotional intelligence competencies and be adaptable to situations and to their followers. Max DePree (1998) says it best, “but to be a leader means, especially, having the opportunity to make a difference in the lives of those who permit leaders to lead” (p. 22).

Adult Learning Theories. The literature review of cognitive learning theory seems consistent in theory but not in approach. Cognitivist education is demonstrated when learners develop a deep understanding of the content in such a way that they construct or change their mental models (Piaget, 1968). It is about making sense of situations and of developing understanding. The cognitivist learning is a complex practice of problem solving, mental mapping and intuition. The various cognitive approaches seem to be divided into separate camps, Piaget’s Development Stages or genetic epistemology, Bruner’s Discovery Approach, Ausubel’s Expository Approach and Bloom’s Taxonomy (Piaget 1968; Bruner 1966; Ausubel 1963; O’Connor, 2007).

Piaget's (1968) theory of cognitive child development stages, schema or cognitive structures includes four phases, sensorimotor, preoperations, concrete operations, and formal operations. Piaget (1968) believed that these cognitive structures change by a process of adaptation including assimilation and accommodation. Piaget (1968) defined a schema as the mental set of perceptions, ideas, and/or actions. He considered schemata to be the basic building blocks of thinking (Piaget, 1968). Bartlett (1958) uses the concept to propose that memory takes the form of schema that provides a mental framework for understanding and remembering information. Both theorists agree on the mental framework and schemas as an integral component of cognitive learning.

Bruner (1966) believed that learning is an active process in which learners construct new concepts based upon their current/past knowledge. The learner transforms information and constructs hypotheses. These cognitive structures (schema or mental models) provide meaning to experiences and allow the individual to go beyond the given information (Bruner, 1966).

"Cognitive structure," Ausubel (1960) states, "is hierarchically organized in terms of highly inclusive concepts under which are subsumed less inclusive subconcepts and informational data" (p. 267). Learning is a matter of erecting cognitive structures (scaffolding) to hold new information. By placing information into its proper box, we are better able to retain it for future use. Ausubel (1963) emphasizes the learner's cognitive structure in the acquisition of new information. Pre-existing experience fits into what the learner already knows. "Existing cognitive structure, that is an individual's organization, stability and clarity of knowledge in a particular subject matter field at any given time, is the principal factor influencing the learning and retention of meaningful new material"

(Ausubel, 1963, p. 217). He advocates expository learning or deductive, when the teacher presents a progression of information from the general to the specific (Ausubel, 1963). This usually occurs in large group learning experiences, for example, lecture halls, where the students receive the information. Ausubel (1963) believes learning should be deductive while Bruner believes it should be inductive. Inductive denoted presenting information from the specific to the general.

The last of the cognitivist learning theories to be discussed is Bloom's Taxonomy (O'Connor, 2007). In the mid 1950's, Benjamin Bloom developed sequential cognitive learning stages or steps know as Blooms Taxonomy. These steps begin with knowledge then comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and finally evaluation. Bloom's Taxonomy was revised by Anderson and Krathwohl in 2001 (O'Connor, 2007). The revised taxonomy has six stages which include remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating. As with the original taxonomy, each stage has its own level of complexity or hierarchy of learning (O'Connor, 2007).

Constructivism is an educational philosophy that has two major principles according to Duffy and Cunningham (1996). First, learning is an active process of constructing rather than acquiring knowledge. Second, instruction is a process of supporting that construction rather than communicating knowledge. Constructionists also believe that the learner interprets the learning experience and constructs their own mental models (Bednar, Cunningham, Duffy & Perry, 1991). In the classroom, constructivism is similar to learner-centered. It is the instructor's job to guide the learners to develop new patterns of thinking and provide scaffolding or support to ensure that learning occurs (O'Connor, 2007).

A common thread within the cognitive and constructive research has been the metaphor of scaffolding. “Scaffolding is the educational term for providing support to the learners while they engage in activities that are normally out of their reach” (Soloway, Jackson, Klien, Quintana, et. al., 1996, p. 189). The teacher or facilitator provides the scaffold to support the learning. “The scaffold is the environment the teacher creates, the instructional support, the processes and language” used to develop the learning (Wilhelm, Baker & Dube, 2001). Regardless of their approaches to the cognitivist theory, Bruner (1966) and Ausubel (1963) utilize scaffolding in the learning design. The facilitator of this learning practice provides the scaffold to support the concepts of emotional intelligence. In thinking more broadly about student-centered and pathway learning, there is a continuum of learning styles from didactic (traditional) to participatory (student-centered). In learner-centered approach, the learners have full responsibility for their own learning. The ownership of the learning is with the student. The teacher acts as a facilitator and resource person. This approach is born from the work of Carl Rogers. “We cannot teach another person directly; we can only facilitate his learning” (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2005, p. 49). The student teacher relationship is important for the learning environment. “If we can provide a certain type of relationship, the other person can discover within himself the capacity to use that relationship for growth and challenge and personal development will occur” (Rogers, 1961, p. 33). The learning starts with what the learner brings to the context of learning.

The development of the individual is embedded in humanistic psychology specifically in the works of Maslow (self-actualizing person) and Rogers (fully functioning person). Humanists consider the learning from the perspective of human

potential for growth with individuals having unlimited potential for growth and development. These concepts of self-actualization and self-directed learning compliment Knowles' (2005) concept of andragogy. Knowles' (2005) theory is an attempt to develop a theory specifically for adult-learning which is important in my corporate learning practice. Andragogy focuses on learner-directed instruction and pedagogy is based on teacher-directed learning. Andragogy makes the following assumptions: (1) Adults need to know why they need to learn something (2) Adults need to learn experientially, (3) Adults approach learning as problem-solving, and (4) Adults learn best when the topic is of immediate value. (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2005). Teachers drawing upon andragogy would be most likely to choose strategies such as case studies, role-playing, simulations, and self-evaluation are. Instructors adopt a role of facilitator or resource rather than lecturer or grader.

Like Bruner (1966) and Ausubel (1963), Knowles (2005) believes that the learners create their own unique education because learning is based on prior knowledge. This concept is important to the emotional intelligence learning practice that is being analyzed. All participants create their own education from the workshop because it is based on prior knowledge, experiences, schemas and mental representations of the theory. The adults in the workshop know why they are there and that there is immediate value for the learning. Dirkx, Swanson, Watkins, Cseh (2002) also describe the phenomenon of student-centered learning in the workplace. One important aspect of workplace learning is the process of development. "Seeking to further his or her self-actualization within and through work, the worker's development rather than specific skills and knowledge is viewed as the primary focus for the learning" (Dirkx, Swanson,

Watkins, & Cseh, 2002). Self-actualization is a common theme throughout the student-centered and human development literature as well as in the learning intervention being analyzed on emotional intelligence. A review of the literature also revealed the term learner-centered design. The literature refers to software and computer applications of learner-centered design and scaffolding (Soloway, Jackson, Klien, Quintana, Reed, Spitulnik, Stratford, Studer, Eng & Scala, 1996). The terms student-centered and learner-centered are used interchangeably throughout the literature. Overall, this EI learning practice exemplifies the student-centered and pathway to human development as represented by this literature review.

A review of emotional intelligence learning interventions suggests three models for effective development of EI competencies. Murphy (2006) identified three categories: cognitive, skill-based and affective (pp. 227-228). As analyzed, this workshop is cognitive. The second model presented by Ciarrochi and Mayer (2006) created five principles to follow including assessment, guided experience, transfer, ongoing support and follow-up (pp. 55-57). Cherniss and Goleman offer 22 guidelines for effective development of EI competencies (Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan & Adler, 1998). This EI learning intervention that was used in the study meets the categories, guidelines and principles presented in the literature.

Shifting focus from the learner focus to assessment, the EQ-i assessment and corresponding feedback are an integral component of this workshop. Presenting feedback to participants in a facilitated workshop will tend to generate larger pretest-posttest gain scores than it will by simply presenting the same information in writing. Bowers (1973) conducted a longitudinal feedback study involving more than 14,000 respondents in 23

organizations and found that both what he called data handback and survey feedback were associated with positive changes, but the largest change was associated with the survey feedback method. What Bowers (1973) called the “survey feedback method” was equivalent to the feedback workshop in that it involved a facilitated discussion of the feedback data. His theory was that facilitating a discussion of the data helps participants to catalogue its implications and forge a commitment to improvement. Bowers’s (1973) explanation for this improvement is that the discussion helps to focus attention on the changes necessary for improvement – making the point that having the opportunity to discuss feedback can be a positive factor in driving improvement. According to Yukl and Lepsinger (1995), one can increase the likelihood of real behavioral change from feedback by having a facilitator explain the feedback and help managers to use it to their advantage. This corresponds to Bruner (1966), Ausubel (1963) and Knowles (2005) whose theory includes that learning is based in prior knowledge. The facilitator guides the learners to new patterns of thinking and provides scaffolding to ensure learning occurs. Workshops can help participants understand their feedback, accept their feedback, and use it to improve their effectiveness. The study by Hegarty (1974) found that first-line supervisors who discussed their feedback with a consultant made more improvements in their supervisory behaviors than did supervisors who only received their feedback in writing. In a related work on the managerial performance implications of developmental assessment center processes, Engelbrecht and Fischer (1995) conclude that the feedback session helps managers to develop because it provides them with insight and facilitates the formulation of development strategies. This learning intervention design includes a follow-up coaching session for each participant.

Numerous researchers have documented that self-ratings are generally inflated, biased, and inaccurate when compared to ratings of others (e.g., supervisors, peers, direct reports) or to more objective criteria (Ashford, 1989; Bass, 1990; Bass & Yammarino, 1991; Yammarino & Atwater, 1993). Zeider, Matthews and Roberts (2009) report that empirical studies have failed to validate self-reports of social-emotional abilities” (p. 135). “When EI measures are based on self-reports, it is important that the test author provide data on the fakability of test scores” (Bar-On, Maree, & Elias, 2007, p. 261). The EQ-i assessment includes four indices which assess item omission, positive impression (faking good), negative impression (faking bad) and item consistency. A correction factor is used to adjust the scores based on the positive and negative impression. The EQ-i assessment is consistent, stable and reliable with an internal consistency coefficient of .97. The instrument also possesses good construct validity. It measures what it is supposed to measure (Bar-On, 2006).

The literature appears to be absent any empirical evidence on the efficacy of a half-day workshop or a half-day EI workshop in any literature. The following are confirming e-mail responses from experts.

I don't know of any research on the impact of half-day or full-day workshops. It would be a great topic to study. However, a good study would need to look at long-term impact. For instance, it is quite possible that one could observe behavioral change in certain aspects of emotional intelligence, such as emotion perception, during the course of a brief workshop; but whether such changes would still be noticeable 6 months later remains to be seen. (Dr. Cary Cherniss, e-mail 2009)

American Management Association has not conducted any recent research on the efficacy of half-day workshops. (Roger Kelleher, Public Relations Manager, American Management Association, e-mail 2009)

I know of no studies on half day or whole day workshops. I actually don't think they help build any competencies. I believe they may arouse

awareness and, in that sense be motivational--they may motivate someone to do more reading, reflecting, and even enroll in a multi-day workshop that might improve competencies. But I don't know of any study documenting this awareness or motivational effect. (Richard E. Boyatzis, PhD, Professor Departments of Organizational Behavior, Psychology, Cognitive Science, Case Western Reserve University, e-mail 2009)

A literature review revealed three recommended models for the training and development of EI. None of these models identified a recommended length of time for the EI training. Murphy presents the first of the models referring to three categories of cognitive, skill-based and affective for training and development interventions (2006, 227-229). The cognitive-based approach to training, which is similar to the EI workshop that is analyzed for this study, includes the understanding of the EI construct, relationships, principles and guidelines. Once the participants understand, they can set goals and practice to apply the learning in the workplace. The skills-based training program would include behavior modeling with a series of practice and feedback activities. The affective-based training program “has the goal of changing attitudes, beliefs and predispositions”(p. 228). An example of this approach would be a new employee socialization process. The author states the interpersonal training has been shown to be successful in organizations.

The second model for EI training was proposed by Ciarrochi and Mayer (2007). They identify five “learning principles to guide EI skills training: assessment, guided experience, transfer, ongoing support and follow-up evaluation’ (Ciarrochi & Mayer, 2007, p. 56). Assessments are recommended for EI training including individual time to debrief. A guided experience, role plays and case studies have been included as a principle for EI learning. These role plays and case studies must be taken drawn from the participants to transfer the skills to work. On-going coaching and support is critical for

development, this support can be a follow-up e-mail, coaching session or reminder. The final principle is to conduct a behavioral follow-up evaluation.

The third model for effective EI training involves a 22 step process (Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan and Adler, 1998). These best practice guidelines are divided into three phases (Appendix C). Phase One is prepare for the change: assess organizations needs, assess each person's strengths and limits on key competencies and deliver results with care, gauge readiness of the learner before starting the development process, set clear goals, make the learning self-directed and help learners build positive expectations. Phase Two is training: foster a positive relationship between the trainer and learner, use live model, rely on experiential opportunities for practice and give feedback and inoculate against setbacks. Phase Three is encourage, maintain and evaluate change: build on social support, create and encourage environment and conduct ongoing evaluation research.

This exploratory study has combined the principles of three models in a half-day learning intervention and one-hour coaching session to research the impact on EI development. The leadership development model of assessment, challenge and support was the framework for the study.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The mixed methods exploratory study was conducted as a field experiment, designed to assess and analyze the impact of a four-hour learning intervention on emotional intelligence competencies. The data was triangulated using the pre and post self-assessments, pre and post qualitative interviews, pre and post field notes or observations by the researcher and a survey. A literature review of studies about the impact of learning interventions and emotional intelligence varied in the type of research methodology used. Some experiments use pre-post qualitative measures only, some used quantitative measures only, some used control/research groups and some were mixed methods pre and posttest (Boyatzis, Stubbs & Taylor, 2002; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004; Sjolund & Gustafsson, 2001; Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak & Hansenne, 2009).

Specifically, this study included pre-test quantitative EQ-i assessments and qualitative behavioral interviews. The participants completed the EQ-i assessment before participating in the one-hour interviews that took place 30 days prior to the learning intervention. The participants attended the training class (learning intervention), including distribution of the EQ-i pre-assessment. Six weeks after the learning intervention, each participant received a ninety minute critical incident interview session combined with a coaching session and program evaluation. Three months after the learning intervention, the participants completed an EQ-i self-assessment post-test. The retest intervals were timed so there was only a minimum risk of a memory factor contaminating true variance (Downie & Heath, 1970). The triangulation of qualitative,

quantitative and observational data was analyzed using SPSS software and an Emotional Competency Indicator (ECI) coding scale.

Instruments

The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) and ECI qualitative interview questions (Appendix E) were used to assess competencies for this study. The electronically administered EQ-i self-assessment is comprised of 125 items related to social and emotional intelligence. The individual responds to one of five levels ranging from very seldom or not true of me (1), seldom true of me (2), sometimes true of me (3), often true of me (4) to very often true (5). A list of the inventory items is listed in Appendix A or in the instrument's technical manual (Bar-On, 1997). The EQ-i raw scores are converted into standard scores based on a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15 to facilitate interpretation of individual results. The individual's response report identifies a total Emotional Quotient (EQ) score, scores on each of the five composite scales and scores on the 15 subscale scores. The list of scales and what they assess are listed in Appendix B. This self-report instrument is easy to administer, convenient to use and "is appealing from a training and development perspective" (Bar-On, Maree & Elias, 2007, p. 266). The EQ-i is a valid and reliable instrument (Bar-On, 2002).

A critical incident interview can be described as one that makes a significant contribution, either positively or negatively, to an activity. Critical incidents can be gathered in various ways, but typically respondents are asked to tell a story about an experience. A Critical Incident Techniques (CIT) is a flexible method that usually relies on five major areas. The first is determining and reviewing the incident, then fact-finding, which involve collecting the details of the incident from the participants. When all of the

facts are collected, the next step is to identify the issues. Afterwards a decision can be made on how to resolve the issues based on various possible solutions. The final and most important aspect is the evaluation, which will determine if the solution that was selected will solve the root cause of the situation and will cause no further problems (Flanagan, 1954).

In this study, the qualitative critical incident interviews (CII) or behavioral event interviews (BEI) were a one-hour and digitally recorded utilizing the ECI competency model as identified on the behavioral indicator reference sheet (Appendix E). The individuals were asked to describe in detail two work experiences that they felt were effective and one they felt was ineffective (Boyatzis, Stubbs & Taylor, 2002). The recordings were transcribed and coded for the ECI emotional intelligence competencies as described on Appendix E. The ECI measures four critical areas of emotional intelligence that encompass the following 18 abilities: Self-Awareness: Emotional Self-Awareness, Accurate Self-Assessment, Self-Confidence; Self-Management: Emotional Self-Control, Transparency, Adaptability, Achievement Orientation, Initiative, Optimism; Social Awareness: Empathy, Organizational Awareness, Service Orientation; Relationship Management: Developing Others, Inspirational Leadership, Change Catalyst, Influence, Conflict Management, Teamwork and Collaboration (Ziedner, Matthews & Roberts, 2009). Table 2 identifies the similarities and differences in the ECI and EQ-i assessments.

Table 2

ECI Competencies vs. EQ-i

ECI Qualitative

EQ-i Quantitative

Emotional Self Awareness	Emotional Self Awareness
Accurate Self-Assessment	Self-Regard
Emotional Self Control	Impulse Control Stress Tolerance
Self-Confidence	Self Regard
Achievement	Self Actualization
Service Orientation, Organizational Awareness	Social responsibility
Empathy	Empathy
Initiative	Problem Solving Assertiveness
Inspirational Leadership	Interpersonal Relationship
Accurate Self assessment	Reality Testing
Adaptability	Flexibility
Optimism	Optimism
Trustworthiness, Developing Others, Change catalyst Conflict management Teamwork and Collaboration	- - - - - - Independence Happiness

Data Collection

There were seven sources for data collection during this study. Pre and post EQ-i self-assessment data, pre and post digital recorded qualitative behavioral event interview data, coaching session, observations or field notes and an e-mailed survey. All data was collected, transcribed and scored on my personal computer database.

Data Analysis. The quantitative scores for pre and posttest EQ-i were analyzed in aggregate utilizing a paired t-test statistical method. The pre and post qualitative

interview data were digital recorded and transcribed. All pre and post BEI transcripts were thoroughly read after the learning intervention, coaching session and all of the assessments were completed and before coding. The transcripts were coded and analyzed based on the ECI competencies (Appendix B). A research auditor was used with an inter-rater reliability of 91%. The field notes or observations were analyzed and coded according to the EQ-i and ECI competencies (Appendix B, E, F).

Timeline. The study timeline is listed below:

Administer Participant letter and consent form	August, 2004
Pre-work EQ-i Assessments (15 minutes)	August-September, 2009
Pre-Qualitative Interviews (1 hour)	September, 2009
EI learning Intervention (4 hours)	September 28, 2009
Post Intervention Interviews and Coaching session (90 minutes)	November (5- 6 weeks after workshop)
Post Intervention EQ-i Assessments (15minutes)	December (90 days after workshop)
Data Coding, Analysis and Conclusion	January, February 2010
Dissertation Defense	March 22

The data collection began in late August with the administration of the participant invitation letters and consent forms. Once the participants were confirmed in the study, the online EQ-i assessment information was administered and the one hour qualitative BEI dates and times were scheduled. The EQ-i self-assessment is administered before the qualitative critical incident interviews in order to increase validity and accuracy of the assessment process (Bar-On, 2002). The EQ-I assessments were scored after the BEI and before the learning intervention. The half-day EI learning intervention was held on September 28 2009 in the UPHS training facility. Thirty-five to forty days after the learning intervention, the forty-five minute post qualitative interviews were conducted utilizing the BEI technique. A forty five minute coaching session continued at the end of

the interview. In December, the post quantitative EQ-i assessment were administered and electronically scored. The data coding and analysis began in January 2010.

Sample and Site. The selected sample size for the study was 15 participants who are leaders in the University of Pennsylvania Health System (UPHS). The University of Pennsylvania Health System includes approximately 13,000 employees in three hospitals, the Hospital of the University of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania Hospital, and Penn Presbyterian Medical Center; a primary-care provider network; two multi-specialty satellite facilities; home care and hospice; as well as a nursing home. The sample was chosen because of the employment stability of the leaders, the availability of the leader's time and commitment to the study, location and no prior EI training. The Chief Nursing executive determined the population which was to be sampled. The participants in the study were Nurse Managers from the Hospital of University of Pennsylvania. The total sample population of nurse managers is 71. After controlling for the variable of "no prior EI training" the population is 51. Of these 51 Nurse Managers, seven are male and 44 are female. A stratified random sampling method was used to select the participants. The 51 names were listed alphabetically and every third name was chosen to be included into the study. The list of the 15 selected participants represented all female nurse managers. Upon IRB approval, a research cover letter was sent to the 15 participants. (Appendix F) Fourteen participants agreed to participate in the study and completed the EQ-i pre-assessment and BEI interview. Thirteen attended the workshop. The post qualitative interviews were conducted with 12 participants and only 11 completed the post EQ-i assessment. The total sample that attended the learning intervention completed the pre and post qualitative interviews and assessments for this exploratory study were 11 participants. The participant

numbers which were used for the analysis are number 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, and 13. The data from these 11 participants is the basis for this dissertation.

The Behavioral Event Interview (BEI) is an adaptation of critical incident interview (CII) as described above in the instruments section of this chapter (McClelland, 1998). A behavioral interview is a structured interview to gain information about past behavior. The goal of this interview technique was to uncover EI behavior or competencies by asking open-ended questions about examples of effective and ineffective leadership experiences.

In this study, the qualitative CII or BEI were approximately one-hour digital recorded interviews utilizing the ECI competency model as identified on the behavioral indicator reference sheet to code for behaviors (Appendix E). The individuals were asked to describe in detail two work experiences when they felt effective and one when they felt ineffective (Boyatzis, Stubbs & Taylor, 2002). The process was to describe one effective, one ineffective and then one effective work experience. The recorded interviews were transcribed and coded for the ECI emotional intelligence competencies as described on Appendix E. The ECI measures four critical areas of emotional intelligence that encompass the following 18 competencies: Self-Awareness: Emotional Self-Awareness, Accurate Self-Assessment, Self-Confidence; Self-Management: Emotional Self-Control, Transparency, Adaptability, Achievement Orientation, Initiative, Optimism; Social Awareness: Empathy, Organizational Awareness, Service Orientation; Relationship Management: Developing Others, Inspirational Leadership, Change Catalyst, Influence, Conflict Management, Teamwork and Collaboration (Ziedner, Matthews & Roberts,

2009). Table 2 identifies the similarities and differences in the ECI and EQ-i assessments. The definitions of the coding comparison are presented in Appendix G.

Validity. Effective August 10, 2009, I was an employee of the UPHS. I have no prior knowledge or relationship with any of the participants in the study to impact the validity of the study. Establishing a professional relationship of respect, confidentiality and trust with the participants was important in conducting the qualitative interviews. As previously stated, the triangulation of the data provided evidence to increase validity. However, the researcher bias presents a possible threat to the validity as presented in Maxwell (2005). As the designer of the learning intervention and facilitator of EI training for more than eight years, the researcher has experienced the positive impact of the training session on the program participants. I used a Research Auditor to review the coded qualitative data.

In addition, an independent observer was retained to critique my learning intervention facilitation to insure an unbiased presentation. The triangulation of the qualitative, quantitative, field notes, independent observer and the expertise of a research auditor added credibility to this study.

The analysis of the data obtained from this research methodology has provided insights into the impact of a learning intervention on improving emotional intelligence competencies. The findings are described in Chapter Four and Future Implications are presented in Chapter Five.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

This mixed methods exploratory study as described in Chapter Three was conducted as a field experiment, designed to assess and analyze the impact of a four-hour learning intervention on emotional intelligence competencies. The data was triangulated using the pre and post self-assessments, pre and post qualitative interviews and pre and post field notes or observations by the researcher. The pre and post intervention EQ-i quantitative data, the pre and post intervention qualitative BEI data, coaching data, the participant survey and researcher field notes have identified the following findings for the two research questions in this exploratory study.

1. In what ways, if any, does a half-day classroom based corporate learning intervention impact the development of emotional intelligence competencies?
2. How does a half-day learning intervention affect the participant?

Finding #1 The half-day classroom based learning intervention had a minimal effect on the development of EI competencies. The majority of the participants gained awareness of the skills to develop the competencies.

The post BEI's identified 3 of 11 participants improved on one or more EI competencies as shown on Table 3. This represents a minimal impact on the participant competency development within six weeks of the learning intervention. Only 27% of the participants achieved improvements on less than one third of the competencies. Seven, or less, of the 18 ECI competencies showed improvement.

The design and facilitation of the workshop impacted the development of emotional intelligence competencies by producing awareness of the competencies and

how they can be improved. Awareness is the “beating heart” of gestalt therapy and is crucial for any long-term change to occur (Kirchner, 2000). Awareness is always intentional. This awareness comes with a choice to continue managing your emotions the way you are or experiment with using emotions in a different way. “Change can occur when the (person) abandons what he or she would like to become and attempts to be what he or she is” (Biessner, 1970 p. 77).

The post BEI identified three participants who were self aware and developed EI competencies. The following identified a situation when the Participant #5 (2009) recognized a negative behavior after the learning intervention and corrected it. “I have immediately realized that that wasn’t the right way to do that and gone back and said, I didn’t do that right” (pg. 1). Another participant stated that she is aware of her “hot buttons” for impulse control and she prepares accordingly for events.

So when I go into a meeting, I prep myself that way. Okay, make sure you say things that are the right thing. Make sure it’s always about patient safety, patients getting taken care of. (Participant #1, 2009. pg. 7)

Bower’s (1973) theory was that facilitating a discussion of the data helps participants to catalogue its implications and forge a commitment to improvement. Bower’s explanation for this improvement is that the discussion helps to focus attention on the changes necessary for improvement – making the point that having the opportunity to discuss feedback can be a positive factor in driving improvement. The participants discussed their assessment feedback during the facilitated learning intervention and coaching session.

The pre and post qualitative behavior event interviews also identified that EI competencies had improvement for 3 of the 11 participants before the coaching sessions.

The post BEI data provided evidence for improvements in Emotional Self Control (ESC) (impulse control), Emotional Self Awareness (ESA), Accurate Self Assessment (ASA), Initiative, Self-Confidence (SC), Achievement and Optimism. The pre and post BEI competency results of the participants are represented in Table 3. Only the emotional intelligence competencies that were identified as developed in the post learning intervention BEI are listed in the right column.

Three participants, who showed improvement from the learning intervention, improved in Emotional Self-Control. Awareness of the potential impact of low emotional self-control produced attempts to improve the behavior and more effectively deal with the situation. Emotional Self-Awareness (ESA) led to Emotional Self-Control (ESC). During the BEI, the participants stated their awareness and corrective action behaviors in the following situations when they were asked to describe either a situation where they were effective as a leader or ineffective as a leader. Each quote is followed by the specific competency code that developed as an outcome of the learning intervention.

And I got very frustrated and I said, “Are you kidding me?” As soon as that came out of my mouth I thought, “I shouldn’t have said that” and then I dealt with it and the nurse, the one nurse said to me, I thought she was fabulous. When it was done she said, “Can I talk to you for a minute? I just didn’t like the way that you talked to me”. I said, “You are absolutely right. You are 100 percent right and I was completely wrong”. And I talked to her for five minutes she said, “Water under the bridge. We’re done”. So it was great because I resolved it right then and right there. (Participant #5, 2009, p. 7) ESA, ESC, ASA, SC, Initiative

Sometimes, if I can, I literally walk away and it’s just for a minute or two until I can say, “Refocus”. Sometimes I can’t do that. Sometimes I just stop, think, reword, retool in my head and then try it again, not say what I would have knee-jerk said, say something I think that would be better. (Participant #5, 2009, p. 10) ESC, ESA

So in thinking about that, there have been a couple of instance since then where I got frustrated and I thought, “I need to take myself out”. So I took

myself out for a couple minutes and then came back. (Participant #5, 2009, p. 7) ESC, ESA

I just would need time away from the situation. (Participant #9, 2009, p. 3) ESA, ESC

I know what’s causing it but I don’t want to discuss it. I’ll just have to get away from the situation for a while, and then regroup, and then I’ll be fine. It’s just a matter of you know, you have a day that you just feel like everything is coming down on you and the work that you do is not being appreciated and I think that happens with everybody, and you just have to regroup. (Participant #9, 2009, p. 4) ECS, ESA

The learning intervention half-day design produced the desired awareness and skills to develop EI competencies for all 11 participants. This awareness was crucial for the future development of competencies. According to the Gestalt Cycle of Experience (COE), “the pressure point of change is awareness” (Wheeler, 1998, p. 38). Gestalt theory is an organized configuration of awareness. The model of COE is presented in Appendix H.

Table 3

Qualitative Pre and Post Behavioral Event Interview (BEI) Analysis

Participant Number	Pre BEI Competencies	Post BEI Competencies	Developed Competency
1	Emotional Self-Awareness Accurate Self	Emotional Self-Awareness Accurate Self -	Emotional Self Control
3	Emotional Self-Confidence Achievement Social Awareness Self-Confidence Adaptability Developing Others	Emotional Self-Confidence Achievement Self-Confidence Adaptability Self Control	
2	Adaptability	Adaptability	
4	Emotional Self-Confidence Self-Confidence Emotional Self-Confidence	Self-Confidence Emotional Self-Awareness Accurate Self-	

43	Achievement Self-Confidence Empathical Self Awareness Developing Others Empathical Self Trustworthy Adaptability	Self-Confidence Self-Confidence Empathy Developing Others Empathical Self Achievement Adaptability	
5	Developing Others Achievement Organizational Awareness Emotional Self- Awareness	Developing Others Achievement Organizational Awareness Emotional Self- Awareness	Emotional Self Control Accurate Self- Assessment Self Confidence Initiative Achievement Optimism
7	Emotional Self- Awareness Accurate Self- Assessment Developing Others Empathy Emotional Self Control Initiative Optimism	Emotional Self- Awareness Accurate Self- Assessment Empathy Emotional Self Control Initiative Optimism	
8	Achievement Developing Others Empathy Inspiration Optimism	Achievement Developing Others Empathy Inspiration Optimism	
9	Achievement Initiative Empathy Developing Others	Achievement Initiative Empathy	Emotional Self-Awareness Accurate Self Assessment Self Confidence Emotional Self Control
11	Emotional Self Awareness Empathy Achievement Initiative Accurate Self- Assessment Developing Others	Emotional Self Awareness Empathy Achievement Initiative Developing Others	
12	Achievement Organizational Awareness Empathy Accurate Self-	Achievement Empathy Accurate Self- Assessment Emotional Self-	

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ntion coaching session positively impacted the development of the EI competencies.

The triangulated data analysis shows that the learning intervention when complemented by the coaching session improved the following competencies of emotional intelligence: Assertiveness, Emotional Self Control (ESC) or Impulse Control), Problem Solving, Emotional Self-Awareness (ESA), Accurate Self-Assessment (ASA), Initiative, Self-Confidence, Achievement, Adaptability or Flexibility and Optimism. Appendix A, E and G provide definitions and item analysis for the competencies. The Emotional Self-Control or Impulse Control competency significantly improved based on the learning intervention and coaching session with the probability of .02. All of the participants, that showed EI competency development improved, in Emotional Self-Control (Impulse Control) competency.

The one-on-one coaching sessions established individual action plans to intentionally improve emotional intelligence competencies. The combination of the pre-assessment, workshop and coaching session identified statistical significance on four of the emotional intelligence competencies and two composite scales as measured by the EQ-i three-month post assessment (Table 4). The four competences that were developed were Assertiveness (.0389), Impulse Control (.0237), Flexibility (.0313) and Problem Solving (.0313) competencies improved with $p < .05$. The two emotional intelligence composite scales that identified significance were Stress Management and Adaptability. Table 4 identifies the composite scales of the EQ-i assessment. Stress management composite scale includes the sub-scales of Stress Management and Impulse Control. The Adaptability composite scale includes Reality Testing, Flexibility and Problem Solving.

The EQ-i post assessment was administered three months after the learning intervention to increase validity. The three month retest time interval was designed so there is only a minimal risk of memory factor contamination (Downie & Heath, 1970). Overall, 13 of the 15 competencies improved based on the pre and post EQ-i assessment analysis. It is evident from the study results that emotional intelligence competencies can be developed with a short learning intervention and coaching session. The Emotional Self-Control or Impulse Control improved to a greater extent than the other competencies based on all pretest and posttest data.

Table 4

EQ-i Time 1(pre EQ-i) and Time 2 (post EQ-I Means and Standard Deviations

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

n=11

	Measure	Time 1 M (SD)	Time 2 M (SD)
Total EQ	Total EQ	104.55 (9.84)	107.73 (8.65)
Intrapersonal	Intrapersonal Composite Scale	101.09 (10.14)	103.55 (9.13)
	Self-regard	100.55 (9.89)	99.36 (13.29)
	Emotional Self- Awareness	100.55 (15.10)	105.73 (8.21)
	Assertiveness*	101.00 (10.81)	106.09 (10.06)
	Independence	105.64 (9.64)	105.73 (10.06)
	Self-actualization	98.45(10.58)	100.82 (7.07)
Interpersonal	Interpersonal Composite Scale	106.64 (7.32)	109.36 (7.23)
	Empathy	109.00 (5.33)	109.09 (8.47)
	Social Responsibility	108.36 (7.03)	108.91 (7.82)
	Interpersonal Relationships	103.82 (9.35)	107.82 (8.72)
Stress Management	Stress Management Composite Scale†	104.55 (11.90)	108.18 (10.51)
	Stress Management	104.64 (12.75)	108.55 (8.31)
	Impulse Control*	102.82 (12.11)	106.64 (11.66)
Adaptability	Adaptability Composite Scale†	102.09 (12.64)	107.45 (12.14)
	Reality Testing	105.73 (8.57)	109.45 (9.56)
	Flexibility*	97.91 (16.75)	103.18 (14.90)
	Problem Solving*	97.91 (16.75)	103.18 (14.90)
General mood	General Mood Composite Scale	105.27 (7.85)	107.73 (7.30)
	Optimism	97.91 (16.75)	103.18 (14.90)
	Happiness	106.82 (9.45)	106.55 (9.08)

The Flexibility and Problem Solving competency scales also showed significant improvement that accounted for the increase in the Adaptability composite scale.

Finding 3 The individual coaching session was a critical component in the design of the learning as it enabled greater understanding and development of the participant's emotional intelligence competencies.

The individual coaching sessions provided an environment for more specific participant transparency on the topic that may not have been evident on a large group format based on the coaching transcripts and e-mail survey. According to Yukl and Lepsinger (1995), one can increase the likelihood of real behavioral change from feedback by having a facilitator explain the feedback and help managers to use it to their advantage. This corresponds to Bruner, Ausubell and Knowles whose theory includes that learning is based in prior knowledge (Bruner, 1966; Ausubel, 1963; Knowles, 2005). Hegarty (1974) illustrated those first-line supervisors who discussed their feedback with a consultant made more improvements in their supervisory behaviors than did supervisors who only received their feedback in writing. In a related work on the managerial performance implications of developmental assessment center processes, Engelbrecht and Fischer (1995) conclude that the feedback session helps managers to develop because it provides them with insight and facilitates their formulation of development strategies.

The qualitative interviews and survey results identified that the workshop and coaching session are almost equally important in the development of the competencies. The participants stated that the assessment, workshop and coaching session were important for understanding and improving the competencies. Specific comments highlights the relevancy of the learning intervention design and conceptual leadership development framework of the assessment, challenge and support.

No. E-mailing the results wouldn't have because I would have looked at it, I would have glanced at it, I would have said Oh, this is nice. Okay, yeah,

these are low scores. And then moved on to something else. No. I don't think so. I think we needed that one on one because the coaching session was wonderful, because it gave you like an overall idea of everything. But this was nice, because it's like individualized attention where you can say, name, what's going on here? We've had the opportunity – because I wouldn't talk personally about my family or situations like that with a group of 20 people, so I think it did make a difference. At least for me. (Participant #13, 2009, p. 15-16)

I think it's helpful to talk to you and hear the interpretation, kind of, and suggestions, and all of that. And the workshop was helpful and interesting. (Participant #11, 2009, p. 15)

I think the coaching session's good because it's more of a one-to-one. (Participant #2, 2009, p. 3)

You're in a group setting and then you get the one to one coaching. So I think that's more personal, more about me instead of the group. I think that. We talked a little bit maybe what we could do about it in the workshop but I think one on one's more powerful. (Participant #3, 2009, p. 3)

Probably not. Probably not. So I don't think I would be looking at it at all. You would have just sent this to me and I would have been like, Okay. I wonder what this 3.33 means? but not ask about it. I probably wouldn't have because there's always the next thing coming. There's always another project. There's always something going on. So to kind of reflect with someone else helps. (Participant #1, 2009, p. 15)

The development of emotional intelligence competencies has been demonstrated in the context of a cognitivist learning intervention encompassing the model of assessment, challenge and support, which has been shown to develop leadership competencies. Coaching is an integral component of this leadership development model.

Finding 4 Most participants did not intentionally work on their action plans that were developed in the learning intervention until after the coaching session.

The qualitative behavioral event interview post data revealed that the nine of the 11 participants did not intentionally work on their action plans before the coaching sessions even though three participants did improve their competencies. Sustainable changes are those that are intentional and self-directed (Boyatzis & McKee 2005; Boyatzis, 2000; Goleman, 1995). At the end of the learning intervention, all participants were asked to discuss an impact that they learned from the session and an action that they will take to improve their specific competencies. Everyone participated in the activities during the workshop. However, there is little proof that action was intentionally taken to improve the competencies based only on the post qualitative coaching sessions.

I believe from that session it's just to hear others kind of going through similar, I guess, experiences, or have already gone through it and then already worked through it, and then shooting out ideas of how to work through things now. That was the best thing to hear from other managers. (Participant #1, 2009, p. 1)

I would say it was a little bit eye opening. Yeah, sure, of course it did. Some of the things you actually already know – if you're pretty much self-aware, know about yourself. (Participant #2, 2009, p. 1)

I really enjoyed it. I guess I kind of felt a couple things. I thought the location of it was wonderful, off the unit, and I really felt like the group was very honest. I felt very engaged and, I think, willing to kind of open up to each other because we don't see each other in that circle all the time. So I thought it was wonderful. (Participant #3, 2009, p. 1)

I think I definitely have a better understanding of it now because I think you always think of kind of the IQ thing, and I just think emotional intelligence, I think, is just a whole other – maybe the term, the title, we don't incorporate it into our practice as much as we can. (Participant #3, 2009, p. 1)

I thought it was helpful. I think what helped is that the group saw that everybody pretty much were kind of feeling the same way, to help kind of support how you engage your staff, how you engage the patients. It's warm, more of a warmth. (Participant #7, 2009, p. 2)

It gave me areas where maybe I need to really focus in on and improve. It was nice to have the other managers in the room with the workshop and just have some open discussion about the key issues related to emotional intelligence. So it was good to be with colleagues. It was informative. It was a nice atmosphere. (Participant #8, 2009, p. 1)

I have not worked on anything since the workshop. (Participant #8, 2009, p. 1)

I thought a lot about things, but, I'm not so sure I put anything to practice. I wasn't surprised by any of the results. (Participant #12, 2009, p. 1)

I could not separate the two. I think, as a group, that it was really rewarding, at least for me, being the newer person in the institution. I think that belong able to get together and see how other people approach things and sees things. I like that. It would have probably had no validity at all if you would have just e-mailed the responses back...I think that they were equally important. (Participant #7, 2009, p. 4)

In addition, the self-report data, from an e-mailed survey to the participants after the post EQ-i assessment, identified the value of the combined assessment, workshop and coaching session approach on improving emotional intelligence scores (Table 5).

Table # 5
Participant Self-Evaluation of the intervention components

EQ-i	Workshop	Coaching
40	40	20
20	40	40
25	40	35
40	30	30
40	35	25
35	35	30
50	30	20
30	30	40
20	35	45
20	50	30
35	35	30
355 (32%)	400 (36%)	345 (32%)
Average 32	36	32

In summary, the participants enjoyed the session, became self-aware, learned about the

emotional intelligence competencies, understood the theory, and appreciated the time to work with their colleagues. Only two of the participants intentionally followed through on the action plans established during the learning intervention. They all had the capacity to change since awareness is the heart of change (Kirchner, 2000). The one step that was missing in the learning invention was the first step of the intentional change model of identifying the ideal self (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). All of the 11 participants identified the ideal self and re-established specific development goals and action plans during the coaching sessions that positively impacted the post EQ-i assessment results. The EI development model which was designed by Ciarrochi and Mayer (2007) proposed “learning principles to guide EI skills training: assessment, guided experience, transfer, ongoing support and follow-up evaluation” (p. 56). Reestablishing goals based on their strengths and gaps of their ideal self (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005), ongoing support and follow-up impacted the development of competencies for this study.

Finding 5 The Assessment, Challenge and Support leadership development model was effective in developing EI competencies.

The literature review described in Chapter Two identified three models for the development of EI competencies. The Model of Assessment Challenge and Support has shown to be effective in developing EI competencies. Coaching is a consistent element in all of the identified models for EI development. As a review, Murphy presents the first of the models referring to three categories of cognitive, skill-based and affective for training

and development interventions (2006, pp. 227-229). The cognitive-based approach to training, which is similar to the EI workshop that is analyzed for this study, includes the understanding of the EI construct, relationships, principles and guidelines. Once the participants understand, they can set goals and practice to apply the learning in the workplace. The skills-based training program included behavior modeling with a series of practice and feedback activities. The second model for EI training by Ciarrochi and Mayer (2007) identified five principles to guide EI skills training: assessment, guided experience, transfer, ongoing support and follow-up evaluation (pp. 56-57). Assessments are recommended for EI training including individual time to debrief. On-going coaching and support is critical for development, this support can be a follow-up e-mail, coaching session or reminder. The third model for effective EI training involves a 22 step process (Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan & Adler, 1998). These best practice guidelines are divided into three phases. Phase One is prepare for the change, phase two is training and phase three is encourage, maintain and evaluate change.

The Assessment Challenge and Support model, as described in Chapter One, identified three integrated elements in the process of development that are important as a framework to approach the development of leaders. The model designed by the Center For Creative Leadership (CCL) is widely used, respected and effective in developing leaders. The assessment, challenge, and support model contributed to effective leader development (Chappelow, 1998; McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004). The study results prove that the model also contributed to the effective development of EI competencies.

In summary, the assessment, cognitivist learning intervention and individual coaching session enabled the development of EI competencies as reported in this exploratory study.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

Empirical evidence has closely identified the emotional intelligence competencies as part of the effectiveness of the transformational leadership style. The development of emotional intelligence competencies was reviewed in the context of a leadership development cognitivist learning intervention encompassing the model of assessment, challenge and support. The learning intervention was designed to improve EI competencies. The exploratory study researched the following questions:

1. In what ways, if any, does a half-day classroom based corporate learning intervention impact the development of emotional intelligence competencies?
2. How does a half-day learning intervention affect the participant?

The triangulated data from this study presents evidence that EI competencies can be developed using this conceptual framework that was described in Chapter One including a coaching session as a support and post training reinforcement. Individual coaching reinforced the learning intervention to establish competency development.

Research Implications

There are numerous implications from the research findings of this exploratory study for organizations, emotional intelligence research and the greater leadership development community. Practical application of the results lies in the design and implementation of the learning intervention and individual coaching session. One implication of this research to the field indicates a need to include a post learning intervention one hour coaching sessions in the design of an emotional intelligence learning intervention.

As early as 1997, the ASTD (1997) survey of benchmark practices among major corporations, found that 4 out of 5 companies are trying to promote emotional intelligence with their employees through training and development, when evaluating performance and in hiring (American Society for Training and Development, 1997). Only one third of these companies measured the impact of the learning intervention. The measurements that were used were level-one reaction surveys (Goleman, 1998). The following research findings are applicable to thousands of public and private commercial organizations that either use or are considering using a classroom-based learning intervention to improve emotional intelligence competencies. Post learning intervention coaching is critical to the development of competencies.

Learning Intervention Finding

The half-day classroom-based learning intervention had a minimal effect on the development of EI competencies. The majority of the participants gained awareness of the competencies and learned skills to develop the competencies based information in the workshop, the activities, the large group discussions and the EQ-I assessment results. The participants set individual action plans during the learning intervention but did not implement them. The workshop alone was not enough to significantly improve EI competencies. There was no corporate or performance accountability established for the participants at the end of the workshop. They were told that there would be a post intervention interview and an individual coaching session in six weeks. Since there was no work-related accountability, I believe that the participants were so busy performing their jobs that they waited for the coaching session to intentionally work on the action items.

The post BEI interviews identified 3 of 11 participants improved on one or more EI competencies after the learning intervention. This represents a minimal impact on the participant competency development within six weeks of the learning intervention. This means only 27% of the participants achieved improvements on less than one third of the competencies from the half-day learning intervention. This high financial cost of the EI learning intervention yields a low return on that investment.

Coaching Session Findings

The combination of the learning intervention and post intervention coaching session positively impacted the development of the EI competencies. The individual coaching session was a critical component in the design of the learning experience as it enabled greater understanding and development of the participant's emotional intelligence competencies. The coaching session naturally emerged after the post behavior event interview. As BEI experiences were discussed the participants asked for coaching around improving different competencies. This transition allowed me the opportunity to specifically coach them on their concerns. Specific action steps were established with timelines. Feedback and development plans are important tools for improving on competencies. Several empirical studies on developing manager behaviors found that feedback and goal setting were better than feedback alone (Nemeroff & Cosentino, 1972; Ivancevich & McMahon, 1982). A two year study following 360 degree feedback found that follow through on development plans was the most critical factor in improving manager skills (Hazucha, Hezlet & Schneider, 1993). The coaching session specifically focused on follow-through of the action plans that were set during the learning intervention, awareness from the BEI and assessment feedback gaps.

The triangulated data analysis identified that the learning intervention when complemented by the coaching session improved the following competencies of emotional intelligence: Assertiveness, Emotional Self Control (ESC) or Impulse Control, Problem Solving, Emotional Self-Awareness (ESA), Accurate Self-Assessment (ASA), Initiative, Self-Confidence, Achievement, Adaptability or Flexibility and Optimism. The pretest and posttest data showed that the Emotional Self-Control or Impulse Control competency significantly improved for all of the participants. The significant increase in development of this competency can be explained by the learning intervention design, the amount of environmental stress that exists in a hospital nurse manager leadership position and the coaching intervention dialogue and action planning. Improving impulse control was a common goal for most of the participants during the sessions.

Stress management and emotional self-control are critical competencies to be developed because occupational stress is rapidly becoming one of the most important organizational concerns in the Western world (Matthews, Zieder & Roberts, 2003). In 1990, the overall cost of stress is more than \$150 million per year for American Organizations (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). A Gallup Organization Well Being Study in 2009 identified the cost to be \$14 billion a year just in wages (Gallup-Healthways, 2010). Emotionally intelligent individuals who are flexible, adaptable and cope with stress have an advantage in the changing dynamic environment (Boyatzis, 1982; Goleman, 1998). There is a benefit for the individual and organization to develop personal resiliency to stress and improve impulse control.

Matthews et al. (2003) state that the EI literature is replete with suggestions for coping with occupational stress yet there are no published empirical studies about EI,

coping and adaptive outcomes. The coping strategies that were discussed with the participants included changing physical conditions (diet exercise), changing behaviors including work environment (Newman & Beehr, 1979). Latack (1986) provided empirical evidence for effective coping strategies. These strategies could be studied in conjunction with a future EI learning intervention.

Intentional Change Finding

Most participants did not intentionally work on their action plans that were developed in the learning intervention until after the coaching session. The Intentional Change Theory model began, for most of the participants, after the coaching sessions (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). The model of intentional change has five significant steps: the ideal self, the real self, your learning agenda, experimenting with and practicing new habits and developing and maintaining close personal relationships (p. 89). The coaching sessions guided the participants through the first three phases and also offered support as part of phase five.

The learning intervention lacked the first step in the intentional change model and lacked organizational management follow through and support that was necessary for development. The workshop did not explicitly ask the participants to identify the ideal self that is called for in the intentional change models. The learning intervention needs to be revised to explicitly include an individual activity around the idea self and awareness for long term change to happen. The support that is called for by Chappelow (1998), McCauley et al. (1989), Van Velsor and Boyatzis and McKee (2005) was lacking in this exploratory study until the coaching session. Individual motivation to achieve their EI

competency goals was provided during these one-on-one sessions. As stated above, identifying the ideal self and providing support is crucial for successful EI development.

Leadership Development Finding

The Assessment, Challenge and Support leadership development model was effective in developing EI competencies. As a review, the Assessment Challenge and Support model identified three integrated elements in the process of development that are important as a framework to approach the development of leaders. The model is widely used, respected and effective in developing leaders. The assessment, challenge, and support model contributed to effective leader development (Chappelow, 1998; McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004). This model was tested and compared to three proposed models for EI development.

Murphy (2006) presents the first of the models referring to three categories of cognitive, skill-based and affective for training and development interventions (pp. 227-229). The cognitive-based approach to training, which is similar to the EI workshop that is analyzed for this study, includes the understanding of the EI construct, relationships, principles and guidelines. Once the participants understand, they can set goals and practice to apply the learning in the workplace. The skills-based training program included behavior modeling with a series of practice and feedback activities. The second model for EI training by Ciarrochi and Mayer (2007) identified five principles to guide EI skills training: assessment, guided experience, transfer, ongoing support and follow-up evaluation (pp. 56-57). Assessments are recommended for EI training including individual time to debrief. On-going coaching and support is critical for development, this support can be a follow-up, e-mail, coaching session or reminder. The third model

for effective EI training involves a 22 step process (Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan & Adler, 1998). These best practice guidelines are divided into three phases. Phase One is prepare for the change, phase two is training and phase three is encourage, maintain and evaluate change.

The study results show that the leader development model of Assessment, Challenge and Support also contributed to the effective development of EI competencies. Cherniss et al. (1998) state that there must be support for the individuals to maintain motivation until the new way of thinking to become second nature. Once again, individual coaching sessions must be part of the development model.

Implications for Emotional Intelligence Research

This research adds to the body of research knowledge that emotional intelligence competencies can be developed (Goleman, 1996; Boyatzis, Stubbs, Taylor, 2002; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Higgs & Dulewicz, 1999, 2003; Stiener, 1997; Hopfl & Linstead, 1997; Cooper, 1997; Martinez, 1997; Neils, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak & Hansenne, 2009; Sjolund & Gustafsson, 2001; Bar-On Maree & Elias, 2007; Slaski & Cartwright, 2002, 2003; Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2009; Murray, Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2006). It empirically enhances the area of research of emotional intelligence and training as proposed by Clarke (2006) and Murray, Jordan and Ashkanasky (2006), which demonstrated that emotional intelligence can be increased through training. A coaching session reinforced training to enhance competency development.

Research Limitations

There are four potential limitations to the research findings as presented in Chapter Four. The first is the exploratory study research design. The exploratory study was designed to only evaluate the impact of the learning intervention and did not account for the possible impact of the coaching session. In order to re-evaluate the total impact of both the workshop and the coaching session, it is recommended that further research should include the following three phases of data collection:

Pre-learning intervention EQ-I and Pre-learning intervention qualitative BEI
Four Hour Learning Intervention
Six Week Post-learning intervention EQ-I and Post-learning intervention BEI
One Hour Coaching Session
Six Week Post-learning intervention and coaching EQ-I and Post-learning
intervention and coaching BEI

A comparison of the pre and post qualitative and quantitative data for the workshop and the pre and post workshop and coaching session would have offered more evidence to support the findings of the study related to the impact of coaching on competency development.

The second limitation is the research sample. The size of the sample was 11 participants. The study might not be applicable to the general population because of the sample population of all female nurse managers. Future research should include a larger sample size, various job categories and a mixed gender sample to replicate a traditional corporate learning intervention.

The third limitation is the potential self-report bias. Numerous researchers have documented that self-ratings are generally inflated, biased, and inaccurate when compared to ratings of others (e.g., supervisors, peers, direct reports) or to more objective criteria (Ashford, 1989; Bass, 1990; Bass & Yammarino, 1991; Yammarino & Atwater, 1993). Zeider, Matthews and Roberts (2009) report that empirical studies have failed to validate self-reports of social-emotional abilities” (p. 135). “When EI measures are based

on self-reports, it is important that the test author provide data on the fakability of test scores” (Bar-On, Maree & Elias, 2007. p. 261).

The researcher used the pre and post EQ-i self-assessment and triangulated the data to minimize the self-report bias for data collection in this exploratory study. The EQ-i post assessment was administered three months after the learning intervention to increase validity. The three-month retest time interval was designed so there is only a minimal risk of memory factor contamination (Downie & Heath, 1970). The EQ-i assessment includes four indices, which assess item omission, positive impression (faking good), negative impression (faking bad) and item consistency. A correction factor is used to adjust the scores based on the positive and negative impression. The EQ-i assessment is consistent, stable and reliable with an internal consistency coefficient of .97. The instrument also possesses good construct validity. It measures what it is supposed to measure (Bar-On, 2006). The researcher used the three-month retest of the EQ-i to minimize the threat to validity.

The fourth limitation for this research study was the design of the learning intervention. The EI workshop must be changed to explicitly have the participants identify the ideal or real self, which is the first step in the Intentional Change process (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). If this step had been added to the study, the results might have included greater EI development from the just the learning intervention.

Implications for Future Research

This exploratory study identified an effective development model, learning intervention, various assessment methods and coaching that can be used to improve emotional intelligence competencies. As a researcher and evidence based practitioner, I

believe future research should identify best practices for the coaching session after the learning intervention. The following research questions could potentially improve this study to have even greater significant impact on EI competency development.

1. What are the best practices of coaching for development of emotional intelligence competencies following a learning intervention?
2. How often and over what time frame should coaching be used to reinforce the learning intervention?
3. What methods are appropriate for post-training reinforcement to develop emotional intelligence competencies? Is one-on one coaching the only method? Could electronic, web-based or mobile technology be used to establish and reinforce the development of emotional intelligence competencies?
4. What is the role of EI development and coping with stress and impulse control?

Reflections

From a researcher perspective, the predominant finding from this study was that the EI learning intervention raised participant awareness of the EI competencies and the individual coaching sessions guided the participants through the intentional change process allowing EI competency development. Several insights were gained from the strong study methodology. The first insight was about the mixed method analysis and triangulating the quantitative and qualitative data sets with my observations or field notes. I now understand the value in the convergence of results. Specifically, the triangulation method information was important for this study. I combined the different data sources in several types of triangulation analyses. I used data, investigator and theory triangulation methods when analyzing the data sets. The use of various emotional intelligence assessments and

indicators added validity to the study. Another insight was about the various methods of coding and analyzing the qualitative interviews and coaching sessions. This exploratory study was the first research study to combine several emotional intelligence theories and models in data analysis. The third insight was about the quantitative analysis. It was interesting to learn that the data can have several interpretations as I analyzed it from different perspectives.

As a practitioner, I will revise the learning intervention to explicitly include an activity for identification of the ideal or future self to provide the opportunities for change to occur before the coaching session is held. This exploratory study adds to the body of research, which identified EI competencies can be developed; however, it raises the question of the effectiveness of various learning interventions that do not include post-training coaching sessions. Learning professionals should use caution when implementing a short learning intervention without post-training coaching. Beware of “the hucksters who claim that they can turn emotional dunces into emotional Einsteins in an afternoon?” (Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan & Adler, 1998, p. 4).

A. EQ-I Subscale Composition Items

Emotional Self-Awareness Items

It's fairly easy for me to express my feelings
I'm in touch with my emotions
It's hard for me to share my deep feelings with others
It's hard for me to understand the way I feel
It's hard to express my intimate feelings
I'm aware of the way I feel
Even when I am upset, I'm aware of what's happening to me
It's hard for me to describe my feelings

Assertiveness Items

I'm unable to express my ideas to others
When I'm angry with others, I can tell them about it
When I disagree with someone, I'm able to say so
It's hard for me to say "no" when I want to
It's fairly easy for me to tell people what I think
Others think that I lack assertiveness
It's difficult for me to stand up for my rights

Self-Regard Items

I feel sure of myself in most situations
I lack self-confidence
I have good self-respect
I don't feel good about myself
It's hard for me to accept myself just the way I am
I'm happy with the type of person I am
I feel comfortable with my body
I'm happy with the way I look
Looking at both my good points and bad points, I feel good about myself

Self-Actualization Items

I try to make my life as meaningful as I can
I really don't know what I am good at
In the past few years, I've accomplished little
I don't get enjoyment in what I do
I don't get excited about my interests
I try to continue and develop those things that I enjoy
I enjoy those things that interest me
I try to get as much as I can out of those that I enjoy
I don't have a good idea of what I want to do in life

Independence Items

I prefer a job in which I'm told pretty much what to do
When working with other, I tend to rely more on their ideas than my own
I prefer others to make decisions for me
It's hard for me to make decisions on my own
I'm more of a follower than a leader
I tend to cling to others
I seem to need other people more than they need me

Empathy Items

I'm unable to understand the way other people feel
I'm good at understanding the way other people feel
My friends can tell me intimate things about themselves
I would stop and help a crying child find his or her parents, even if I had to be somewhere else at the same time
I care what happens to other people
I'm sensitive to the feelings of others
It's hard for me to see people suffer
I avoid hurting other people's feelings

Interpersonal Relationship Items

I'm unable to show affection
It's hard for me to share my deep feelings with others
I'm a fairly cheerful person
It's easy for me to make friends
My friends can tell me intimate things about themselves
I'm fun to be with
I don't get along well with others
My close relationships mean a lot to me and to my friends
I have good relations with others
People think that I'm sociable
I don't keep in touch with friends

Social Responsibility Items

I like helping people
It doesn't bother me to take advantage of people, especially if they deserve it
Others find it hard to depend on me
I would stop and help a crying child find his or her parents, even if I had to be somewhere else at the same time
I care what happens to other people
If I could get away with breaking the law in certain situations, I would

I'm able to respect others
I'm sensitive to the feelings of others
I think it's important to be a law-abiding citizen
It's hard for me to see people suffer

Problem Solving Items

My approach in overcoming difficulties is to move step by step
When faced with a difficult situation, I like to collect all the information about it that I can
I like to get an overview of a problem before trying to solve it
When facing a problem, the first thing I do is stop and think
When trying to solve a problem, I look at each possibility and then decide on the best way
It's hard for me to decide on the best solution when solving problems
In handling situations that arise, I try to think of as many approaches as I can
I generally get stuck when thinking about different ways of solving problems

Reality Testing Items

I try to see things as they really are, without fantasizing or daydreaming about them
It's hard for me to understand the way I feel
I have had strange experiences that can't be explained
People don't understand the way I think
I tend to face out and lose contact with what happens around me
I get carried away with imagination and fantasies
Even when upset, I'm aware of what's happening to me
I tend to exaggerate
I can easily pull out of daydreams and tune into the reality of the immediate situation
It's hard for me to keep things in the right perspective

Flexibility Items

It's difficult for me to begin new things
It's hard for me to make adjustments in general
It's difficult for me to change my opinion about things
It's easy for me to adjust to new conditions
I'm able to change old habits
It's generally hard for me to make changes in my daily life
It's hard for me to change my ways
It would be hard for me to adjust if I were forced to leave my home

Stress Tolerance Items

I know how to deal with upsetting problems
I believe that I can stay on top of tough situations
I can handle stress without getting too nervous
I don't hold up well under stress

I feel that it's hard for me to control my anxiety
I know how to keep calm in difficult situations
It's hard for me to face unpleasant things
I believe in my ability to handle most upsetting situations
I get anxious

Impulse Control

It is a problem controlling my anger
When I start talking, it is hard to stop
My impulsiveness creates problems
People tell me to lower my voice in discussions
I'm impatient
I have strong impulses that are hard to control
I'm impulsive
I've got a bad temper
I tend to explode with anger easily

Happiness Items

It's hard for me to enjoy life
It's hard for me to smile
I'm a fairly cheerful person
I am satisfied with my life
I'm fun to be with
I get depressed
I'm not that happy with my life
I enjoy weekends and holidays
I like to have fun

Optimism Items

I feel sure of myself in most situations
I believe that I can stay on top of tough situations
I'm optimistic about most things I do
I generally hope for the best
I'm generally motivated to continue, even when things get difficult
I generally expect things will turn out all right, despite setbacks from time to time
I believe in my ability to handle most upsetting problems
Before beginning something new, I usually feel that I'll fail

Positive Impression Items

I like everyone I meet
I have good thoughts about everyone
I don't do anything bad in my life

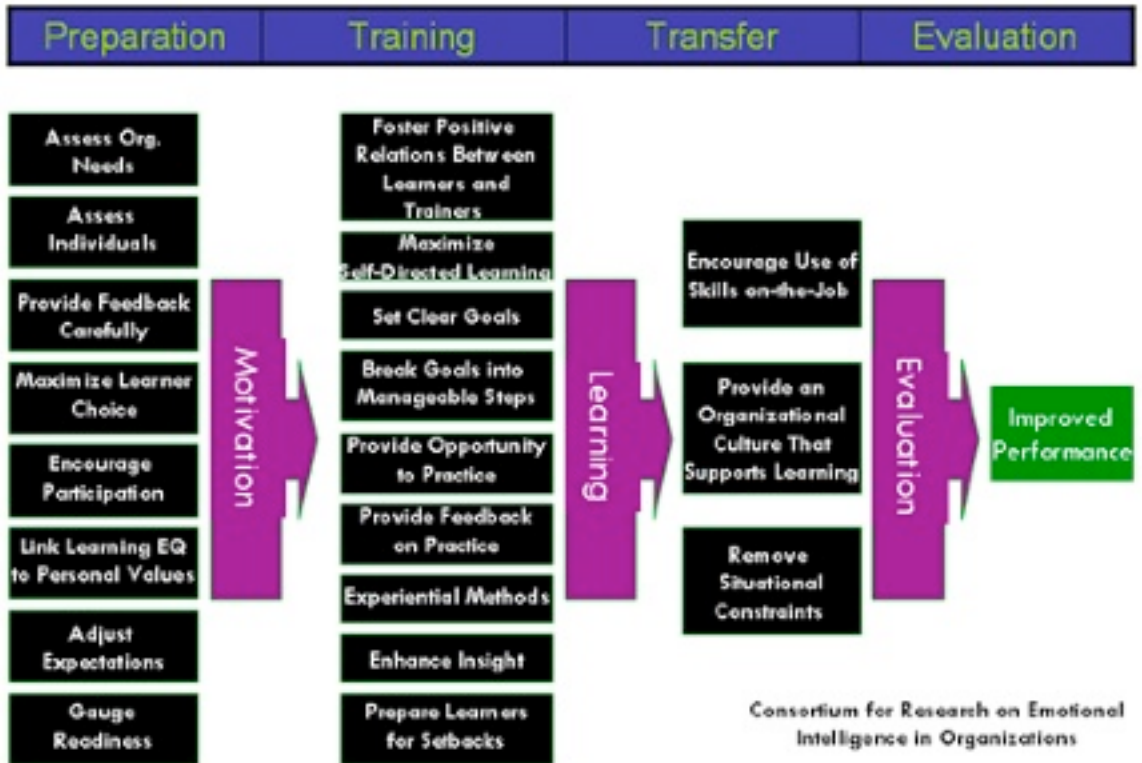
Nothing disturbs me
I have not told a lie in my life
I have not broken a law of any kind
I have not been embarrassed for anything that I've done
I don't have bad days

Negative Impression Items

I have a feeling that something is wrong with my mind
I think I've lost my mind
I do very weird things
I see these strange things that others don't see
I feel cut off from my body
I am a very strange person
I have strange thoughts that no one can understand

Self-Regard	<i>To accurately perceive, understand, and accept oneself</i>
Emotional Self-Awareness	<i>To be aware of and understand one's emotions</i>
Assertiveness	<i>To effectively and constructively express one's emotions and oneself</i>
Independence	<i>To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others</i>
Self-Actualization	<i>To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one's potential</i>
Empathy	<i>To be aware of and understand how others feel</i>
Social Responsibility	<i>To identify with one's social group and cooperate with others</i>
Interpersonal Relationship	<i>To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others</i>
Reality Testing	<i>To objectively validate one's feelings and thinking with external reality</i>
Flexibility	<i>To adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations</i>
Problem Solving	<i>To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature</i>
Stress Tolerance	<i>To effectively and constructively manage emotions</i>
Impulse Control	<i>To effectively and constructively control emotions</i>
Happiness	<i>To feel content with oneself, others, and life in general</i>
Optimism	<i>To be positive and look at the brighter side of life</i>

Note. From Bar-On (2006)



Note. From Cherniss, Goleman Emmerling, Cowan & Adler (1998) p. 7.

D. Resource Guide Sample

EQ-i Category	Author	Book Title
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General Overview of Stress Management: Emotional Stress Tolerance Intelligence	Danielle Goleman, Richard M. Boyatzis	Stress Management Made Simple: 100 Ways to Beat Stress for Better Health
	Danielle Goleman	The Stress Management Handbook
	Rubenstein Daniel Goleman Jon Grant, S.W.	Working with Emotional Intelligence
Stress Management: IntRApersonal: Self-Regard	Matthew McKay & Patricia Manning	Stop Men Because I Can't Stop Myself: Taking Control of Impulsive Behavior
	Matthew McKay	The Power of Self-Esteem
	Rita Riess Branden,	The Anger Control Workbook
Adaptability: Reality Testing	Warren Bennis	Self-Esteem at Work
IntRApersonal: Emotional Self-Adaptability:	B. L. Driver	Reality Testing: An Article from the Journal of Leisure Research
IntRApersonal: Flexibility:	Mark R. Leary	Research of the Self
Adaptability:	Tara Bennett-	Emotional Alchemy: How the Mind Can Heal the Heart
IntRApersonal: Assertiveness:	Goleman Kate Havelin	Assertiveness Rapid Problem Solving with
Problem Solving	David Straker Randy Paterson	Assertiveness Workbook
IntRApersonal: Independence	James Gray Higgins	Confronting Problems: A Guide to Self-Directed Learning
IntRApersonal: Self-Actualization	Morgan D. Jones	Reaching Out: Tools for Personal
General Mood: Optimism	Dani Baker Johnson Cameron Stauth	Effectiveness and Self-Actualization
	Martin Seligman. Stephen H. Martin	Positive Psychology: From Depression to Amazing
General Mood:	Daniel Nettle	Abundance: The Science of Happiness
IntRApersonal: Empathy:	Andrew Lecompte	Creating Harmonious Relationships
	M. Lucretia Ciaramicoli,	Relationships Makeover: How to Teach Yourself to be Happy and Enjoy Every Day
	Katherine Katcham	
	Rose Rosetree	Empowered by Empathy
IntERpersonal: Social Responsibility	Alice Rossi	Caring and Doing for Others
	Philip Kotler, Nancy Lee	Corporate Social Responsibility
IntERpersonal: Interpersonal Relationship	Dave Marks	Communication and Interpersonal Relationships: How to Say What You Mean to Say
	A.J. Nurick	Interpersonal Relationships in Management
	Robert William Lucas	Effective Interpersonal Relationships
	Steve Herbelin & Pat Guiney	Work Team Coaching: An Interpersonal Approach to High Performance

E. Emotional Intelligence Behavioral Indicators Reference Coding Sheet

**Emotional Intelligence
Competencies**

BEHAVIORAL INDICATORS

<p>Emotional Self-Awareness is the ability to recognize one’s emotions and their effects. It is the ability to effectively read how we react to cues in the environment and be aware of how one’s emotions affect performance.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Is aware of own feelings ▪ Recognizes situations that arouse strong emotion in him/her ▪ Knows how his/her feelings affect his/her actions ▪ Reflects on underlying reasons for feelings
<p>Accurate Self-Assessment is being aware of one’s strengths and limitations. It is based on the desire to receive feedback and new perspectives about oneself and to be motivated by continuous learning and self-development. It implies having the ability to target areas for change.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Acknowledges own strengths and weaknesses ▪ Is open to feedback ▪ Has a sense of humor about oneself ▪ Looks for feedback, even if hard to hear
<p>Self-Confidence is a belief in one’s own capability to accomplish a task and select an effective approach to a task or problem. This includes confidence in one’s ability as expressed in increasingly challenging circumstances and confidence in one’s decisions or opinions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Believes oneself to be capable for a job ▪ Is self-assured regarding own abilities ▪ Presents self in an assured manner ▪ Has “presence”
<p>Emotional Self-Control is the ability to keep one’s impulsive feelings and emotions under control and restrain negative actions when provoked, when faced with opposition or hostility from others, or when working under pressure. It also includes the ability to maintain stamina under continuing stress.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Is sensible in his/her actions ▪ Is often patient and composed ▪ Behaves calmly in stressful situations ▪ Stays poised and positive, even in trying moments
<p>Trustworthiness is having one’s actions consistent with what one says. It includes communicating intentions, ideas, and feelings openly and directly, and welcoming openness and honesty, even in difficult situations with multiple parties involved. Trustworthiness is congruence between what one is thinking and feeling and what one is saying and doing.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Keeps his/her promises ▪ Brings up ethical concerns ▪ Acknowledges mistakes ▪ Acts on own values even when there is a personal cost

<p>Organizational Awareness is the ability to understand and learn the power relationships in one's own organization or in other organizations (customers, suppliers, etc.). This includes the ability to identify who the real decision makers are and the individuals who can influence them, and to predict how new events or situations will affect individuals and groups within the organization.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Understands informal structure in the organization ▪ Understands the organization's unspoken rules ▪ Is politically savvy at work ▪ Understands historical reasons for organizational issues
<p>Service Orientation is a desire to help or serve others, in order to meet their needs. It means focusing one's efforts on discovering and meeting the customer's or client's needs.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Makes self available to customers or clients ▪ Monitors customer or client satisfaction ▪ Takes personal responsibility for meeting customer needs ▪ Matches customer or client needs to services or products
<p>Developing Others is the ability to foster the long-term learning or development of others. Its focus is on the developmental intent and effect rather than on a formal role of training.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Recognizes specific strengths of others ▪ Gives directions or demonstrations to develop someone ▪ Gives constructive feedback ▪ Provides ongoing mentoring or coaching
<p>Inspirational Leadership is the ability to take a role as leader of a team or other group. It implies a desire to lead others through positive expectation and in emotionally engaging ways.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Leads by example ▪ Makes work exciting ▪ Inspires people ▪ Articulates a compelling vision
<p>Change Catalyst is the ability to alert, energize, and lead groups to bring about specific changes in the way things are done.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ States need for change ▪ Is positive about change and the future ▪ Personally leads change initiatives ▪ Advocates change despite opposition
<p>Influence is the ability to persuade, convince, or impact others in order to get them to go along with or support the speaker's agenda. It is based on the desire to have a specific impact or effect on others, where the person has his or her <i>own agenda</i> (a specific type of impression to make or a course of action that he or she wants others to adopt).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Engages an audience when presenting ▪ Persuades by appealing to peoples' self interest ▪ Gets support from key people ▪ Develops behind-the-scenes support

<p>Adaptability is the ability to be flexible and work effectively within a variety of changing situations, and with various individuals or groups. Adaptability entails understanding and appreciating different and opposing perspectives on an issue, adapting one's approach as the requirements of a situation change, and changing or easily accepting changes in one's own organization or job requirements.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Adapts ideas based on new information ▪ Applies standard procedures flexibly ▪ Handles unexpected demands well ▪ Changes overall strategy, goals, or projects to fit the situation
<p>Achievement is a concern for working well or for surpassing a standard of excellence. The standard may be one's own past performance (striving for improvement); an objective measure (results orientation); outperforming others (competitiveness); challenging goals one has set; or even surpassing what anyone has ever done (innovation).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Seeks ways to improve performance ▪ Sets measurable and challenging goals ▪ Anticipates obstacles to a goal ▪ Takes calculated risks to reach a goal
<p>Initiative is the ability to identify a problem, obstacle, or opportunity and take action in light of that to address current or future problems or opportunities. Initiative should be seen in the context of proactively doing things.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Is decisive when opportunities arise ▪ Seeks information in unusual ways ▪ Cuts through red tape or bends the rules when necessary ▪ Initiates action to create possibilities
<p>Optimism is a tendency to hold positive expectations, have a strong belief in a better future, to be resilient in the face of setbacks, and to learn from difficulties.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Has mainly positive expectations ▪ Believes that the future will be better than the past ▪ Stays positive despite setbacks ▪ Learns from setbacks
<p>Empathy is having the ability to understand other people. It is the ability to accurately hear and understand the unspoken or partly expressed thoughts, feelings, and concerns of others. It implies taking an active interest in other people's concerns. It measures increasing complexity and depth of understanding of others and may include cross-cultural sensitivity.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Listens attentively ▪ Is attentive to peoples' moods or nonverbal cues ▪ Relates well to people of diverse backgrounds ▪ Can see things from someone else's perspective

F. Invitation Letter

August 2009

This interview is part of a research project being conducted for the Executive Program for Workplace Learning, a joint program of the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton School of Business and Graduate School of Education. The purpose of the interview is to understand your emotional intelligence competencies before and after the learning intervention. The information from this interview is for research purposes only and is not an evaluation of you, your work group, or company.

No individuals or companies will ever be identified in any reports produced from the aggregated data of this study. The answers you provide will be combined with those of others and never identified as yours. Your responses are completely confidential and voluntary. If you choose, you may decline to participate in this interview. However, we hope you will participate. The interviews will be conducted in person and digitally recorded for the purposes of coding and analysis as part of the dissertation process. The transcript of this recording will be destroyed at the end of the research process to protect your confidentiality...

Your participation in this interview means that you are consenting to participate in this study. If you have any questions, feel free to contact either Laurie Carrick or Sharon Ravitch directly.

Thank you in advance for your time.

Sincerely,

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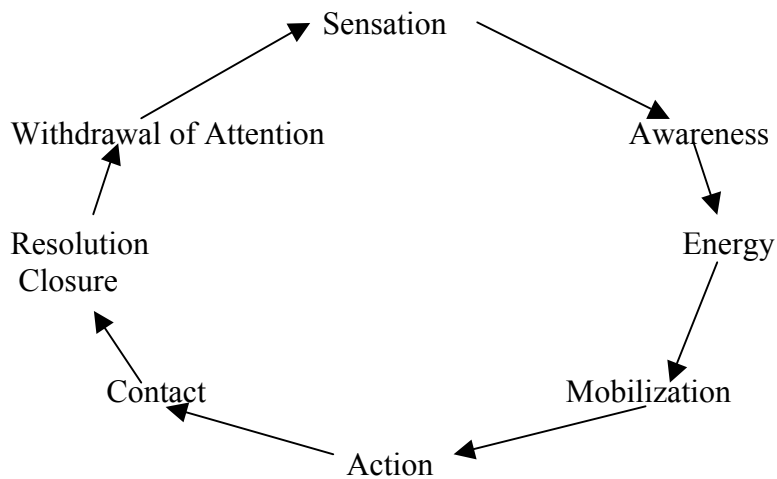
G. ECI/EQ-i Comparison Chart

ECI Competency	EQ-I Competency
<p>Emotional Self-Awareness is the ability to recognize one’s emotions and their effects. It is the ability to effectively read how we react to cues in the environment and be aware of how one’s emotions affect performance.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Is aware of own feelings ▪ Recognizes situations that arouse strong emotion in him/her ▪ Knows how his/her feelings affect his/her actions <p>Reflects on underlying reasons for feelings</p>	<p>Emotional Self Awareness Items</p> <p>It’s fairly easy for me to express my feelings I’m in touch with my emotions It’s hard for me to share my deep feelings with others It’s hard for me to understand the way I feel It’s hard to express my intimate feelings I’m aware of the way I feel Even when I am upset, I’m aware of what’s happening to me It’s hard for me to describe my feelings</p>
<p>Accurate Self-Assessment is being aware of one’s strengths and limitations. It is based on the desire to receive feedback and new perspectives about oneself and to be motivated by continuous learning and self-development. It implies having the ability to target areas for change.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Acknowledges own strengths and weaknesses ▪ Is open to feedback ▪ Has a sense of humor about oneself <p>Looks for feedback, even if hard to hear</p>	<p>Self-Regard Items</p> <p>I feel sure of myself in most situations I lack self-confidence I have good self-respect I don’t feel good about myself It’s hard for me to accept myself just the way I am I’m happy with the type of person I am I feel comfortable with my body I’m happy with the way I look Looking at both my good points and bad points, I feel good about myself</p>
<p>Emotional Self-Control is the ability to keep one’s impulsive feelings and emotions under control and restrain negative actions when provoked, when faced with opposition or hostility from others, or when working under pressure. It also includes the ability to maintain stamina under continuing stress.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Is sensible in his/her actions ▪ Is often patient and composed ▪ Behaves calmly in stressful situations <p>Stays poised and positive, even in trying moments</p>	<p>Impulse Control</p> <p>It is a problem controlling my anger When I start talking, it is hard to stop My impulsiveness creates problems People tell me to lower my voice in discussions I’m impatient I have strong impulses that are hard to control I’m impulsive I’ve got a bad temper I tend to explode with anger easily</p>

	<p>Stress Tolerance Items</p> <p>I know how to deal with upsetting problems I believe that I can stay on top of tough situations I can handle stress without getting too nervous I don't hold up well under stress I feel that it's hard for me to control my anxiety I know how to keep calm in difficult situations It's hard for me to face unpleasant things I believe in my ability to handle most upsetting situations I get anxious</p>
<p>Self-Confidence is a belief in one's own capability to accomplish a task and select an effective approach to a task or problem. This includes confidence in one's ability as expressed in increasingly challenging circumstances and confidence in one's decisions or opinions.</p>	<p>Self-Regard Items</p> <p>I feel sure of myself in most situations I lack self-confidence I have good self-respect I don't feel good about myself It's hard for me to accept myself just the way I am I'm happy with the type of person I am I feel comfortable with my body I'm happy with the way I look Looking at both my good points and bad points, I feel good about myself</p>
<p>Empathy is having the ability to understand other people. It is the ability to accurately hear and understand the unspoken or partly expressed thoughts, feelings, and concerns of others. It implies taking an active interest in other people's concerns. It measures increasing complexity and depth of understanding of others and may include cross-cultural sensitivity.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Listens attentively ▪ Is attentive to peoples' moods or nonverbal cues ▪ Relates well to people of diverse backgrounds 	<p>Empathy Items</p> <p>I'm unable to understand the way other people feel I'm good at understanding the way other people feel My friends can tell me intimate things about themselves I would stop and help a crying child find his or her parents, even if I had to be somewhere else at the same time I care what happens to other people I'm sensitive to the feelings of others It's hard for me to see people suffer I avoid hurting other people's feelings</p>

<p>Can see things from someone else's perspective</p>	
<p>Adaptability is the ability to be flexible and work effectively within a variety of changing situations, and with various individuals or groups. Adaptability entails understanding and appreciating different and opposing perspectives on an issue, adapting one's approach as the requirements of a situation change, and changing or easily accepting changes in one's own organization or job requirements.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Adapts ideas based on new information ▪ Applies standard procedures flexibly ▪ Handles unexpected demands well <p>Changes overall strategy, goals, or projects to fit the situation</p>	<p>Flexibility Items</p> <p>It's difficult for me to begin new things It's hard for me to make adjustments in general It's difficult for me to change my opinion about things It's easy for me to adjust to new conditions I'm able to change old habits It's generally hard for me to make changes in my daily life It's hard for me to change my ways It would be hard for me to adjust if I were forced to leave my home</p>
<p>Optimism is a tendency to hold positive expectations, have a strong belief in a better future, to be resilient in the face of setbacks, and to learn from difficulties.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Has mainly positive expectations ▪ Believes that the future will be better than the past ▪ Stays positive despite setbacks <p>Learns from setbacks</p>	<p>Optimism Items</p> <p>I feel sure of myself in most situations I believe that I can stay on top of tough situations I'm optimistic about most things I do I generally hope for the best I'm generally motivated to continue, even when things get difficult I generally expect things will turn out all right, despite setbacks from time to time I believe in my ability to handle most upsetting problems Before beginning something new, I usually feel that I'll fail</p>

H. Gestalt Cycle of Experience (COE)



Sensation - Human experience begins with sensory arousal that is brought about by one or more of the five senses (touch, smell, sight, hearing, and taste).

Awareness - Awareness occurs when figures emerge from sensations. Awareness is continuous and ongoing.

Energy Mobilization - Energy is the potential or capability to do work. Awareness brings about an awakening of internal energy, which produces the additional strength necessary to bring important background elements into focus.

Action - Action adds a behavioral component to the awareness of an emerged figure. The first three stages of the Gestalt cycle of experience refer to increased sensory awareness of self and/or environment. Thus, action is the joining of awareness, energy, and overt motor behavior in a manner that produces some appropriate action.

Contact - Contact is the synthesis of sensory awareness and overt behavior, and pertains to what Nevis (1987) concludes is an “aggressive response to a figure of interest.”

Resolution - Resolution is the acknowledgment of completeness. Through resolution, the meaning of contact is assimilated, and learning occurs. Gestalt uses the term closure to signify this completion.

Withdrawal of Attention - As closure takes place, attention to the figure declines, and the figure recedes into the background. Work is completed; what has been learned remains available in the background for later use; and sensory processes once again bring new awareness into consciousness.

Note. Adapted from E.G. Nevis, *Organizational Consulting: A Gestalt Approach*. New York: Gardner Press, 1987.

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