

CHAPTER 4 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

The previous chapter provided a theoretical framework for the conceptualisation of self-esteem from a Humanistic and Social Psychology perspective. For the purposes of this research, self-esteem has been defined as a socially constructed emotion in order to give the construct a more precise theoretical formulation, one that permits consideration of cultural variations in self-esteem and at the same time allows the researcher to examine the construct's relationship to individuals' emotional responses to social role requirements and situational demands in multi-cultural organisational contexts.

This chapter aims to further address the first research question pertaining to the theoretical conceptualisation of the construct emotional competence. In this chapter, then, the construct emotional competence will be explored by means of a comparative examination of the basic literature and research on emotion, emotional intelligence and emotional competence. An integrated model of emotional competence from the perspective of the cognitive social learning theories will be proposed to enable the researcher to explain the theoretical relationship between the constructs personality preferences, self-esteem and emotional competence. Finally, the theoretical research implications for leader development and the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology will be discussed.

4.1 PARADIGMATIC AND CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS

It is useful to begin with a broad introduction to the paradigmatic foundations of the concept emotion and its related constructs in order to obtain a broader understanding of the construct emotional competence.

4.1.1 Paradigmatic foundations

Although emotions influence every aspect of human life, their impact on work behaviour has only recently received any significant attention. Consequently, the conceptual basis for understanding emotion and the related constructs emotional regulation, emotional intelligence and emotional competence must be borrowed from a number of other areas of psychology, and more specifically evolutionary

psychology, psycho-physiological research, and social cognitive psychology (Weiss, 2002).

Evolutionary psychology generally views human behaviour and cognition as modular in structure. The brain, according to this viewpoint, is not the general-purpose computer often described in the cognitive literature, but rather a set of domain-specific programmes designed to deal with different problems brought about by human evolution and consequent adaptation (Weiss, 2002). From this perspective, emotions are such programmes, each having evolved to deal with a specific problem and each emotional adaptation enlisting and integrating various physiological and cognitive subsystems in the service of different adaptational programmes (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000). The basic idea, then, of all psycho-evolutionary theories of emotion is that emotions are specific neuropsychological phenomena, shaped by natural selection, that organise and motivate physiological, cognitive and action patterns that facilitate adaptive responses to the vast array of demands and opportunities in the environment (Izard, 1992: 561). Psycho-physiological research on emotion emphasises the identification of the emotion centers of the brain, such as the limbic system, the role of the amygdala in emotional experience (Lane & Nadel, 2000), and hemispheric lateralisation in emotion expression and recognition (Heller, Nitschke, & Miller, 1998; Panksepp, 1998). According to Weiss (2002), knowledge of the physiological subsystems provides insight into the appropriate direction in which to search for psychological processes, that is, the physiological data tells us that researchers should be looking at differences in the way people react to events as the underlying process that accounts for individual differences in affect or emotion. The physiological data also point to the approach-avoidance elements of emotional experience, as the affect reactivity systems appear to be designed in the service of behavioural response (Harmon-Jones & Allen, 1998).

This research focuses on the study of emotional competence, as an aspect of self, from a social cognitive psychological perspective. The cognitive social learning revolution, also known as the fourth force in psychology, has emphasised the self in interaction with the environment, and has prompted renewed interest in the self as an active agent and constructor of meaning (Borgen, 1991). The fourth force in psychology has been marked by different waves or trends. The first wave introduced information processing models, the “first scientific alternatives to the mediational models based on classical learning theories” (Mahoney & Patterson,

1992:670). These models, drawn mainly from the mechanistic computer metaphors of cognitive processes, allowed for the empirical study of mental operations (Gardner, 1985).

In the second wave, early cognitive information processing models were modified to reflect biological (versus mechanistic) models of the nervous system. The first two waves of the cognitive revolution devoted a large amount of study to information processing, attributions, expectancies, human inference processes, and cognitive styles and beliefs (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Heppner & Frazier, 1992). Contemporary constructivist and motoric views of cognition represent the third wave of the fourth force. Mahoney and Lyddon (Mahoney, 1991:218) have observed that within the constructivist tradition, affect (or emotion) is accorded a central role as “a primitive and powerful form of knowing”, and is not considered a mere subordinate of cognition. Nurius (1986:430) observed that the emerging view is of a self-concept that is dynamic and future oriented and includes self-knowledge about goals and motives, personal standards and values, and rules and strategies for regulating and controlling one’s own behaviour.

4.1.1.1 Social cognitive theories

The cognitive social theorists emphasise the influence of the interactive nature of cognition, social learning and environment on behaviour. According to Kanfer (1990), the cognitive social perspective concentrates on the cognitive processes underlying self-motivation in acquiring skills and components and outcomes involved in self-regulation. Kanfer (1990) distinguishes between three major components of self-regulation in social cognitive theories, namely self-observation (self-monitoring), self-evaluation (self-judgments), and self-reaction. Bandura (1977) adds a fourth component, namely self-efficacy expectations, whilst Worline, Wrzesniewski, and Rafaeli (2002) and Mischel (1990, 1993, 1999) add a fifth component, namely cognitive-affective processing.

Self-observation (self-monitoring) refers to the selective attention of individuals to particular aspects of their behaviour. Selective attention will be directed to activities of significance for the envisaged behavioural outcomes. Self-evaluation (self-judgments and self-appraisal) takes place during competency and behaviour feedback. Individuals compare their competency feedback with their desired goal. In this

comparison two kinds of affective reaction take place, namely self-reactions of satisfaction or dissatisfaction and expectations of self-efficacy (Kanfer, 1990). Internal, typically affective responses take place during self-reactions. Dissatisfaction is likely to follow self-evaluation of performance that is below one's goal and satisfaction if goals are met or exceeded (Kanfer, 1990). The discrepancy between the goals and evaluated performance indicates the intensity and direction of the reaction. Major negative reactions could lead to the abandonment of one's goals, a decrease in interest and uncertainty about one's competence.

Bandura (1977) describes the self-efficacy expectation component of the self-regulation model as the individual's self-perceived abilities to acquire specific tasks or goals. Self-efficacy is differentiated from general affective responses to tasks, for instance, with an improved level of task performance, an individual's self-efficacy, that is, his or her belief in potential success, may improve. The individual may, however, still maintain dissatisfaction with the task.

The cognitive social learning theories of Rotter (1982), Worline et al. (2002) and Mischel (1990, 1993, 1999) are concerned with the prediction of human behaviour and the variables that must be analysed in order to make accurate predictions in any specific situation. Human behaviour is seen as the result of the dynamic interaction of a person with his or her meaningful environment. The theories of Mischel (1990, 1993, 1999) and Worline et al. (2002) are of particular importance to this research as they address both the cognitive and affective aspects of human behaviour. Mischel (1993), Mischel and Shoda (1995) and Worline et al. (2002) see affective responses as inseparable from cognitive processes. Individuals' competencies and self-regulation strategies, their beliefs and expectancies, and their goals and values are all coloured by their affective responses. Mischel and Shoda (1995) emphasise the interrelated cognitive-affective units (those psychological, social, and physiological aspects of people that cause them to interact with their environment with a relatively stable pattern of variation) that contribute to behaviour as they interact with stable personality traits and a receptive environment. The most important of these variables include encoding strategies, or how individuals construe or categorise an event; competencies and self-regulating strategies, that is, what individuals can do and their strategies and plans to accomplish a desired behaviour; behaviour outcome and stimulus outcome expectancies and beliefs regarding a particular situation; subjective goals, values, and preferences that partially determine selective attention to events;

and affective responses, including feelings and emotions as well as the effects that accompany physiological reactions. Worline et al. (2002) emphasise a dynamic self-regulation system that operates at a social level, with cognition, emotion, and action intertwined to mutually constitute work performance.

4.1.1.2 The cognitive-affective personality system

The cognitive-affective processing system of Mischel and Shoda (1995, 1998) accounts for variability across situations as well as stability of behaviour within a person, and is of particular importance to this research on emotional competence. The cognitive-affective personality system predicts that a person's behaviour will change from situation to situation but in a meaningful manner. It assumes that personality may have temporal stability and that behaviours may vary from situation to situation. It also assumes that prediction of behaviour rests on knowledge of how and when various cognitive-affective units are activated.

The cognitive-affective personality system theory describes encoding strategies, competency and self-regulatory strategies, expectancies and beliefs, goals, values, and interests, and affective responses. These will be discussed in turn.

(a) Encoding strategies

One important cognitive-affective unit that ultimately affects behaviour is people's personal constructs and encoding strategies, that is, people's ways of categorising information received from external stimuli. People use cognitive processes to transform these stimuli into personal constructs, including their self-concept, their view of other people, and their way of looking at the world. Different people encode the same events in different ways, which accounts for individual differences in personal constructs. Stimulus inputs are substantially altered by what people selectively attend to, how they interpret their experience, and the way in which they categorise those inputs (Mischel & Moore, 1973).

(b) Competencies and self-regulatory strategies

How people behave depends in part on the potential behaviours available to them, their beliefs about what they can do, their plans and strategies for enacting

behaviours, and their expectancies for success (Mischel, Cantor, & Feldman, 1996). People's beliefs in what they can do relate to their competencies, which are the vast array of information that people acquire about the world and their relationship to it. By observing their own behaviours and those of others, people learn what they can do in a particular situation as well as what they cannot do. People acquire a set of beliefs about their performance capabilities, often in the absence of actual performance (Mischel, 1990; Shoda & Mischel, 1996).

People use self-regulatory strategies to control their own behaviour through self-imposed goals and self-produced consequences. People do not require external rewards and punishments to shape their behaviour; they can set goals for themselves and then reward or criticise themselves contingent on whether their behaviour moves them in the direction of those goals. People's self-regulatory system enables them to plan, initiate, and maintain behaviours even when environmental support is weak or nonexistent. However, inappropriate goals and ineffective strategies increase anxiety and lead to failure (Mischel, 1990).

(c) *Expectancies and beliefs*

Any situation presents an enormous number of behaviour potentials, but how people behave depends on their specific expectancies and beliefs about the consequences of each of the different behavioural possibilities. Knowledge of people's hypotheses or beliefs concerning the outcome of any situation are a better predictor of behaviour than is knowledge of their ability to perform. When people have no information about what they can expect from a behaviour, they will enact those behaviours that received the greatest reinforcement in past similar situations (Mischel, 1990). Stimulus-outcome expectancies help predict what events are likely to occur following certain stimuli. One reason for the inconsistency of behaviour is a person's inability to predict other people's behaviour. Expectancies are not constant; they change because people can discriminate and evaluate the multitude of potential reinforcers in any given situation (Mischel, 1990).

(d) *Goals, values and interests*

People do not react passively to situations but are active and goal directed. They formulate goals, devise plans for attaining their goals, and in part create their own

situations. Values, goals, and interests, along with competencies, are among the most stable cognitive-affective units. One reason for this consistency is the emotion-eliciting properties of these units. For example, patriotic values may last a lifetime because they are associated with positive emotions such as security, attachment to one's home, and love of one's mother (Mischel & Shoda, 1995, 1998, 1999).

(e) *Affective responses*

Affective responses include emotions, feelings, and physiological reactions. Affective responses are inseparable from cognitions and do not exist in isolation. Not only are they inseparable from cognitive processes, but they also influence each of the other cognitive-affective units. For example, the encoding of a person's view of self includes certain positive and negative feelings. Similarly, people's competencies and coping strategies, their beliefs and expectancies, and their goals and values are all coloured by their affective responses. People's cognitive representations and affective states interact dynamically and influence each other reciprocally. It is the organisation of the relationship among them that forms the core of the personality structure and that guides and constrains their impact (Mischel & Shoda, 1995, 1998, 1999).

4.1.1.3 *Model of a dynamic self-regulation system*

The dynamic self-regulation system proposed by Worline et al. (2002) complements Mischel and Shoda's (1995) model by providing a model to explain individual response behaviour in an organisational context. The model of Worline et al. (2002) is depicted in Figure 4.1. The model takes into account that people in organisations motivate and regulate their behaviour based in part on the norms, roles, scripts, and routines that come to be taken for granted in the organisation. When people encounter behaviour that is discrepant from the taken-for-granted norms, roles, scripts, and routines, they emotionally sense and cognitively monitor features of the exceptional action to determine progress toward worthy goals and feelings and values that are important in the organisation (Brissett & Edgley, 1990; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Worline et al., 2002). People's rate of progress toward goals is monitored through the self-regulation system, and the rate of progress toward goals gives rise to affect (Carver & Scheier, 1998). The movement toward a goal and the speed of that movement determine affective response.

The model of Worline et al. (2002) provides a dynamic model of work performance that weaves threads of cognition, emotion, and action into a social fabric. It emphasises that workplace sense-making processes are both emotional and cognitive, created through work cultures, routines, values, and interactions that are not solely individual (Bartel & Saavedra, 2000; Huy, 1999; Rafaeli & Worline, 2001). According to the model, people use their emotional and cognitive presence to monitor the social world, and violations of norms, roles, scripts, or routines prompt sense-making processes regarding meaning, as well as progress and speed toward desired goals. The combination of emotional response and cognitive inference about exceptional activity in the organisation creates the possibility for changes in self-directed thoughts and feelings.

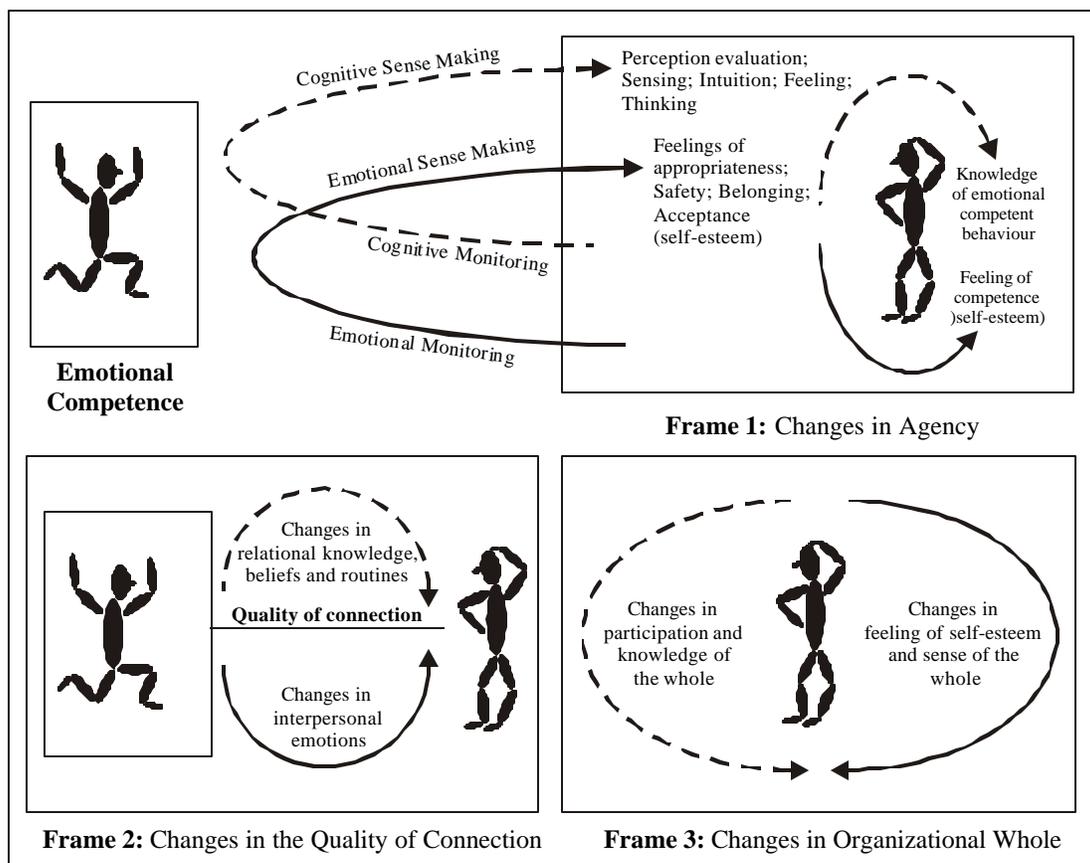


Figure 4.1 Model of a dynamic self-regulation system (adapted from Worline et al., 2002: 305)

4.1.1.4 *Meta-cognitive approaches*

Meta-cognitive approaches focus on individual differences in the accumulation of cognitive self-processes in learning behaviour (Kanfer, 1990). Through this approach an attempt is made to interpret the way in which individuals collect knowledge in goal-directed learning environments by using self-cognition and awareness to direct their own behaviour. It is therefore not a theory, but an approach that integrates different theoretic orientations and research findings to investigate individual orientations in self-regulation.

According to Brown (1987), knowledge in the meta-cognitive domain is a combination of an individual's self-knowledge, with idiosyncratic methods of self-regulatory behaviour due to motivation, directed attention and the organisation of knowledge.

4.1.2 Conceptual foundations

The social cognitive theories - in particular the cognitive-affective personality system theory of Mischel and Shoda (1995, 1998, 1999) and the model of a dynamic self-regulation system of Worline et al. (2002) - provide the paradigmatic foundation for the conceptualisation of the concept emotion and the related concepts of emotional regulation, emotional intelligence and emotional competence. Figure 4.2 provides an overview of the major concepts related to the conceptualisation of emotional competence. These include the concepts emotion, mood, affect, emotional regulation, emotional intelligence and emotional competence which are discussed below:

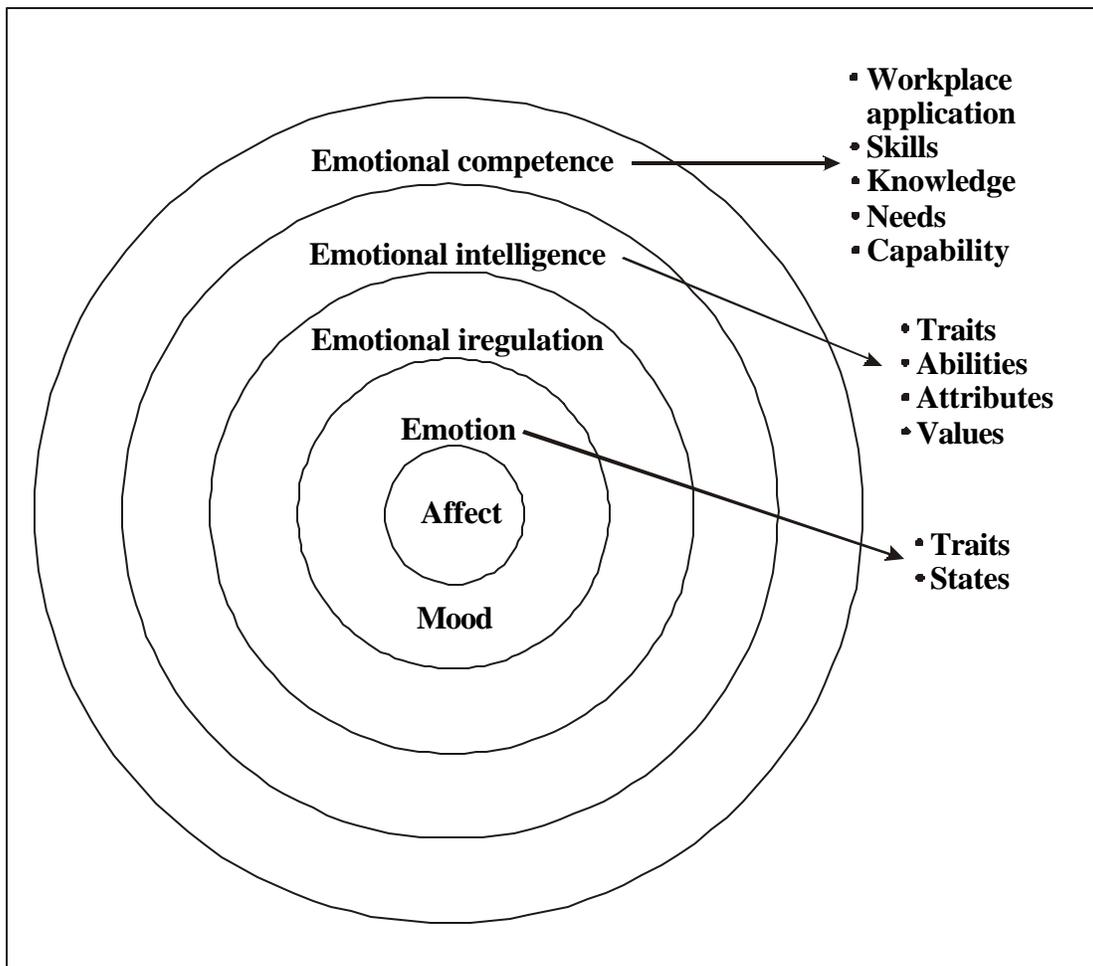


Figure 4.2 The conceptual foundations of emotional competence

4.1.2.1 *Conceptualisation of emotion*

Lord and Kanfer (2002:6) write that defining emotion is a complex issue. Larsen, Diener, and Lucas (2002:67) state that emotion must be viewed as an inferred construct, and researchers should be cautioned against viewing specific operational definitions as complete and without remainder. As a scientific term, “emotion” carries surplus meaning beyond any specific emotion measure.

(a) *Definition of emotion*

According to Larsen, Diener, and Lucas (2002:64), the most global definition of emotion draws from systems theory, identifying emotion as a multiattribute process that unfolds over time, with the attributes unfolding at different rates. Emotion attributes are manifest in multiple channels (experiential, physiological, expressive,

cognitive, and behavioural), and the channels themselves are loosely coupled such that measures of different emotion attributes (such as self-report and physiological) may not correlate highly. Izard (1993) conceptualises emotion as involving three basic processes, namely: a neural substrate, an expressive or motor component, and an experiential component.

Izard (1993) says that the experiential component of emotions – the experience of pain, anger, and joy – is central to emotions and manifests itself as an action tendency, a biasing of perceptions, or a feeling state. Izard (1992: 561) describes emotions as specific neuropsychological phenomena, shaped by natural selection, that organise and motivate physiological, cognitive and action patterns that facilitate adaptive responses to the vast array of demands and opportunities in the environment. Emotions help humans to solve problems of adaptation and survival. Izard (1993) notes that although emotional experiences are activated by neural, sensorimotor, motivational, and cognitive systems, neural systems can activate emotions without cognitive mediation. Emotions are generally of short duration and are associated with a specific stimulus.

(b) *Emotion, mood and affect*

The concept emotion is differentiated from the concepts mood and affect. According to Lord and Kanfer (2002), affect is a more general term and can refer to either mood or emotion. Both moods and emotions are multicomponential, entailing physiological, experiential, cognitive, and expressive aspects (Kanfer & Kantrowitz, 2002: 433). Distinctions between moods and emotions typically emphasise differences in the focus, duration, or directedness of each construct. In contrast to emotions, moods tend to be diffuse, pervasive, without a readily identifiable precipitating event, and of longer duration than emotions. Frijda (1993) describes mood as being more enduring, more diffuse, and less related to specific stimuli. According to Lord and Kanfer (2002), emotions have a stronger linkage with specific behaviours. Moods and emotions may also be distinguished in terms of their informational value. Emotions provide more information about the environment than moods, though moods are likely to provide more information about one's internal state (Morris & Feldman, 1997). Underwood (1997:127) notes that the most important distinction pertains to the stronger action tendencies associated with emotions in comparison to moods. Emotions are often

described as powerful, urgent, and passionate whereas moods are rarely described in these action-oriented terms.

Kanfer and Kantrowitz (2002:450) suggest that emotions are associated with greater use of situation-oriented, behavioural regulation strategies than moods. Emotions are usually characterised as affective, short-lived, relatively intense, and typically interruptive of thought processes (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Frijda, 1993; George, 1996). Emotions themselves are multifaceted, involving cognitive processes, physiological arousal, and behavioural predispositions. As emotion involves an appraisal of a specific precipitating event or circumstances, subsequent emotion regulation may be directed toward modifying the situation or event or modulating emotional responses. In contrast, mood regulation focuses primarily on altering the (usually negative) mood state of the individual (Larsen, 2000).

Scherer (1994) also maintains that emotions are interfaces that mediate between environmental input and behavioural output. This interface has strong ties to motivational implementation systems and helps ensure that the central needs of the social system are met. The emotional interface decouples stimuli and responses, allowing for much greater flexibility in adjusting to environmental differences. According to Scherer (1994), flexibility accrues from the combination of two processes: Firstly, while emotions prepare and energise appropriate action tendencies, responses are not immediately released, providing a latency period in which additional information can be processed and alternative responses considered. Secondly, emotional intensity moderates the linkage between emotions and behaviour, with the latency period being shorter for stronger emotions. Thus, in critical situations, which produce strong emotional responses, preprogrammed responses can be reliably executed, but in less critical situations, continuous evaluation and more thoughtful choice of behaviour can occur. Importantly, this continuous evaluation often takes into account the reactions of others (Lord & Kanfer, 2002; Scherer, 1994).

(c) *Emotion states versus emotion traits*

According to Larsen et al (2002: 72), emotions are viewed as hybrid phenomena, consisting of both state and trait components, allowing the researcher to focus on one or the other components in addressing various research questions. Thinking about

emotions as states implies that emotions are temporary, are due primarily to causes outside the person, and have distinct onsets and offsets. Although emotions are fluctuating states, they nevertheless fluctuate around some mean or average level for each person, and individuals differ from each other in their average level of various emotions.

Emotions can also be conceptualised as having an enduring trait-like component, that this component is due primarily to causes inside the person (such as personality), and that the trait conception of emotion refers to the set point or expected value for each person on that emotion, other things being equal (George, 1996). Larsen et al (2002:73) state that understanding how trait emotions work and the causes and consequences of these specific dispositions will help industrial and organisational psychologists predict and explain specific workplace reactions and behaviour.

(d) *Phases of emotional development*

Haviland-Jones, Gebelt, and Stapley (1997), describe three phases of emotional development, namely acquisition, refinement, and transformation.

Acquisition includes reflexive affect and temperament as well as acquisition of the labels for emotional categories. Much of basic acquisition of the emotional process appears to occur in infancy and seems to be almost automatic among human beings. According to Haviland-Jones et al. (1997), one not only acquires and practices different emotions but also demonstrates a style or temperament for them. Infants either at birth or shortly after have a good range of emotional expressions whose intensity and specific elicitors vary by individual temperament. Not only does everyone have some ability to demonstrate emotional reactions, but one learns to label emotion as well. During infancy children begin to use information about emotion to make decisions about their behaviour. For example, they will look at other people's emotional expression to decide whether they should approach a new toy or cross a dangerous area.

The second phase of emotional learning is refinement. While acquisition referred to the expression and perception of emotion, refinement refers to the attaching and detaching of the expressions and feelings to particular contexts and behaviours. During adolescence there is a major change in the frequency with which specific

emotions are displayed and their gender appropriateness (Haviland-Jones, et al., 1997). Much of this learning relies on family and cultural modeling as well as direct training. The basic meanings of emotions do not change, only the manner and place of expression.

Transformation refers to changes in whole systems, which includes two different processes. First are the ways in which a particular emotional state transforms the processes of thinking, learning, or getting ready to act in that state. Different emotional states tend to elicit different information-processing modes. Second is how the emotional process itself is changed with experience and knowledge so that the context and meaning of emotion emerges as a personal construction. An emotion can remain simple, or it can be transformed to form a system of thoughts, behaviours, and processes. Individuals also develop scripts and expectations with emotional content that provide them with complex interpersonal roles and beliefs about their personal values and goals. For example, sadness might be combined with guilt and fear and with the idea that one is worthless. In extreme forms this is a transformation of sadness to depression. Someone else might combine sadness with interest and a sense of herself as empathic and caring for distressed people. Each network of emotions, thoughts, and behaviours transforms the experience of sadness into an aspect of personality and in so doing changes the experience of the emotion itself. By nursery school age, for example, children use different styles of narration for relating different emotional experiences.

During adolescence emotions noticeably become the basis of identity and ideals. Adolescents begin to form varied and intense attachments to ideals, people, and careers, just as their emotional life is transformed and as awareness of emotionality changes. Trying to abstract the meaning of moods and personality traits from concrete experience is difficult for adolescents. The easiest emotions to accept and comprehend are the positive motions (joy, surprise, and interest). Emotional refinement includes increasing awareness of mood changes, especially internally directed ones. It also includes changes in the perceived organisation of social situations that elicit emotions.

(e) *Emotional experience and the self-system*

According to Saarni (1997:40), individuals' emotional experience is integrated with their self-system. Without a self capable of reflecting on itself, they would have feelings but would not know that it is themselves experiencing the feelings, or they would not be able to use their own emotional experience as a guide in understanding others' feelings. Neisser (1992) presents a triple concept of self (the ecological self, extended self and evaluative self) which provides a conceptual tool for looking at how individual differences may manifest themselves in emotional expression and regulation. Neisser (1992) argues that the ecological or subjective self interacts with an environment that is bi-directional: what happens is a joint function of what the individual can do with the environment and what the environment provides the individual as an accessible structure (that is, the environment permits or affords interaction). The social environment presents an array of affordances or opportunities for interaction to the individual. However, the individual is not only in relationship to a present environment, but is also concerned with the past and future. In this regard, the extended self has expectations about what to expect in interactions acquired in previous interactions.

Expectations powerfully influence which opportunities individuals seek out or avoid in their social and physical environments, based on past experiences. Regarding the evaluative self, Neisser (1992) highlights the feelings people attach to their interactions with the physical and social environments. The evaluative self is a goal-directed self, and as a consequence, individuals' environmental interactions are motivated toward some outcomes and away from others, in response to the standards and values of the family and societal context.

4.1.2.2 Conceptualisation of emotional regulation

The topic of emotional regulation is of key importance to the study of emotional behaviour in an organisational context (Weiss, 2002:53). The definitions provided in the literature for the term emotional regulation delineate different aspects of the domain. According to Frijda (1986) and Thompson (1994), emotion regulation refers to the psychological and behavioural processes involved in the (self) management of affective response tendencies. Gross (1999) distinguishes between three uses of the term emotional regulation. In the first use, the term refers to the way emotions

regulate or influence the individual's thoughts and behaviours. In the second use, the term refers to how individuals try to regulate the emotional experiences of others.

Gross (1999) prefers to reserve the term emotional regulation for the third way it is used, referring to the processes by which individuals regulate the experience and expression of their own emotions. Simply put, emotional regulation is the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express emotions. The third use of the term is of particular importance to this research, as it helps to clarify the role of individual differences, more specifically, personality type preferences and self-esteem, in expressing emotions. Although the concept emotional regulation grew out of research on coping, the two concepts can be differentiated. Coping as a response to stress focuses on efforts to deal with negative and taxing situations. Emotional regulation, on the other hand, focuses on regulating affective experiences, whether they are positive or negative and taxing or not (Gross, 1999).

Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie, and Reiser (2002:137) define emotion regulation as the process of initiating, maintaining, modulating, or managing the occurrence, intensity, or duration of internal feeling states and emotion-related physiological processes, often with a view to accomplishing one's goals. Walden and Smith (1997:15) define emotional regulation as a process that requires the individual to be able to assess the demands of a situation and to respond flexibly and adaptively to those demands. Several features of these definitions warrant special attention. First, the focus of regulation is the contextualised self. That is, emotional regulation pertains to modulation of one's emotional processes in the context of physiological, cognitive, motivational, and environmental pressures. Second, emotional regulation is regarded as a complex phenomenon that involves management of the process by which emotions are generated, the dynamics governing intensity of felt emotion, and the expression of emotion-based behaviours.

The definitions emphasise how individuals influence their own felt emotions and responses to enhance subjective wellbeing and accomplish goals. Emotional regulation can be viewed as a technique of self-regulation that is conscious and controlled, and with self-reflective cognitive judgments, enhances people's agency in their work roles (Worline et al., 2002). Emotional intelligence also has implications for the ability to regulate emotions. Kanfer and Kantrowitz (2002) note that emotion

regulation pertains to only part of the broad emotional intelligence construct. Emotional intelligence researchers seem to differ in the extent to which they perceive emotion regulation as an integral part of the emotional intelligence construct. It should be noted at this stage that the focus of this research is on emotions in normal, healthy individuals. Clinical applications and pathological aspects of emotional management and regulation are beyond the scope of this research.

4.1.2.3 Conceptualisation of emotional intelligence

The controversy over the validity and incompleteness of general cognitive ability measures for predicting job performance and career success helped to spawn scientific interest in the concept of emotional intelligence (Kanfer & Kantrowitz, 2002). Over the past fifteen years, a small group of researchers have developed measures of emotional intelligence with the intention of providing incremental predictive validity (above that of general cognitive ability) for interpersonal and managerial aspects of job performance (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Goleman, 2001; Mayer & Salovey, 1993, 1997).

According to Wong and Law (2002:243), increasing numbers of scholars have argued that emotional intelligence is a core variable that affects the performance of leaders. Exploratory evidence is provided by Wong and Law (2002) for the effects of the emotional intelligence of both leaders and followers on job outcomes. Results of their research show that the emotional intelligence of followers affects job performance and job satisfaction, while the emotional intelligence of leaders affects their satisfaction and extra-role behaviour. Proponents of the emotional intelligence concept argue that emotional intelligence affects one's physical and mental health as well as one's career achievements (Goleman, 1995; Kanfer & Kantrowitz, 2002).

Some emerging leadership theories also suggest that emotional and social intelligence are even more important for leaders because cognitive and behavioural complexity and flexibility are important characteristics of competent leaders (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000; Higgs & Rowland, 2002).

(a) *Conceptualisation of intelligence*

The notion of emotional intelligence arises out of the search for a set of measurable tendencies and capabilities which, in addition to IQ, may serve as valid predictors of academic, occupational, and life success (Fox & Spector, 2000). Although emotional intelligence has been specifically defined only since the beginning of the 1990s (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), interest in the interaction of emotions and intelligence has been explored since the early 1950s (Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Härtel, 2002). The roots of the development of the concept of emotional intelligence appear to lie in the apparent inability of traditional measures of rational thinking (for example IQ tests) to predict who will succeed in life (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000). Piaget (1977) explored theoretical links between affectivity and intelligence in the 1950s and researchers such as Lazarus (1991), Izard (1992) and LeDoux (1996) discussed the link between emotion and cognition in the 1980s and 1990s.

The concept “intelligence” most often refers to the cognitive intelligence that is considered necessary to deal with complexity and survival within an analytical and conceptually challenging world. According to Kaplan and Sadock (in Bar-On, 1997), the literature generally refers to intelligence as cognitive intelligence or Intelligence Quotient (IQ). IQ is generally defined as the individual’s capacity to understand, learn, recall, think rationally, solve problems, and apply what has been learned. Wechsler (1958) defined intelligence as the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his or her environment.

Foxcroft and Roodt (2001) maintain that intelligence can be viewed as a constantly active interaction between inherent ability and environmental experience, which results in an individual being able to acquire, remember and use knowledge; to understand relationships among objects, events, and ideas; and to apply and use all these in a purposeful way to solve problems. Simply put then, intelligence implies the use of reason or cognitive capacity to solve problems or direct behaviour.

Scarr and Carter-Saltzman (1982) argue that the term “intelligence” should be reserved for those individual attributes that center around mental processes such as reasoning skills, knowledge of one’s culture and social role requirements, and the ability to arrive at innovative solutions to problems. The term “intelligence” should thus be reserved to describe cross-situational attributes in individuals that they carry with

them into diverse situations. Individual intelligence should also be differentiated from social competence, which refers to role performance and implies an individual's success in fulfilling social roles. According to Scarr and Carter-Saltzman (1982), the most socially competent people are those who can fill many social roles well. People who are intelligent by the individual definition of intelligence are likely to have greater social competence, because breadth of role options is related to intelligence, as is goodness of role performance. Intelligence is, however, only one component in social competence, although a major one. However, people who are considered socially competent need not have high intelligence. Depending upon the roles they choose or have thrust upon them, the performance of those with average or low-average intellectual levels may be quite adequate. People of lesser intelligence will not have the breadth of options that more intelligent people have, nor are they as likely to fill the roles they do have as competently, on average, as more intelligent people, but they can be socially competent at some level.

Thorndike (1920) developed the concept of social intelligence in a study aimed at reviewing the predictive power of IQ as a means of explaining variations in outcome measures not accounted for by IQ. Gardner (1983) presented a broader view of the totality of intelligence by developing and exploring the concept of multiple intelligences. Gardner (1983) pointed out the distinction between intellectual and emotional capacities. His model of multiple intelligences contains a list of seven intelligences, which include cognitive abilities, such as mathematical reasoning and verbal fluency, as well as spatial, kinesthetic, and musical intelligences. Gardner (1983) argued that these intelligences exist on the basis of their cultural significance and their correspondence to the human brain structure. In addition, he proposed the concept social intelligence as one of the seven intelligence domains in his theory of multiple intelligences.

According to Gardner (1983), social intelligence is comprised of a person's intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences. Intrapersonal intelligence relates to one's intelligence in dealing with oneself, and is the ability to symbolise complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings. In contrast, interpersonal intelligence relates to one's intelligence in dealing with others and is the ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals, in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions (Gardner, 1983: 239).

Emotional intelligence draws on a research tradition which focuses on intelligent behaviour in natural situations, or practical intelligence (Fox & Spector, 2000; Sternberg & Wagner, 1993; Sternberg, 1997; Wagner & Sternberg, 1985). In contrast to abstract academic intelligence, practical intelligence is directed at one's short and long-range goals, and is employed to solve problems important to one's emotions, well-being, needs, plans, and survival, including social role performance.

(b) Definitions of emotional intelligence

The notion of emotional intelligence is based on several competencies and tendencies related to the experience of moods and emotions (one's own and those of others) that contribute to successful navigation of individuals' social environments, and as such may be considered a subset of practical intelligence (Fox & Spector, 2000). The construct emotional intelligence is thus aimed at complementing the traditional view of intelligence by emphasising the emotional, personal, and social contributions to intelligent behaviour (Gardner, 1983; Mayer & Salovey, 1993, 1997; Wechsler, 1958). The term "emotional" in emotional intelligence is used broadly to refer to moods as well as emotions (George, 2000: 1033). So as to be consistent with the emotional intelligence literature, "emotions" will be used in this research to refer to both emotions and moods (thus affect).

Martinez-Pons (2000) suggests that emotional intelligence may be conceptualised as the self-regulatory routines by which individuals engage in emotion and behavioural control. Individual differences in emotional intelligence represent individual differences in self-regulatory effectiveness. Emotional intelligence describes the ability to effectively join emotions and reasoning, using emotions to facilitate reasoning and reasoning intelligently about emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The concept of emotional intelligence is primarily focused on the complex, potentially intelligent tapestry of emotional reasoning in everyday life. It is assumed that, for most healthy individuals, emotions convey knowledge about a person's relationships with the world. In other words, emotional intelligence taps into the extent to which people's cognitive capabilities are informed by emotions and the extent to which emotions are cognitively managed (George, 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Emotional intelligence is distinct from predispositions to experience certain kinds of emotions captured by the personality traits of positive and negative affectivity

(George, 1996; Tellegen, Watson, & Clark, 1999). Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Härtel (2002:361) argue that emotional intelligence moderates the direct effects of employees' workplace perceptions and experiences on emotional reactions and behaviours. Salovey and Mayer (1990) justify the designation of "emotional intelligence" because it requires processing of specific emotional information from within the organism, and because some level of competence at these skills is necessary for adequate social functioning. Mayer and Salovey (1997) argue specifically that emotional intelligence is different from other forms of intelligence and personality because it deals directly with the way people recognise and deal with emotions and emotional content. For instance, the focus on recognising and regulating emotion also differentiates emotional intelligence from impression management which is primarily a social skill used in interpersonal relationships.

Emotional intelligence appears to be distinct from, but positively related to, other intelligences; it is an individual difference where some people are more endowed, and others are less so; it develops over a person's life span and can be enhanced through training; it involves, at least in part, a person's abilities to identify and to perceive emotion (in self and others), as well as the skills to subsequently understand and manage those emotions successfully. The concept of emotional intelligence is also said to be based on extensive scientific and research evidence (Goleman, 1996; Cooper, 1997; Cooper & Sawaf, 2000). However, little research has been conducted in an organisational context and existing research has been largely drawn from physiological research development, education-based research and developments in the therapy field (Damasio, 1994; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; Goleman, 1996; Steiner, 1997).

Emotional intelligence has no clear definition, nor has consensus been reached on the breadth of the concept and what it should include. Further, because of the recency of the concept, research is currently in the midst of empirical and theoretical debate about the dimensions and competencies comprising emotional intelligence (Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Daus, 2003; Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000). On the one hand there seems to be agreement that emotional intelligence is a related, but distinct concept from other classic orientations of intelligence (Gardner, 1983; Thorndike, 1966). On the other hand, it has been suggested that emotional intelligence is more narrowly composed of distinct abilities all related specifically to emotion, such as perception, identification, understanding, and management of emotion (Mayer,

Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Other researchers suggest that the concept is more broadly inclusive of critical competencies for social interaction such as empathy, time management, decision-making, and teamwork (Bar-On, 1997; Cooper & Sawaf, 2000; Goleman, 1995). Although the construct emotional intelligence is still in a stage of active development and, it is thus not possible to be strongly assertive about the core properties of the construct, some key findings are emerging that provide an early picture of emotional intelligence. Table 4.1 provides an overview of the predominant proposed definitions of the concept emotional intelligence.

Table 4.1 Definitions of emotional intelligence

Author	Definition
Thorndike (1920, as cited by Wong & Law, 2002:29)	Social intelligence is the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls – to act wisely in human relations.
Salovey and Mayer (1990:189)	Emotional intelligence is the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions.
Gardner (1993:239)	Social intelligence is comprised of a person's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Intrapersonal intelligence relates to one's intelligence in dealing with oneself, and is the ability to symbolise complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings. Interpersonal intelligence relates to one's intelligence in dealing with others and is the ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals and, in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions.
Bar-On (1997:3)	Emotional intelligence is an array of non-cognitive abilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures.

Author	Definition
Mayer and Salovey (1997:10)	Emotional intelligence is a set of interrelated skills concerning the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.
Martinez (1997:72)	Emotional intelligence is an array of non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influence a person's ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures.
Saarni (1997:38)	Emotional competence is defined as the demonstration of self-efficacy in emotion-eliciting social transactions.
Goleman (1998:317)	Emotional intelligence is the capacity for recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships.
Eisenberg, Cumberland, and Spinrad (1998:242)	Emotional competence is an understanding of one's own and others' emotions, the tendency to display emotion in a situationally and culturally appropriate manner, and the ability to inhibit or modulate experienced and expressed emotion and emotionally derived behaviour as needed to achieve goals in a socially acceptable manner.
Orbach (1999:2)	Emotional literacy means the capacity to register our emotional responses to the situations we are in and to acknowledge those responses to ourselves so that we recognise the ways in which they influence our thoughts and our actions. It is not about the elevation of emotional responses above all others, nor about the broadcasting of our emotions to those around us. Emotional literacy is the attempt to take responsibility for understanding our personal emotions.

Author	Definition
Cooper and Sawaf (2000:324)	Emotional intelligence is the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information and influence. Human emotions are the domain of core feelings, gut level instincts and emotional sensations. When trusted and respected, emotional intelligence provides a deeper, more fully formed understanding of oneself and those around us.
Fox and Spector (2000:203)	Emotional intelligence is a set of competencies that may enable people to use emotions advantageously to achieve desired outcomes.
George (2000:1033)	Emotional intelligence is the extent to which people's cognitive capabilities are informed by emotions and the extent to which emotions are cognitively managed.
Martinez-Pons (2000 :454)	The self-regulatory routines by which individuals engage in emotion and behavioural control.
Wolmarans (2002:5)	Emotional intelligence is a meta-competency and includes competencies such as self-management, accessing emotional energy, emotional literacy, change resilience, emotional honesty, vision, goal-directedness, balancing head and heart and the ability to motivate oneself and others.

The common thread running through the definitions of emotional intelligence seems to be the emphasis on the cognitive, affective, conative and social aspects of emotional intelligence. The cognitive aspect of emotional intelligence refers to ability to understand emotion and the emotional knowledge about one's own and others' emotional behaviour, which further individuals' self-understanding. The cognitive aspect of emotional intelligence relates to the term intelligence, which denotes the use of reason or the cognitive capacity to solve problems or to direct one's behaviour in active interaction with one's environment, including social encounters.

The term emotion refers to one's affective state, including emotions and mood, as a source of energy that influences one's wellbeing, goals, plans, survival and social role performance. The ability to access, generate, express and regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth is then, in this regard, associated with the affective aspect of emotional intelligence. The conative aspect of emotional intelligence deals with individuals' self-regulatory and self-management abilities and attitudes which entail taking responsibility for harnessing one's emotions as a source of energy to cope with and adapt to environmental demands and pressures. It includes the ability to display emotion in a situationally and culturally appropriate manner.

The social aspect relates to the ability to manage one's emotions in oneself and in one's relationships. This entails noticing and making distinctions among other individuals, in particular among their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions and using this information to guide one's thinking and actions in achieving one's goals in a socially acceptable manner.

Based on these cognitive, affective, conative and social aspects of the construct, emotional intelligence can be defined as a particular set of learned abilities and knowledge-building attitudes which enable individuals to tap into their feelings and emotions as a source of energy to foster self-understanding, personal effectiveness in interpersonal relations and the ability to achieve personal goals in a socially and culturally appropriate manner.

(c) *Emotional intelligence as a leader quality*

Leadership concerns the interaction of leaders with other individuals. According to Wong and Law (2002), once social interactions are involved, emotional awareness and emotional regulation become important factors affecting the quality of the interactions. House and Aditya (1997:418) maintain that leadership is embedded in a social context, and that the idea of social intelligence as a required leader trait is a powerful one. Sternberg (1997) states that social intelligence may be even more important in affecting the job success of managers and leaders than traditional general mental intelligence. Leadership researchers have also argued that effective leadership behaviour fundamentally depends upon the leader's ability to solve

complex social problems that arise in organisations (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000; Zaccaro, Mumford, Connelly, Marks, & Gilbert, 2000).

Boal and Hooijberg (2000) highlight that behavioural complexity as a core element of leader effectiveness. Leaders are required to play different roles at different times, and effective leaders have the ability to select the right roles for the situation. According to Boal and Hooijberg (2000), social intelligence is the underlying ability that governs the behavioural complexity of leaders. Hooijberg, Hunt, and Dodge (1997:382) present a framework of the cognitive, social, and behavioural complexities of leadership. According to this framework, the social aspect of a leader's capacity has two components, namely, social differentiation and social integration. Social differentiation is defined as the ability of a managerial leader to discriminate and recognise the various facets, aspects, and significances of a given social situation over time. Social differentiation is described as a function of the leader's ability to regulate emotions within the self and recognise emotions in others; the number and degree of independence of a leader's value preferences; and the leader's level of self-complexity. Wong and Law (2002) state that good leaders need to have a good understanding of their own emotions as well as those of others, and are able to regulate their own emotions when interacting with others.

Day (2000) also reinforces the importance of emotional intelligence in leader effectiveness by stating self-awareness (for example emotional awareness, self-confidence), self-regulation (for example self-control, trustworthiness, adaptability), and self-motivation (for example commitment, initiative, optimism) as specific examples of the type of intra-personal competence that is associated with leader development initiatives. Dulewicz and Higgs (1999) demonstrated in a range of research studies that emotional intelligence is strongly correlated with individual advancement and success in an organisational setting and with individual performance. In reviewing the emotional intelligence research, Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) indicate that there was a developing view that emotional intelligence may be strongly related to leadership.

Goleman (1998) claims that the evidence from leader competency research shows that, whilst for all jobs emotional intelligence is twice as important for high performance as IQ and technical competencies, for leadership roles it accounts for eighty five per cent of the variance in high performing individuals. According to

Goleman (1998), emotional competence makes the crucial difference between mediocre leaders and the best. The stars showed significantly greater strengths in a range of emotional competencies, among them influence, team leadership, political awareness, self-confidence, and achievement drive. On average close to ninety per cent of leaders' success in their role was attributable to emotional intelligence. Emerging approaches to leadership behaviour indicate that leadership is inexorably linked to the management of change and transformation. In considering the core role of leaders in making change happen, it is likely that the linkage between behaviours in this context require a combination of cognitive competencies and those associated with emotional intelligence (Higgs & Rowland, 2002).

4.1.2.4 Conceptualisation of emotional competence

The focus of this research is the workplace application of emotional intelligence and thus emotional competence. The conceptualisation of emotional competence is based on the mixed model approach to the construct emotional intelligence, which defines emotional intelligence as an ability with social behaviours, traits and competencies. The mixed model approach has found support in the writings of Bar-On (1997), Cooper and Sawaf (2000), Goleman (1995, 1998), Palmer and Stough (2001), and Wolmarans (1998, 2002).

Saarni (1997:38) defines emotional competence as the demonstration of self-efficacy in emotion-eliciting social transactions. Self-efficacy in this context implies that the individual has the capacity and skills to achieve a desired outcome. The application of the notion of self-efficacy to emotion-eliciting social transactions refers to how people can respond emotionally, yet simultaneously and strategically apply their knowledge about emotions and their emotional expressiveness to relationships with others. In this way they can both negotiate their way through interpersonal exchanges and regulate their emotional experiences.

Saarni (1997:38) defines the notion of competence as the capacity or ability to engage in transactions with a variable and challenging social-physical environment, resulting in growth and mastery for the individual. The term emotional competence, then, refers to the identifiable emotion-related capacities and abilities people need to engage with the changing environment such that they emerge more differentiated, better adapted, effective, and confident. The effective functioning of the individual a

changing and dynamic environment and the employment of self-regulatory strategies, is implicit in the notion of emotional competence.

In terms of the dynamic self-regulation system proposed by Worline et al. (2002), emotional competence can be viewed as an emotion-related mental construct that involves multi-faceted emotional experience along with certain kinds of self-reflective cognitive judgments and response behaviours which mutually constitute work performance. Emotional competence implies a sense of situated embedded agency, that is, people use their emotional and cognitive presence to monitor the social world and engage in competent behaviour in organisations. People navigate their behaviour within institutional norms and routines and use their discretion to make a difference in collective outcomes (Creed & Scully, 2001; Worline et al., 2002). In accordance with this explanation of emotional competence, people must have a disposition to act emotionally competently, meaning that individuals will differ in terms of how they regulate their emotions, cognitions, and actions to enhance their agency in their work roles.

Emotional competence presumes emotional development, but within any given age group some children or youths or adults function more emotionally competently than others. They demonstrate emotion-related capabilities that are more adaptive to the specific context in which they find themselves. Saarni (1997:38) also assumes that emotional competence is linked with the individual's cultural context. Individuals' emotional responses are contextually anchored in social meaning, that is, they have learned cultural messages about the meaning of social transactions, relationships, and even their self-definitions. Individuals are biologically endowed to be emotional, but their embeddedness in relationships with others provides the diversity in emotional experience, the challenges to emotional coping, and the ways in which they communicate their emotional experience to others. Relationships influence individuals' emotions, and their emotions reciprocally influence their relationships.

The concept emotional competence is integrated with the construct of emotional intelligence and is used in organisational and workplace applications where individual learning, development and performance are emphasised. There is a strong consensus in the literature that emotional intelligence is a developable trait or competency (Cooper, 1997; Goleman, 1996; Höpfl & Linstead, 1997; Martinez, 1997; Steiner, 1997). Fineman (1997) develops the idea of a clear link between emotion

and competency in relation to the process of management learning and development in particular. Goleman's (2001) competence-based model of emotional intelligence has been designed specifically for workplace applications. Within the framework of the proposed competence-based model, emotional competence is defined as a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that covers a range of behaviours, including the ability to deal creatively with a personally and professionally demanding environment, and which results in outstanding performance at work (Goleman, 2001:27).

Specific emotional competencies underlie the key domains of emotional intelligence abilities. These emotional competencies can include attitudes and beliefs, as exemplified by achievement drive and self-confidence, as well as skills and abilities. Emotional competencies are socially embedded, they are learned rather than innate. People are not born with a high degree of self-confidence or achievement drive (Cherniss & Adler, 2000:9). However, emotional competence distinguishes individual differences in workplace performance. Emotional competence addresses emotional intelligence behaviours, individual traits and values, which assist in the improvement of workplace competency (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000). This perspective is aligned with Boyatzis' (1982) concept of a competency as an underlying characteristic of a person in that it may be a motive, trait, skill, aspect of one's self-image or social role, or a body of knowledge which he or she uses or apply to accomplish goals and improve his or her performance achievements.

Eisenberg, Cumberland, and Spinrad (1998:242) define emotional competence as an understanding of one's own and others' emotions, the tendency to display emotion in a situationally and culturally appropriate manner, and the ability to inhibit or modulate experienced and expressed emotion and emotionally derived behaviour as needed to achieve goals in a socially acceptable manner. In organisational contexts, emotional competence is reflected in understanding the emotional culture and climate associated with one's work role and the organisation; accurately appraising one's own emotions and being able and willing to regulate them and their expression, as necessary, for personal and organisational goals; and accurately appraising the emotions of super-ordinates, coworkers, clients, and others and being able and willing to respond appropriately for others', personal, and organisational goals (typically, by dispelling negative emotions and fostering positive ones).

The defined conceptualisation of emotional competence implies that competence, which refers to knowledge, skills, values, and attributes, is distinguished from abilities. Competence is the component unit of the response repertoire related to emotional intelligence that constitutes the response capability (or emotional competence) of a person. Competencies are the observed emotional intelligence variables, and abilities, the reference dimensions with which the skills and capabilities underlying emotional competence may be described more parsimoniously. Having a particular competency implies having the requisite abilities; however, having the requisite abilities does not necessarily imply having the particular competency. People with the same abilities may not have the same competencies if their experience and learning are different (Dawis, 1994). However, abilities can be used to predict the level on a particular competency that a person can attain if given the opportunity to learn the competency.

Skills and knowledge might be thought of as surface traits, and capabilities, attributes and values as source traits of emotional intelligence. As source traits, abilities, attributes and values are seen as providing the structure of emotional intelligence. Thus, the operative set of skills, knowledge and needs may change with time or with a given situation, but the source – emotional intelligence structure – remains essentially the same (Dawis, 1994). Based on this explanation of emotional competence, it can be hypothesised that individuals with the same emotional intelligence structure, that is, the same abilities, attributes and values, can still differ in their behaviour and therefore in their behavioural outcomes as a function of differing personality style. Personality style variables and experience of self-esteem moderate the relation of emotional intelligence structure to behaviour and behaviour outcomes manifested as emotional competence. Emotional competence, in turn, enhance people's agency in their work roles.

In conclusion then, based on the foregoing literature review on emotional competence, the term emotional competence can be defined as the demonstration or practical application of the learned abilities and knowledge-building attitudes related to the cognitive, affective, conative and social aspects of emotional intelligence in active interaction with one's environment. Emotional competence can be a resource through which organisational relationships are created, interpreted and altered. It is useful to apply the construct emotional competence in organisational contexts as it implies that people have the ability to be aware of their behaviour as part of the social

process of adjustment, to be aware of themselves as acting agents within the context of other acting agents within a particular socio-cultural context. People use their cognitive and emotional intelligence to monitor the social world and engage in competent behaviour in organisations to make a difference in collective outcomes.

4.2 THEORETICAL MODELS

Two models of emotionally intelligence have emerged in the literature, namely the ability model and the mixed model (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). The ability model defines emotional intelligence as a set of abilities that involves perceiving and reasoning abstractly with information that emerges from feelings. This model has been supported by the research of Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999); Mayer, DiPaolo, and Salovey (1990); Mayer and Salovey (1993, 1997); and Salovey and Mayer (1990). The mixed model defines emotional intelligence as an ability with social behaviours, traits and competencies and incorporates the underlying abilities postulated by the ability model of emotional intelligence.

4.2.1 Ability theory of emotional intelligence

In a reformulation of their original model, Mayer and Salovey (1997) developed a revised framework within which to study emotional intelligence. Their model (Figure 4.3) presents emotional intelligence as having four branches ranging from the most basic psychological processes to those that are more advanced. The most basic level of processing involves the perception, appraisal and expression of emotion. As these skills are mastered, one advances to the emotional facilitation of thinking and then on to the understanding and analysis of emotions and the utilisation of emotional knowledge. The most integrated and highest level of processing involves the reflective regulation of emotions to further emotional and intellectual growth. Within each level, there are representative abilities ranging from those that emerge early in development to those appearing later, usually in a more integrated adult personality. Individuals high in emotional intelligence are expected to progress more quickly through the branches and master each ability to its fullest (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

The first of these branches, emotional perception and expression, involves recognising and inputting verbal and nonverbal information from the emotion system. The second branch, emotional facilitation of thought (sometimes referred to as using

emotional intelligence), refers to using emotions as part of cognitive processes such as creativity and problem solving. The third branch, emotional understanding, involves cognitive processing of emotion, that is, insight and knowledge brought to bear upon one's feelings or the feelings of others. The fourth branch, emotional regulation, concerns the regulation of emotions in oneself and in other people.

Salovey, Mayer and Caruso (2002) and Salovey and Sluyter (1997) summarise the four branches of emotional intelligence and the underlying abilities as follows:

4.2.1.1 Emotional perception, appraisal and expression

Emotional perception and expression begin with the capacity to perceive and express feelings. Emotional intelligence is impossible without the competencies involved in this branch (Saarni, 1999). Emotional perception involves registering, attending to, and deciphering emotional messages as they are expressed in facial expressions, voice tone, or cultural artifacts. A person who sees the fleeting expression of fear in the face of another understands much more about that person's emotions and thoughts than someone who misses such a signal (Salovey, et al., 2002).

4.2.1.2 Emotional facilitation of thought (using emotional intelligence)

Using emotional intelligence concerns emotional facilitation of cognitive activities. Emotions are viewed as complex organisations of the various psychological subsystems – physiological, experiential, cognitive, and motivational. According to Salovey, et al. (2002:161), emotions enter the cognitive system both as cognised feelings, as in the case when someone thinks, "I am a little sad now," and as altered cognitions, as when a sad person thinks, "I am no good." The emotional facilitation of thought focuses on how emotion affects the cognitive system and, as such, can be harnessed for more effective problem solving, reasoning, decision-making, and creative endeavours. Cognition can be disrupted by emotions, such as anxiety and fear, but emotions can also prioritise the cognitive system to attend to what is important, and even to focus on what it does best in a given mood (Palfai & Salovey, 1993; Salovey, et al., 2002; Schwarz, 1990).

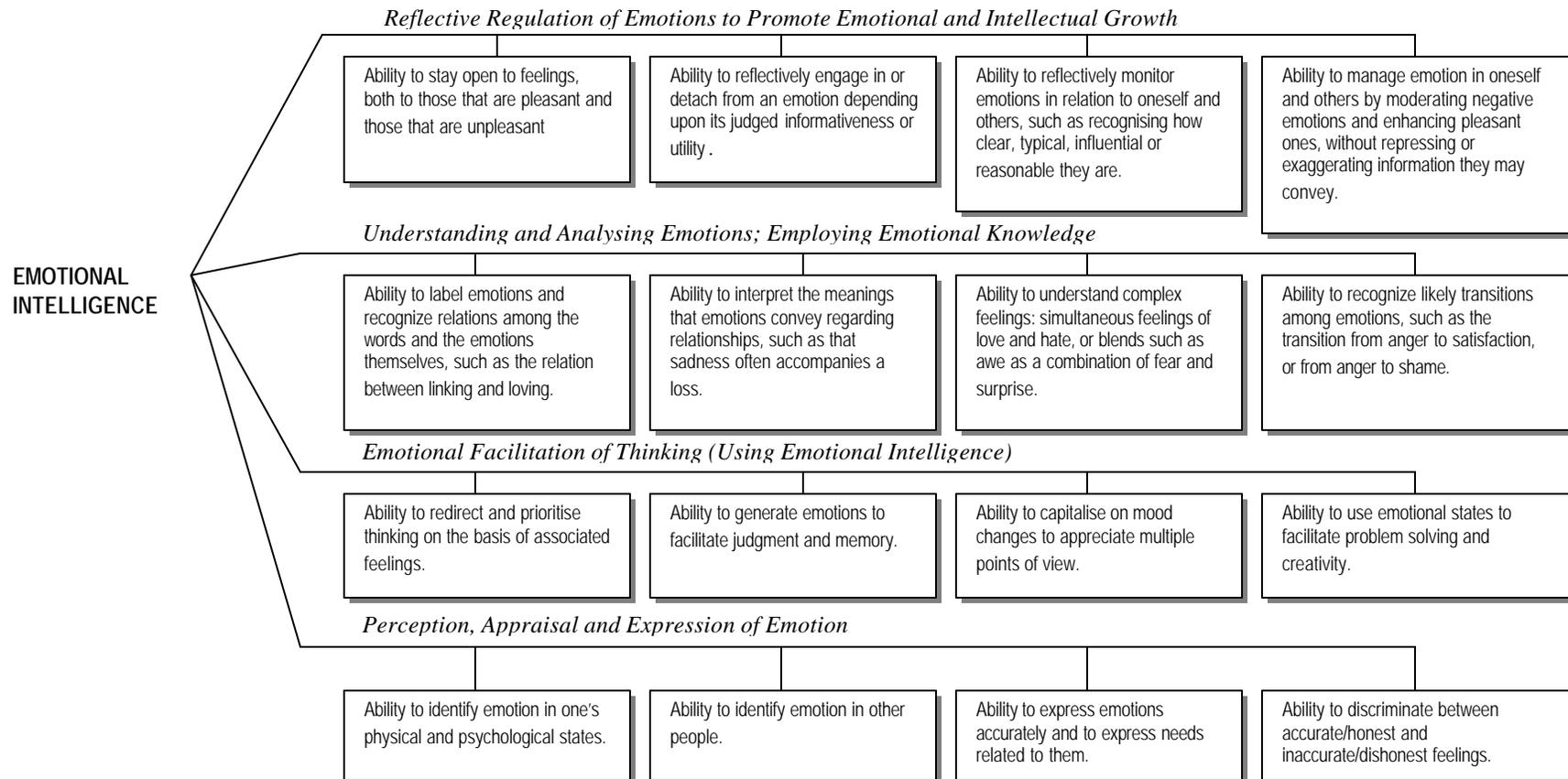


Figure 4.3 The four branches and abilities associated with emotional intelligence (based on Salovey et al., 2002:162; Salovey & Sluyter, 1997:11)

Emotions also change cognitions, making them positive when a person is happy and negative when a person is sad. These changes force the cognitive system to view things from different perspectives, for example, alternating between skeptical and accepting, helping the individual to be able to appreciate multiple vantage points and, consequently, think about a problem more deeply and creatively (Mayer & Hanson, 1995).

4.2.1.3 Emotional understanding

Salovey, et al. (2002:161) argue that emotions form a rich and complexly interrelated symbol set. The most fundamental competency at this level concerns the ability to label emotions with words and to recognise the relationships among exemplars of the affective lexicon. The emotionally intelligent individual is able to recognise that the terms used to describe emotions are arranged into families and that those groups of emotion terms form fuzzy sets. The relations among these terms are deduced – for example, annoyance and irritation can lead to rage if the provocative stimulus is not eliminated. Emotional understanding is important to understand important aspects of human nature and interpersonal relationships.

4.2.1.4 Reflective regulation of emotions (emotional management)

Emotional management is also referred to as reflective emotional regulation. According to Salovey, et al. (2002), individuals use a broad range of techniques to regulate their moods. Examples of mood regulation strategies include listening to music, physical exercise, social interaction, and cognitive self-management. Salovey, et al. (2002:162) state that the most successful regulation methods involve expenditure of energy; active mood management techniques combine relaxation, stress management, cognitive effort, and physical exercise. Central to emotional self-regulation is the ability to reflect upon and manage one's emotions.

4.2.2 Mixed models of emotional intelligence

Goleman's (2001) mixed models of emotional intelligence are discussed below. The mixed models define emotional intelligence as an ability with social behaviours, traits and competencies and incorporates the underlying abilities postulated by the ability model of emotional intelligence.

4.2.2.1 *Goleman's model of emotional intelligence*

Goleman's (2001) competence-based model of emotional intelligence has been designed specifically for workplace applications. It is described by Goleman (2001:27) as an emotional intelligence-based theory of performance that involves nineteen competencies that distinguish individual differences in workplace performance. Building on the work of Mayer and Salovey (1997) and others, Goleman (2001) has suggested that there are four general abilities which underlie the competencies of emotional intelligence, namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (or social skills). Goleman (2001:27) proposes that the underlying abilities of the model are necessary, though not sufficient to manifest competence in any one of the four emotional intelligence ability domains (also referred to as dimensions). The emotional competencies are job skills that can be learned. Table 4.2 gives an overview of Goleman's (2001) generic emotional competence framework.

(a) *Self-awareness*

Self-awareness, according to Goleman (1995, 2001), is the keystone of emotional intelligence. Knowing one's emotions (that is possessing the ability to monitor feelings on an ongoing basis) is important to psychological insight and self-understanding. Goleman (2001) describes self-awareness as the ability to understand feelings and engage in accurate self-assessment. It is also knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources, and intuitions.

(b) *Self-management*

Self-management refers to one's ability to manage internal states, impulses and resources. Self-management is also referred to as emotional management or self-regulation (Goleman, 1995). This element of emotional intelligence includes self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, and innovation. Self-management also involves self-monitoring which refers to an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external, situational factors. It also includes self-motivation, which involves the control of emotional tendencies that guide or facilitate reaching goals (Goleman, 1995). Achievement, drive, commitment, and initiative are key elements in one's self-management. Optimism, yet another key pillar in self-regulation, has long been thought to be a key determinant of motivation and performance outcomes (Seligman, 1990).

Table 4.2 The four dimensions and nineteen competencies associated with emotional intelligence (Cherniss & Adler, 2000:10, 11)

<p>DIMENSION 1: SELF-AWARENESS</p> <p><i>Knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Emotional self-awareness: Recognising one's emotions and their effects 2. Accurate self-assessment: Knowing one's strengths and limits 3. Self-confidence: A strong sense of one's self-worth and capabilities
<p>DIMENSION 2: SELF-MANAGEMENT</p> <p><i>Managing one's internal states, impulses and resources to facilitate reaching goals</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Adaptability: Flexibility in handling change 5. Self-control: Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check 6. Conscientiousness and reliability: Taking responsibility for personal performance; maintaining standards of honesty and integrity 7. Initiative and innovation: Readiness to act on opportunities; being comfortable with novel ideas, approaches and new information 8. Achievement drive: Striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence; persistence in purposing goals despite obstacles and setbacks
<p>DIMENSION 3: SOCIAL AWARENESS</p> <p><i>Awareness of others' feelings, needs and concerns</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Empathy: Sensing others' feelings and perspectives and taking an active interest in their concerns 10. Service orientation: Anticipating, recognising and meeting customers' needs 11. Organisational awareness: Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships 12. Developing others: Sensing others' developmental needs and bolstering their abilities
<p>DIMENSION 4: SOCIAL SKILLS</p> <p><i>Adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 13. Leadership: Inspiring and guiding individuals and groups; aligning with the goals of the group or organisation 14. Influence: Wielding effective tactics for persuasion 15. Change catalyst: Initiating or managing change 16. Communication: Listening openly and sending convincing messages 17. Conflict management: Negotiating and resolving disagreements 18. Collaboration and building bonds: Working with others toward shared goals; nurturing instrumental relationships 19. Team capabilities: Creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals

(c) *Social awareness*

Social awareness refers to one's ability to read people and groups accurately (Goleman, 2001). Social awareness includes empathy, or the awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns. Empathy is viewed as an important social competency and a crucial component of emotional intelligence. Empathy involves understanding others, developing others, having a service orientation, leveraging diversity, and possessing a keen political awareness (Goleman, 1995).

(d) *Relationship management/social skill*

Relationship management refers to the ability to induce desirable responses in others (Goleman, 2001). Relationship management, or social skills, describes one's adeptness at effectively handling interpersonal relationships (Salovey & Sluyter, 1997). According to Goleman (1995), this component of emotional intelligence involves influence tactics, effective communication with others, conflict management skills, leadership abilities, change management skills, instrumental relationship management, collaboration and cooperation abilities, and effective team membership capabilities (Goleman, 1995, 1998).

4.2.2.2 *BarOn's model of emotional intelligence*

BarOn (1997) developed an instrument to measure a more comprehensive concept of emotional intelligence, which he labeled emotional quotient (EQ). BarOn (1997:3) defined emotional intelligence as an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. The BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) divides emotional intelligence into five major components. BarOn (1997) labeled the components intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general mood. The model can be depicted as below:

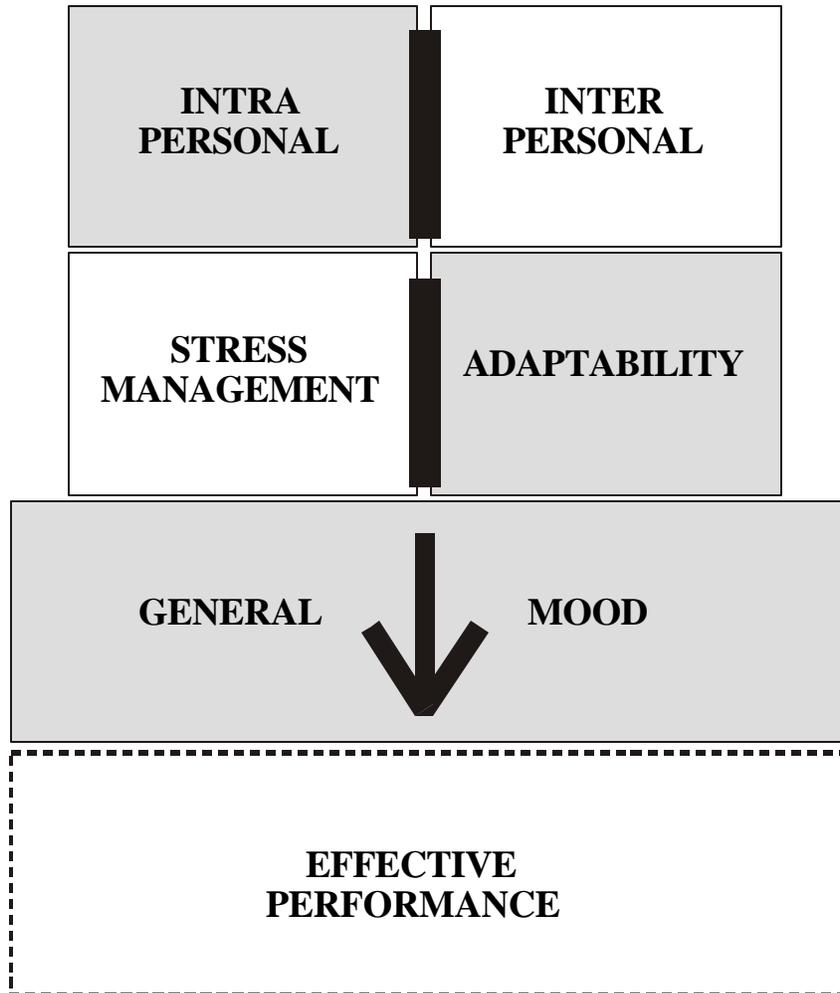


Figure 4.4 The BarOn EQ-I model (Van Rooyen, 2002:25)

(a) *The intrapersonal component*

The intrapersonal component assesses the inner self and includes the following abilities: self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualisation. People with these abilities are usually in touch with their feelings, feel good about themselves, and feel positive about what they are doing in their lives. They are able to express their feelings, and they are independent, strong, and confident in conveying their ideas and beliefs.

Self-regard refers to the ability to look at and understand oneself, respect and accept oneself, accepting one's perceived positive and negative aspects as well as one's limitations and possibilities. Emotional self-awareness describes the ability to recognise and understand one's feelings and motions, differentiate between them, and know what caused them and why. Assertiveness on the other hand refers to the ability to express feelings, beliefs and thoughts and defend one's rights in a non-destructive way. The ability of independence implies that one is self-reliant and self-directed in one's thinking and actions, and free of emotional dependency. Finally, self-actualisation describes the ability to realise one's potential capacities and to strive to do what one wants to do and enjoys doing.

(b) *The interpersonal component*

The interpersonal component taps interpersonal skills and functioning and includes the abilities of empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationship. Empathy is defined as the ability to be attentive to, to understand and to appreciate the feelings of others. It is being able to emotionally read other people. Social responsibility describes the ability to demonstrate oneself as a cooperative, contributing, and constructive member of one's social group. Interpersonal relations refer to the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships that are characterised by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection.

(c) *The adaptability component*

The adaptability component comprises the abilities of reality testing, flexibility and problem solving. Reality testing refers to the ability to assess the correspondence between what is experienced (the subjective) and what exists in reality (the

objective). Flexibility describes one's ability to adjust one's emotions, thoughts, and behaviours to changing situations and conditions. Problem solving refers to the ability to identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions.

(d) *The stress management component*

The stress management component consists of stress tolerance and impulse control as important underlying abilities of emotional intelligence. Stress tolerance refers to the ability to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without falling apart by actively and confidently coping with stress. Impulse control, on the other hand, refers to the ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive or temptation to act.

(e) *The general mood component*

The general mood component consists of optimism and happiness as important underlying abilities of emotional intelligence. Optimism refers to the ability to look at the brighter side of life and to maintain a positive attitude even in the face of adversity. Happiness describes the ability to feel satisfied with one's life, to enjoy oneself and others, and to have fun.

4.2.2.3 *Cooper and Sawaf's model of emotional intelligence*

Cooper and Sawaf (2000) describe their model of emotional intelligence as a four-cornerstone model, which moves emotional intelligence out of the realm of psychological analysis and philosophical theories into the realm of direct knowing, exploration and application. The four cornerstones of emotional intelligence are emotional literacy, emotional fitness, emotional depth and emotional alchemy. Figure 4.5 gives an overview of the four cornerstones of emotional intelligence.

(a) *Emotional literacy*

According to Cooper and Sawaf (2000: xxvii) emotional intelligence begins with the cornerstone of emotional literacy, which builds a locus of self-confidence through emotional honesty, energy, emotional feedback, intuition, responsibility, and connection. Emotional literacy is about being real and true to oneself which in turn builds awareness, inner guidance, respect, responsibility and connection with others.

(b) *Emotional fitness*

The second cornerstone strengthens one's authenticity, believability, and resilience. Emotional fitness expands one's circle of trust and one's capacity for listening, managing conflict, and making the most of constructive discontent.

(c) *Emotional depth*

In emotional depth, the third cornerstone, one explores ways to align one's life and work with one's unique potential and purpose. Emotional depth builds core character and calls forth one's potential, integrity and purpose. It requires commitment and accountability, which, in turn, increase one's influence without authority.

(d) *Emotional alchemy*

From the first three cornerstones, one advances to the fourth cornerstone, emotional alchemy, through which one extends one's creative instincts and capacity to flow with problems and pressures and to compete for the future by building one's capacity to sense more readily – and access – the widest range of hidden solutions and untapped opportunities (Cooper & Sawaf, 2000).

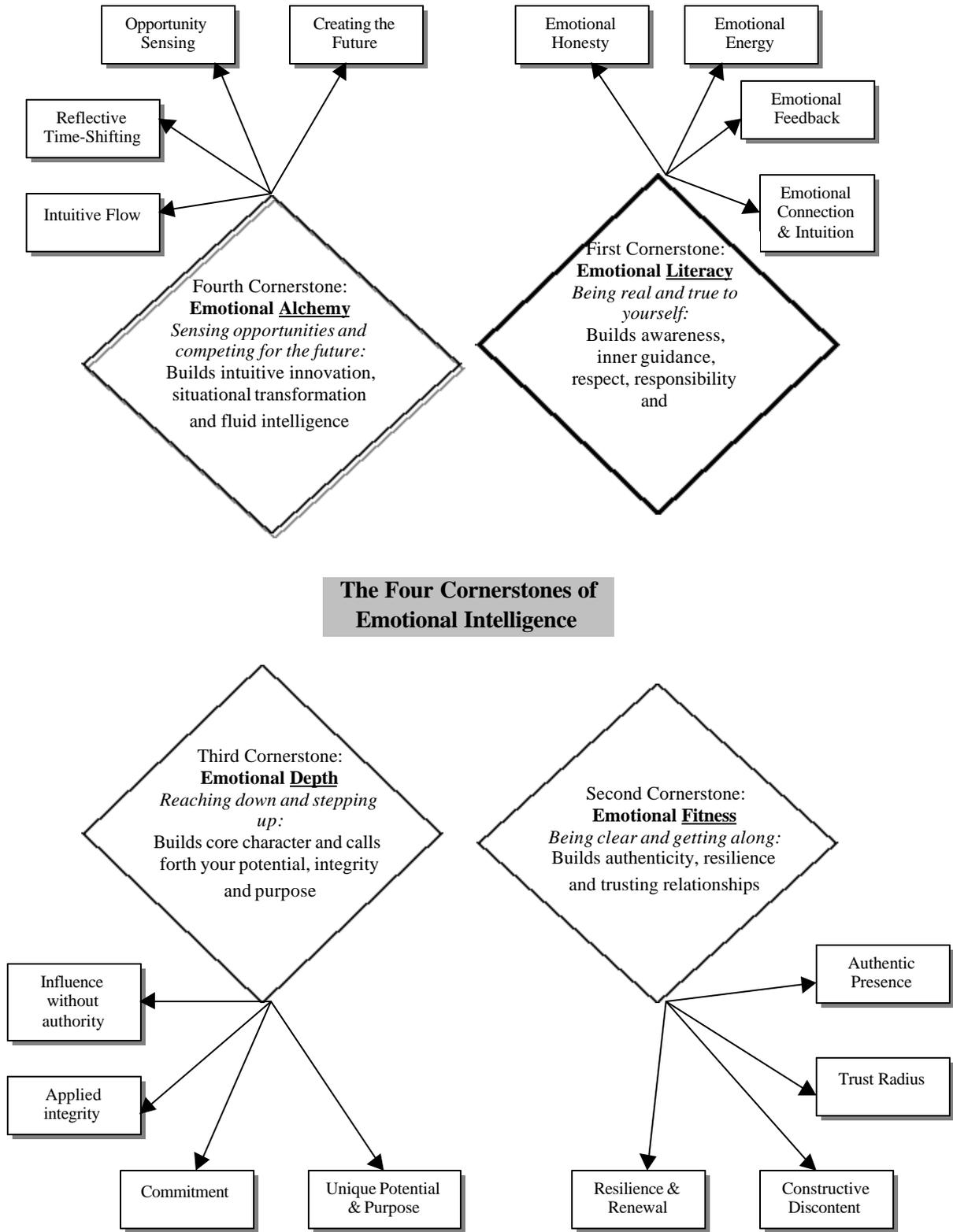


Figure 4.5 The four cornerstone model of emotional intelligence (Cooper & Sawaf, 2000: xxvi)

4.2.2.4 Wolmarans' model of emotional competence

Wolmarans and Martins (2001) developed an instrument, namely the 360-degree Emotional Competency Profiler, to measure emotional intelligence in the South African context and specifically to include a broader range of competencies than only the traditional intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies. The emotional intelligence competencies measured by the 360 degree Emotional Competency Profiler are based on a content analysis, conducted by Wolmarans (1998, 2002), of contemporary leadership competency requirements as determined by various authors and service providers. The 360-degree Emotional Competency Profiler divides emotional intelligence into seven major clusters of emotional competencies. Wolmarans (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001) labeled these clusters of emotional competencies emotional literacy, self-esteem/self-regard, self-management, self-motivation, change resilience, inter-personal relations and integration of the head and heart. Figure 4.6 illustrates the elements that comprise Wolmarans' (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001) emotional competence model.

(a) *Emotional literacy*

Emotional literacy represents an awareness of the ebb and flow of one's own and other people's emotions, an understanding of what causes the emotions, and the skill to interact at an emotional level in an appropriate way, at the right time, with the right person, within the boundaries of a particular context. An advanced level of emotional literacy is demonstrated by an ability and willingness to acknowledge and apologise for emotional hurt caused, to express sincere regret and to restore damaged relationships sensitively and sensibly (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

(b) *Self-esteem/self-regard*

Self-esteem/self-regard refers to an honest, objective and realistic assessment of, and respect for, one's own worth as an equal human being. It includes unconditional, non-defensive acceptance of one's talents, values, skills and shortcomings. A high level of self-esteem is demonstrated by the courage to act in accordance with personal values and convictions, in the face of opposition, and the ability to admit one's mistakes in public and even laughing at oneself when appropriate (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

(c) *Self-management*

Self-management is the ability to manage stress and harness energy to create a state of wellness and healthy balance between body, mind and soul, without overindulging in one area at the expense of another. An advanced state of self-management is demonstrated by the ability to remain calm in the face of conflict and provocation, eventually minimising defensiveness and restoring rationality with the aggravated party (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

(d) *Self-motivation*

Self-motivation is the ability to create a challenging vision and set stretching goals; to remain focused and optimistic in spite of setbacks; to take action everyday and remain committed to a cause; and to take responsibility for one's successes and failures. A high level of self-motivation is demonstrated by the ability to "hang in there" when others give up, as well as the judgment to change direction when it is time to move on (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

(e) *Change resilience*

Change resilience is the ability to remain flexible and open to new ideas and people, advocating the imperative for change and innovation when appropriate, with due concern and consideration for the emotional impact of change on people. An advanced level of change resilience is demonstrated by an ability to cope with ambiguity, to thrive on chaos, without forcing premature closure, and to get re-energised by the beautiful scenes encountered along the way, as well as the anticipation of the unknown (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

(f) *Inter-personal relations*

Inter-personal relations are underpinned by an intuitive understanding of, and deep level of caring and compassion for people; a real concern for their well-being, growth and development, and joy and recognition for their successes. It involves relating to others in such a way that they are motivated by high expectations and are willing to commit them to a cause. It includes both the ability to lead a team and to contribute to a team to achieve results. An advanced level of relationship competence is

demonstrated by the ability to make emotional contact with people and to build the kind of trust and loyalty that nurtures long-term relationships (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

(g) *Integration of head and heart*

Integration of head and heart implies that a person's potential is optimised by accessing the functions of both sides of the brain. Decisions are made and problems are solved, with due consideration of both facts and feelings, and with the commitment to create win-win solutions that serve both the goals and the relationships concerned. An advanced level of skill is demonstrated by the ability to turn adversity into opportunity, and make intuitive, inventive, yet implementable breakthroughs in moments of crisis (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

4.2.3 Integration of mixed model approaches to emotional intelligence

A comparative analysis of the four models that are categorised as mixed model approaches to emotional intelligence is provided in Table 4.3 (see next page). The comparative analysis provides an overview of the major domains of emotional intelligence abilities and the key measurable competencies related to these major domains. Figure 4.7 provides an integrated theoretical perspective on the ability and mixed models of emotional intelligence. The diagram depicts the abilities underlying emotional intelligence as identified by Mayer and Salovey (1997). These emotional intelligence abilities underlie the emotional competencies identified by the mixed model approaches of BarOn (1997), Cooper and Sawaf (2000), Goleman (2001), and Wolmarans (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). These mixed model approaches have two competency domains in common, namely personal and interactive emotional competencies.

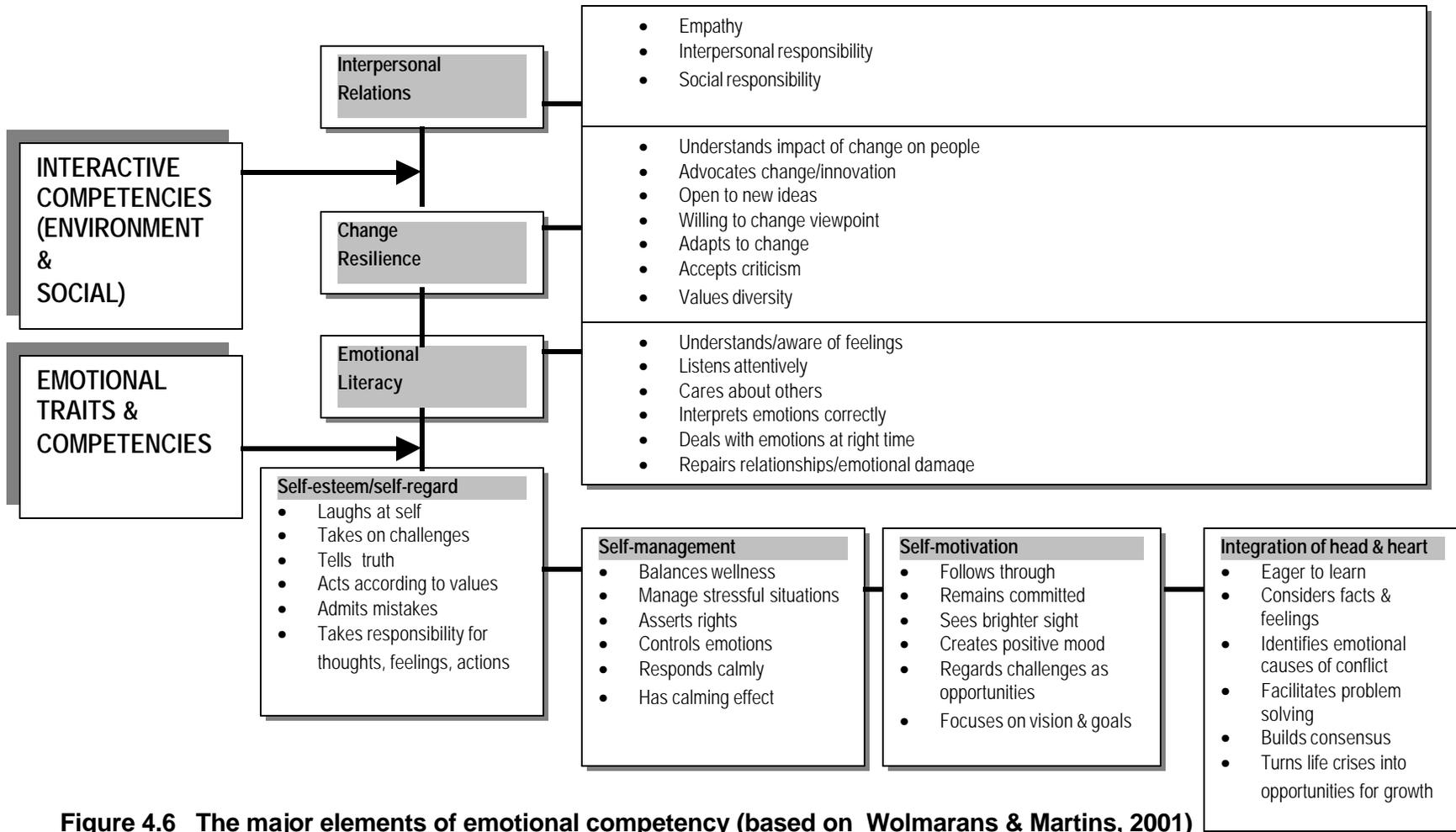


Figure 4.6 The major elements of emotional competency (based on Wolmarans & Martins, 2001)

Table 4.3 Comparative analysis of the mixed model approaches to emotional intelligence

	Wolmarans & Martins (2001)	Cooper & Sawaf (2000)	BarOn (1997)	Goleman (2001)
PERSONAL COMPETENCIES	<p><u>Emotional literacy</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aware/understands feelings • Listens attentively • Cares about others • Interprets emotions correctly • Deal with emotions at right time • Repairs relationships/emotional damage <p><u>Self-esteem/self-regard</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Laughs at self • Takes on challenges • Tells truth • Acts according to values • Admits mistakes • Takes responsibility for thoughts, feelings, actions <p><u>Self-management</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Balances wellness • Manages stressful situation • Asserts rights • Control emotions • Responds calmly • Has calming effect <p><u>Self-motivation</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Follows through • Remains committed • Sees lighter side • Creates positive mood • Regards challenges as opportunities • Focused on vision & goals 	<p><u>Emotional literacy</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional honesty • Emotional energy • Emotional feedback • Emotional connection & intuition <p><u>Emotional depth</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Influence without authority • Applied integrity • Commitment • Unique potential & purpose <p><u>Emotional alchemy</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunity sensing • Reflective time-shifting • Intuitive flow • Creating the future 	<p><u>Intra-personal</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional self-awareness • Assertiveness • Self-regard • Self-actualisation • Independence <p><u>Adaptability</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problem solving • Reality testing • Flexibility <p><u>Stress management</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress tolerance • Impulse control <p><u>General mood</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Happiness • Optimism 	<p><u>Self-awareness</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional self-awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence <p><u>Self-management</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adaptability • Self-control • Conscientiousness & reliability • Initiative & innovation • Achievement drive

Continues on next page

	Wolmarans & Martins (2001)	Cooper & Sawaf (2000)	BarOn (1997)	Goleman (2001)
	<p><u>Integration of head and heart</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Eager to learn • Considers facts & feelings • Identifies emotional causes of conflict • Facilitates problem solving • Builds <u>consensus</u> • Turns life crises into opportunities for growth 			
INTERACTIVE COMPETENCIES	<p><u>Change resilience</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands impact of change on people • Advocates change/innovation • Open to new ideas • Willingness to change viewpoint • Adapts to change • Accepts criticism • Values diversity <p><u>Interpersonal relationships</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trusting relationships • Interest in people's development • Acknowledges others' contributions • Cooperates • Expresses positive expectations • Welcomes inputs • Builds team spirit • Stimulates enthusiasm/commitment • Builds trust 	<p><u>Emotional fitness</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authentic presence • Trust radius • Resilience & renewal • Constructive discontent 	<p><u>Interpersonal</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empathy • Interpersonal relationship • Social responsibility 	<p><u>Social awareness</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empathy • Service orientation • Organisational awareness • Developing others <p><u>Social skills</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership • Influence • Change catalyst • Communication • Conflict management • Collaboration & building bonds • Team capabilities

Figure 4.7 The theoretical relationship between the ability and mixed models of emotional intelligence

4.3 VARIABLES INFLUENCING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Individuals' emotional responses vary due to variables that influence the way individuals interact with a situation presented by the environment. The key variables of importance to this research are cross-cultural influences, race/ethnicity, gender influences, skills, person influences, and lifespan development changes.

4.3.1 Cross-cultural influences

Based on their extensive review of cross-cultural approaches to emotion, Earley and Francis (2002) argue that it is fully warranted to suggest that there are aspects of emotional display that are universal, but with Ekman's (1994) own caveat that universality does not mean complete homogeneity of display. That is, variation across and within cultures is likely to occur (Pennebaker, Rime, & Blankenship, 1996). However, Wierzbicka (1994) argues that rather than positing universal emotions, it is more useful to think in terms of cultural scripts that are written in lexical universals. According to Wierzbicka (1986, 1994), all concepts could be universally defined using three underlying dimensions: evaluation (good-bad), potency (weak-strong), and activity (fast-slow). In this regard, emotions do not form universal categories but are based on universal dimensions of semantic primitives.

The study of emotions by Ellsworth (1994) and Mesquita & Frijda (1992) captures the notion that universality lies in the appraisal rather than display of emotions. In Frijda and Mesquita's (1994) model, emotion is described as a process rather than a state. Their model indicates the following sequence: event – event coding – appraisal – action readiness – physiological changes – behaviour. These stages are influenced by self-regulatory processes and concerns. Concerns denote short and long-term dispositions to prefer certain states over others.

Earley and Francis (2002) provide a general framework for explaining cross-cultural influences on emotion regulation within the organisational and work context. Their framework has four general parts with cascading influences on one another (see Figure 4.8): societal context, industry and organisational context, work unit and group characteristics, and employee emotional display and experience.

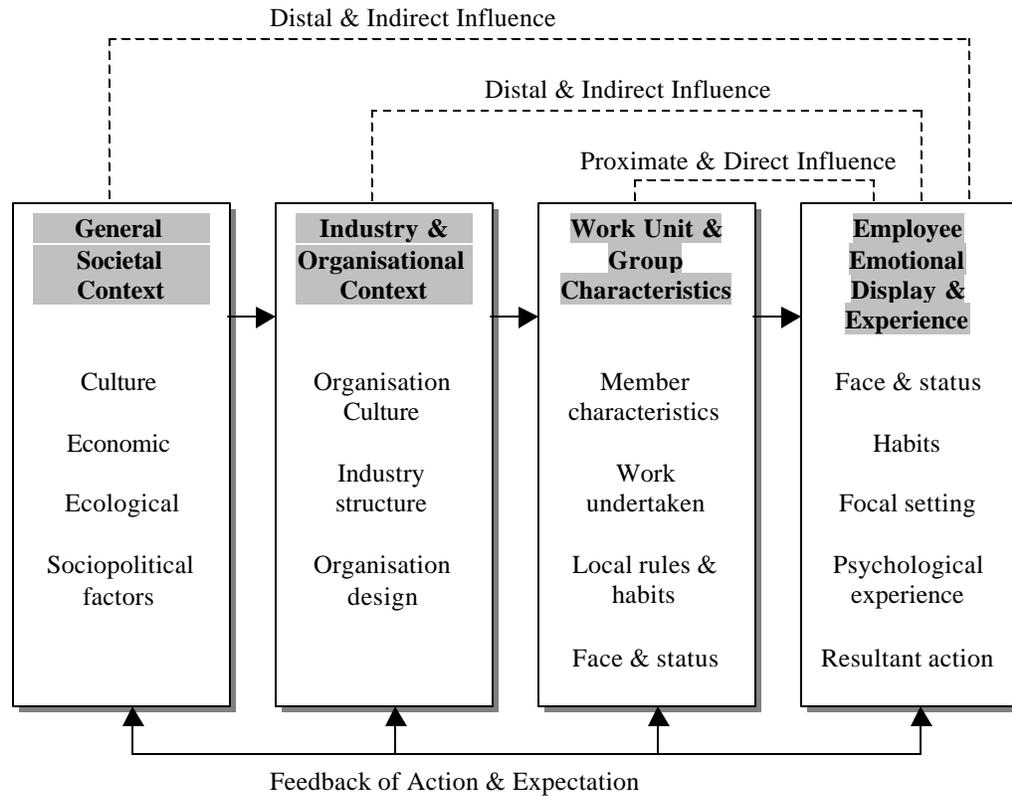


Figure 4.8 Cross-cultural perspectives of emotion and work (Earley & Francis, 2002: 377)

The general societal context refers to the cultural dimensions which influence emotional experience and display, namely shame versus guilt, tight versus loose, masculinity versus femininity, and individualism versus collectivism. Shame refers to a situation in which a person has failed to fulfill personal or community ideals for behaviour and personal states, and guilt reflects a situation in which a person transgresses the moral imperatives of a society (Lazarus & Lazarus, 1994). Shame is a socially oriented experience, and guilt is a personal one. Tight versus loose refers to the extent to which rules and norms are present and enforced within a society (Witkin & Berry, 1975). In a tight culture, characterised by many rules governing individuals' actions, individuals conform to existing practices, and deviation from those rules is discouraged or condemned (Glenn & Glenn, 1981; Triandis, 1990). Loose societies are characterised by a number of factors, for example, norms are expressed with a wide range of alternative channels; deviant behaviour is widely tolerated; values of group organisation formality are underdeveloped; and values such as stability, duration and solidarity are underemphasised. Tight societies are characterised by the opposite situation.

The tight-loose dimension accounts for psychological diversity (individual and group contrasts and similarities) by taking into account general exogenous and sociopolitical factors which influence the psychological outcomes of cognitive-style development through the process variables of biological adaptation, genetic transmission, cultural adaptation, cultural transmission, and acculturation (Earley & Francis, 2002). Cognitive styles based on field dependence and independence involve the manifestation of the differing styles of information seeking that people engage in. Field-independent people look to themselves more than to external referents and may typically be judged by others as self-interested, cold, distant, and task oriented. People who are field dependent are better able to recall and process social information and cues than people who are field independent, and are judged by others to be more social, gregarious, and interested in people (Earley & Francis, 2002).

Cultural factors influence various stages of the emotion process, including event coding, appraisal, and behaviour (emotion display). For example, Triandis (1994) suggests that collectivists (cultures that call for greater emotional dependence on one another) are more likely than individualists (cultures where autonomy over action is afforded to the individual) to empathise with others and are more likely to restrain their emotional display so as not to impose on others with the in-group.

Hofstede (1980) suggests that people from masculine cultures are more likely to be stoic and show restraint in experiencing and displaying emotion than people from feminine cultures. Masculine cultures emphasise norms such as accumulating money and objects, performance and growth, "living to work", an achievement ideal, independence and decisiveness, excelling and trying to be the best at something, and admiration of things that are big and fast. Sex roles in society are clearly differentiated, with men being more assertive and women more caring, and males dominate in various settings. In a more feminine culture, there is an emphasis on norms that include a people orientation, a stress on quality of life and environment, "working to live", a service ideal, the importance of interdependence and intuition, the importance of leveling (that is, not trying to be better than others), and a view that small and slow are beautiful. Sex roles are less differentiated and more fluid, androgyny is an ideal, and sex roles are not associated with differentiated levels of power (Hofstede, 1980).

Frijda and Mesquita's (1994) approach provides a perspective on emotion as an attribution and evaluation based on experience. The appraisal process itself is largely viewed as a relatively automatic and unconscious process guided by personal experience and cultural background. Research on appraisal has revealed a number of underlying dimensions of appraisal, including attention to change (novelty-attention), pleasure or distaste (unpleasantness-pleasantness), a sense of certainty, perception of obstacles, control-lability, attribution of agency (human versus nonhuman), impact on self-concept (enhance or decrease self-esteem), status maintenance, and overall judgment of value or fit with existing norms (Mesquita, Frijda, & Scherer, 1997). As Mesquita et al. (1997) point out, these appraisal dimensions show a great deal of convergence across a wide range of studies conducted in cross-cultural work (Matsumoto, Kudoh, Scherer, & Wallbot, 1988; Wallbot & Scherer, 1988). These appraisal dimensions show that individuals use a relatively modest number of underlying dimensions to understand various emotion-relevant events across cultures. These findings suggest that although emotional experience and display may differ across cultures, the dimensions underlying appraisal are universal.

The industry and organisational context emphasises the nature of institutional rules and roles and how they influence emotional appraisal. For example, the dominant culture of an organisation will influence and affect the style of interaction among members. In a highly networked organisation the emphasis is on communication, friendship, and camaraderie. This suggests that individuals will generally focus on one another as referents in making inferences concerning their emotions, and they will use these referents as a means of sense making as well (Goffee & Jones, 1996). According to Hackman (1990), the work group or team is the most proximate social influence on an employee and has significant ramifications for the display, interpretation, and experience of emotion for an employee. The work team represents a strong source of reference for an employee, and it guides and regulates immediate action.

The immediacy of a work group affects the nature of emotional experience and its display in a number of ways. First, team members are a strong referent for appraisal (cues for how one might and should react to a given situation). Second, fellow employees make up the social context including a general sense of the mood of the workplace. Third, issues of face and status are enacted on a team level that guide particular emotional displays over others. Finally, team members collectively feed

back to the general cultural context the nature of emotional experience and display such that a feedback loop is formed and the environment is shaped. The actual interpretation and display of an emotional event by an employee involve emotional experience and display using face, status, habits, focal setting, physiological experience, and resultant action (Earley, 1997).

4.3.2 Race/ethnicity

Group and family-oriented value systems influence individualistic values versus collectivist value orientations. They also lead to specific emotional response behaviour based on beliefs of racial appropriateness (Fitzgerald & Betz, 1994; Hewitt, 2002). Racial culture or ethnic group membership supplements psychologically intrinsic satisfactions with its own menu of approved goals and definitions of positive affect. External events shape affect, mood and emotion, resulting in a tendency for people to do what others require, encourage, or make possible. Following socially approved courses of action to approved goals produces positive affect, inclines individuals to anticipate more such affect in the future, and rewards them with positive emotions in each succeeding present. According to Hewitt (2002), racial culture provides alternative goals and alternative vocabularies for experiencing mood and emotion. Hence, it is not necessarily obvious to the individual what actions will produce a more desirable affective result, and the link between social demands and individual lines of conduct is therefore not always a strong one.

4.3.3 Gender influences

According to Pugh (2002), research demonstrates that males and females do not differ in terms of emotional experience. There are no significant differences, however, between males and females in the emotions expressed (La France & Banaji, 1992); women are more emotionally expressive than men (Hall, 1984; La France & Banaji, 1992; Shields, 1987). Furthermore, it seems that women are more likely than men to display warmth and liking in their transactions with others.

Research on gender differences in emotional intelligence has been limited and inconclusive (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). Although Goleman (1995) considered males and females to have their own personal profiles of strengths and weaknesses for emotional intelligence capacities, studies conducted by Mayer, Caruso and

Salovey (1999) and Mayer and Geher (1996) indicate that women score higher on measures of emotional intelligence than men. According to BarOn (1997) and Fatt and Howe (2003), both males and females generally have the same level of emotional intelligence. However, men and women as groups tend to have a shared, gender-specific profile of strong and weak points. Men are generally more self-confident and optimistic, and can handle stress better than women, but women are more aware of their emotions, show more empathy, and are more adept interpersonally.

4.3.4 Skills

Skills are conceptualised as the combination of efficient strategy selection and expertise at applying the strategy. Increasing skill at emotion regulation moves the process from an effortful and demanding one to a process that is nearly automatic. Well-learned emotion regulation may be initiated consciously, but once initiated it operates without the need for conscious guidance, attention, or monitoring (Wegner & Bargh, 1998). Emotion regulation as a technique of self-regulation is conscious and initiated intentionally and with repeated practice it can take on characteristics of an automatic process (Bargh, 1989). Wegner and Bargh (1998) note that the effectiveness of emotion control processes varies due to two key factors: strategy choice and control expertise. Strategy choice involves learning which techniques for emotion regulation work and which do not; expertise, according to Wegner and Bargh (1998), often simply comes down to the amount of practice an individual has in regulating his or her emotions.

4.3.5 Person influences

According to Mischel (1999), individual differences will lead to diverse behaviours and personal qualities override situational variables. Emotional intelligence abilities, particularly emotional regulation, occur in individuals who differ in motives and goals, personality traits, cognitive abilities, and self-regulatory capabilities (Kanfer & Kantrowitz, 2002). Kanfer and Kantrowitz (2002) argue that the influence of

these diverse person factors on the generative emotion process, as well as the selection, development, and use of emotion regulation strategies, is likely to be substantial. Higher levels of negative affectivity, for example, may place heavier demands on the individual for emotion regulation as a result of increased sensitivity to emotionally evocative events. Such traits may also influence the selection of emotion regulation strategies. Individuals high in negative affectivity may show preference for self-oriented, response-focused strategies that exacerbate rather than attenuate felt emotion and need for emotion control. In short, it is likely that person factors mediate multiple aspects of the emotion process in a way that exacerbates positive or negative trends in adaptive functioning. Individuals who score high on self-monitoring have been found to regulate the display of emotions better. They seem to have more control over the display of emotions and conform more closely to display rules, the prescriptions governing the display of emotion in a given situation (Ekman, 1973). Finally, individuals with high emotional stamina are able to display desired emotions over longer periods of time.

According to Kanfer and Kantrowitz (2002:456), the bulk of research on intra-individual differences in emotions and emotion regulation has been conducted in the personality domain. The research attests to the relationship between select personality dimensions, such as positive and negative affectivity, and the appraisal of events, experienced emotions, and emotional response tendencies. However, Gross (1999) notes that most research to date has focused on the relationship between individual differences in emotion antecedents and responses rather than on the relationship of traits to individual differences in the use, scope, or development of emotion regulation strategies.

A few recent studies have examined the relationship between the Five Factor Model personality traits and emotion regulation strategy use (Kokkonen & Pulkkinen, 1999; O'Brien & DeLongis, 1996; Tobin, Graziano, Vanman, & Tassinari, 2000). Results of these studies are generally concordant with findings in the antecedent and response domain in demonstrating a negative relationship between neuroticism and the use of adaptive emotion regulation strategies. However, Duclos and Laird (2001) point out that it is likely that certain individuals will benefit more from some emotion regulation strategies than others. In this regard, the question is not simply about the relationships of traits to use of adaptive or maladaptive strategies, but rather how and why traits relate to differential strategy use (Kanfer & Kantrowitz, 2002). Personality

research indicates that select affect-saturated traits mediate emotional processes in multiple ways. Evidence for the role of these traits in the activation of emotional processing, felt emotion, and emotion response tendencies is well documented, and findings on the influence of motivational variables on these processes are also emerging. Kanfer and Kantrowitz (2002) argue that in the work context, future evidence linking traits to the particulars of emotion regulation can be helpful in the development of more finely tuned programmes to remediate emotion-related behaviour problems.

4.3.6 Lifespan development changes

Theory and research from developmental and aging literatures suggest that individual differences in emotional experience and emotion regulation may change over time as a function of maturation, changing goals, and experience (Carstensen, 1992; Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie, & Reiser, 2000). Lifespan and aging researchers generally agree that age serves as an imperfect proxy for the developmental changes brought about by changes in biology, cognition, and environment. That is, age-related changes in emotions and emotion regulation are viewed as the result of changes in physiological, cognitive, and conative systems (Carstensen, 1992).

Research examining age and emotions has focused broadly on three aspects of emotions: emotional expressivity, emotional experience, and emotional control (Gross, Carstensen, Pasupathi, Tsai, Skorpen, & Hsu, 1997). The evidence for age-related changes in these aspects of emotional functioning suggests that while the strength of felt emotions may decrease, emotion regulatory processes may improve. Diener, Sandvik, and Larsen (1985) found age-related decreases in the frequency and intensity of self-regulated emotional experience, while Lawton, Kleban, Rajagopal, and Dean (1992) found that that emotional control increased with age. Results from research investigating the relationship between age and emotional expressivity have also been mixed (Gross et al., 1997; Malatesta & Kalnok, 1984). Gross et al. (1997) suggest that age-related declines in emotional expressivity may be limited to negative emotions and that aging is associated with improvement in emotion regulation, particularly in terms of the use of cognitive emotion regulation strategies.

Investigations of changes in felt emotions across the life span (Carstensen & Charles, 1994) generally show a linear relationship between emotion salience and age. Life span approaches to emotion (Carstensen, 1992; Labouvie-Vief, Hakim-Larson, DeVoe, & Schoeberlin, 1989) posit that reorganisation of affect and cognition represents a central life task in adulthood, such that older adults are superior to younger adults in understanding emotional states and emotion regulation. In particular, older adults employ more mature use of emotion-focused coping strategies, make less frequent use of blame-oriented strategies, and engage in less frequent expressions of hostility than younger adults do (Blanchard-Fields & Irion, 1988). Diehl, Coyle, and Labouvie-Vief (1996) posit that the hallmark of developmentally mature adults' coping strategies is the absence of impulsive and outwardly aggressive reactions and the presence of strategies that involve impulse control, acceptance, and cognitive reassessment. In contrast, adolescents and young adults use strategies that are outwardly aggressive and psychologically undifferentiated, including lower levels of impulse control and self-awareness. These two modes of emotional self-regulation as a function of developmental maturity are characterised as relating to (1) intuition, subjectivity, and emotionality (younger adults) and (2) rational, objective, logical strategies (older adults).

Aging theory and research suggest that intra-individual differences in age-associated motives play an important role in the elicitation of emotions at work and their regulation. In contrast to young adults, middle-aged and older adult employees are likely to show a different pattern of emotional sensitivity to the workplace and to employ a different pattern of emotion regulation strategies to address emotion-related issues. In particular, the literature suggests that older employees may employ antecedent-focused, situation-oriented strategies in contexts that trigger emotions related to self-esteem and self-concept but response-focused, self-oriented strategies in contexts that trigger non-self-related emotions such as anger. Younger workers, by contrast, may experience different emotional responses to workplace change and are more likely to regard the change as a challenge and opportunity for growth (Blanchard-Fields, 1996; Heckhausen, 2000; McConatha & Huba, 1999). Developmental shifts in the goal of social interactions produce age-related differences in how individuals respond to social-emotional events. Drawing on notions set forth by socio-emotional selectivity theory, Carstensen's (1992,1998) theory suggests that strategy use changes with age, with younger adults tending to aim for changing the environment and older adults using internal and cognitively focused strategies with the aim of regulating their interpretation of events and internal reactions.

4.4 THEORETICAL INTEGRATION

Research in the cognitive tradition clearly puts to rest the old distinctions between cognition and emotion. Cognitive processes both drive emotional responses and are themselves part of the response constellation. Research on the cognitive outcomes of affective states also indicates the complexity of outcome processes, a complexity that makes discussions of performance effects challenging (Weiss, 2002). Emotions occur in context, and the relevant context establishes the intensity of emotions and the time parameters in which events and processes must occur in order to have meaning. The intensity and time parameters encourage or limit the manner in which emotions can be perceived and regulated. According to Lord and Harvey (2002), there is a continual interplay between cognitions and emotions, and the causal arrow between emotions and cognitions can go in either direction. As such stimuli, cognitions, emotions, and behaviour should be viewed as involving the continual interactions of various systems (perceptual, cognitive, emotional, and behavioural systems) and one should search for principles that help one understand the functioning and interrelation of such systems.

The existence of individual differences in emotion, especially in terms of broad personality type preferences and self-esteem dimensions, is relevant to this research. An important question concerns where these individual differences come from and what their nature is. By integrating the various principles provided by the social cognitive theories of and meta-cognitive approaches to the interactive nature of cognition, affect, social learning and environment with behaviour, it is possible to construct a theoretical framework which provides a simple but heuristically useful way to think about the origin and nature of individual differences in emotion.

This view of individual differences can be expressed using the cognitive-affective personality system framework suggested by Mischel and Shoda (1995, 1999), which is presented in Figure 4.9. The cognitive-affective personality system framework is useful because it cleaves an emotional response into two component sub-processes, namely the environment/situation-input side and the emotional response-output side. In terms of trait emotion, individuals may differ from each other because of differences in cognitive-affective units which contribute to specific behaviour as they interact with stable personality traits and a receptive environment. The most important

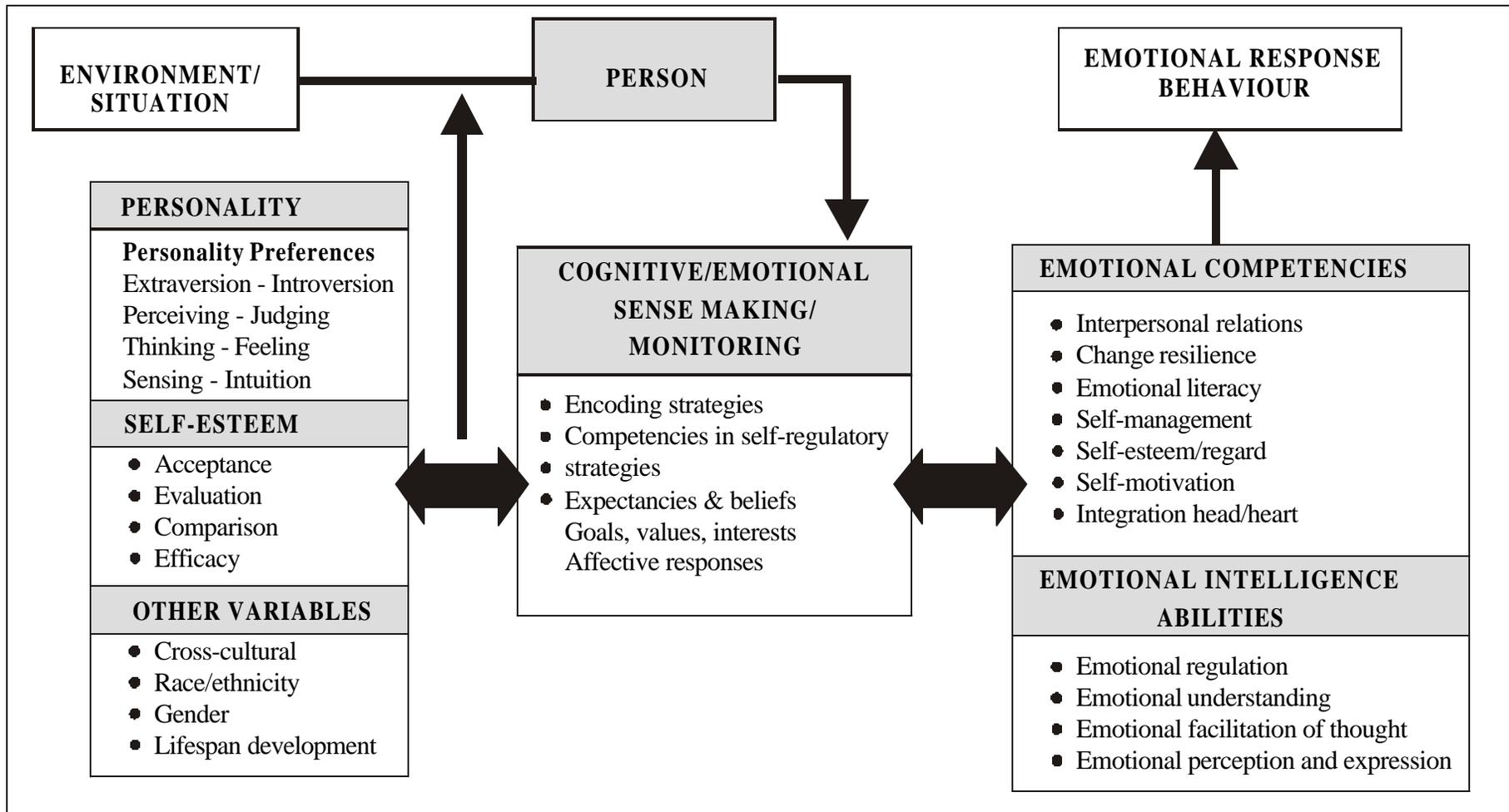


Figure 4.9: Cognitive-affective personality and dynamic self-regulation system (based on the theory of Mischel, 1995; and Worline et al. 2002)

of these variables include encoding strategies, or how individuals construe or categorise an event; competencies and self-regulating strategies, that is, what individuals can do and their strategies and plans to accomplish a desired behaviour; behaviour-outcome and stimulus outcome expectancies and beliefs regarding a particular situation; subjective goals, values, and preferences that partially determine selective attention to events; and affective responses, including feelings and emotions as well as the effects that accompany physiological reactions.

In terms of the dynamic self-regulation system proposed by Worline et al. (2002), emotional competence can be viewed as a socially embedded emotion-related mental construct that involves multi-faceted emotional experience along with certain kinds of self-reflective cognitive judgments and response behaviours which mutually constitute work performance. Emotional competence implies a sense of situated embedded agency, that is, people use their emotional and cognitive presence to monitor the social world and engage in competent behaviour in organisations. People navigate their behaviour within institutional norms and routines and use their discretion to make a difference in collective outcomes (Creed & Scully, 2001; Worline et al., 2002). According to this explanation of emotional competence, people must have a disposition to act emotionally competently; in other words, individuals will differ in terms of how they regulate their emotions, cognitions, and actions to enhance their agency in their work roles.

For industrial and organisational psychologists interested in emotional response behaviour such as emotional intelligence and emotional competence, Mischel and Shoda's (1995, 1999) suggested framework, complemented by the model of dynamic self-regulation of Worline et al. (2002), can be heuristically as well as practically useful. The cognitive-affective personality and dynamic self-regulation system framework suggested in Figure 4.9 allows the industrial and organisational psychologist to think separately about which factors make a person vulnerable to specific emotions and the processes whereby such vulnerability is created (such as attention to emotion cues in the environment), on the one hand, and, on the other, about the emotional and cognitive processes whereby some people come to control or self-regulate their emotions.

4.4.1 Individual differences regarding environmental/situational stimuli: the input side

The existence of individual differences in emotional responses, especially in terms of broad personality type preferences and self-esteem dimensions, is relevant to this research. An important question concerns where these individual differences come from and what their nature is. According to Mischel and Shoda (1995; 1999), a specific situation interacts with the person's competencies, interests, goals, values, expectancies, personality traits and predict behaviour. Events that appear the same may produce widely different reactions because personal qualities override situational ones. Furthermore, affective responses are inseparable from cognitive processes, and they also influence each of the cognitive-affective units. For example, the encoding of a person's view of self includes certain positive and negative feelings. Similarly, people's competencies and self-regulatory strategies, their beliefs and expectancies, and their goals and values are all coloured by their affective responses. Larsen (2000) demonstrates how attention to emotion differs greatly between people and that such individual differences can be used to test the predictions about affect and information processing. Assumptions about processes underlying affective reactions can be tested with personality variables when those underlying processes are known to exhibit individual differences. In such cases, the individual difference variable may moderate the relation between variables involved in the process, such as emotion and judgment. Both the situation and the various cognitive-affective components of personality play a role in determining behaviour. Personality may have temporal stability and behaviours may vary from situation to situation. Prediction of behaviour rests on a knowledge of how and when various cognitive-affective units are activated (Mischel & Shoda, 1999). Cross-cultural variables, race/ethnicity, gender and lifespan development changes will also interact with the cognitive-affective personality system to predict specific emotional responses in individuals.

4.4.2 Individual differences in emotional response modulation: the output side

According to Larsen et al. (2002), the regulation of emotions (the output side) provides for more flexibility with regards to learning and training. People may be able to change or adapt to new ways of regulating their emotional responses. These abilities are referred to as emotional intelligence. Viewed as a general ability, emotional intelligence focuses on how people become aware of and effectively

modulate their own emotions and the emotions of others. Emotional competence, on the other hand, refers to an understanding of one's own and others' emotions, the tendency to display emotion in a situationally and culturally appropriate manner, and the ability to inhibit or modulate experienced and expressed emotion and emotionally derived behaviour as needed to achieve goals in a socially acceptable manner. In organisational contexts, emotional competence is reflected in understanding the emotional culture and climate associated with one's work role and organisation; accurately appraising one's own emotions and being able and willing to regulate them and their expression, as necessary, for personal and organisational goals; and accurately appraising the emotions of super-ordinates, coworkers, clients, and others and being able and willing to respond appropriately for others', personal, and organisational goals.

The defined conceptualisation of emotional competence implies that competence, which refers to knowledge, skills, values, and attributes, is distinguished from abilities. Emotional competence is the socially embedded component unit of the emotional intelligence response repertoire that constitutes the self-reflective emotional and cognitive response capability of a person. Emotional competence is the observed variables, and emotional intelligence abilities, the reference dimensions with which the skills underlying emotional competence may be described more parsimoniously. Having a particular emotional competency implies having the requisite emotional intelligence abilities; however, having the requisite emotional intelligence abilities does not necessarily imply having the particular emotional competency. People with the same emotional intelligence abilities may not have the same emotional competencies if their experience and learning are different (Dawis, 1994). However, emotional intelligence abilities can be used to predict the level on a particular emotional competency that a person can attain if given the opportunity to learn the competency. Finally, according to the model in Figure 4.9, emotional intelligence and emotional competence refer to those characteristics that influence the emotional response or output side of the person-environment/situation equation.

4.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR LEADER DEVELOPMENT

George (2000) suggests that emotional intelligence, and the subsequent development of emotional competencies, plays an important role in leader effectiveness. George (2000) furthermore proposes that the ability to understand and manage moods and emotions in oneself and others theoretically contributes to the effectiveness of leaders. George (2000) argues that emotional intelligence enhances leaders' ability to solve problems and to address issues and opportunities facing them and their organisations. Specifically George (2000) proposes that leaders high on emotional intelligence will be able to use positive emotions to envision major improvements to the functioning of an organisation. A leader high on emotional intelligence is able to accurately appraise how their followers feel and use this information to influence their subordinates' emotions, so that they are receptive and supportive of the goals and objectives of the organisation. Leaders within this conceptualisation are able to improve decision making via their knowledge and emotional competence, and those who are able to accurately recognise emotions are more able to determine whether the emotion is linked to opportunities or problems and thus use those emotions in the process of decision making (Schwarz, 1990).

According to Gardner and Stough (2002) and George (2000), the majority of research has yet to identify the role emotions play in leadership. Gardner and Stough (2002) argue that the ability to recognise emotions within oneself and to express those feelings to others is important for leaders in enabling them to take advantage of and use their positive emotions to facilitate organisational performance and also to evaluate the relevance of their own emotions in workplace settings. The extent to which leaders use emotions in order to direct cognition is important in the workplace, with leaders making decisions based on emotional information being more able to effectively and efficiently make decisions. In this context different emotions can serve as important information to use in prioritising demands and solving problems. The ability to identify and understand the emotions of others in the workplace is important for leaders, so that they can influence the feelings of subordinates to maintain enthusiasm and productivity. Leaders need to be able to accurately identify subordinates' emotions in order to distinguish between the emotions they are experiencing and those they are expressing. Emotional management is useful for leaders to be able to manage positive and negative emotions in themselves and subordinates in order to maintain organisational effectiveness. Finally, the ability to

control (regulate) emotions experienced at work is crucial to instill feelings of security, trust and satisfaction and thus to maintain an effective team.

Furthermore, in recent years leader roles have changed considerably, largely because the organisational, economic and technological context in which it is conducted has changed beyond recognition. Organisations have been delayed; new work organisation concepts have been developed; the scale of IT-enabled home-based working has increased; the variety of communication channels that managers have to cope with has increased; social interaction in multicultural work environment and team based organisation of work has increased; and globalisation has created a more competitive environment where businesses have had to become leaner, more flexible and adaptable. As a result the skills and capabilities that managers need to be effective have changed radically (Worrall & Cooper, 2001). These contemporary leadership requirements have led to research exploring the underlying attributes and behaviours of leaders who successfully perform these contemporary leader roles in order to identify leadership selection and training criteria for the recruitment and development of effective leaders (Church & Waclawski, 1998; Pratch & Jacobowitz, 1998; Ross & Offerman, 1997; Sternberg, 1997).

Technological, demographic, economic, and workplace design trends have led to a new conceptualisation of human capital that emphasises the employee's affective response tendencies and regulatory skills in the context of training, organisational socialisation, teamwork, leadership, and organisational change. Talent in the expression and regulation of affect is explicitly sought for in an ever widening range of jobs, from operational to executive level positions. Retrospective accounts of spectacular organisational successes and failures frequently allude to the role of employee affect and the effectiveness of the leadership in the use of affect to enhance employee commitment and work motivation. In short, affective processes are recognised as a major influence on the dynamics of organisational effectiveness (Kanfer & Klimoski, 2002).

4.6 IMPLICATIONS FOR INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Recent changes in political and economic conditions suggest that future organisational concerns about the determinants and consequences of leadership, team effectiveness and the quality of social interactions in a multicultural environment will continue to grow. Advances in knowledge about affective processes have enhanced the industrial and organisational psychologist's capabilities and understanding of affect in the workplace, and shifting organisational priorities provide the motivation for applying this knowledge to the workplace in new ways. The industrial and organisational psychologist's continued positive emotionality about the field will, however, depend critically on the extent to which research yields new knowledge and fosters the development of practical procedures that significantly enhance individual well-being and organisational productivity.

Among the many reasons to be interested in human emotions in the workplace, foremost is that as applied scientists, one of the aspirations of the industrial & organisational psychologist is to increase human well being. Rather than being objective, well being is subjectively defined by people in terms of their affective reactions to organisational events. Consequently, if the industrial and organisational psychologist can find ways to alter organisational practices, social processes, or task designs in ways that increase positive emotions and reduce negative emotions, the well being of organisational members is directly increased (Lord & Kanfer, 2002). Emotions are also central components of human reactions to many types of stimuli. Hence, they can directly cue specific behaviours, as well as indirectly influence behaviour by their effect on physiological, cognitive, or social processes. For these reasons, attempts to change behaviours in organisations to more effective patterns may also require changing emotions, as is often the case with organisational interventions (Lord & Kanfer, 2002).

Emotions play an integral role in motivation. Individual differences in emotional tendencies interact with organisational events and social interactions to yield emotional reactions that significantly shape an individual's goals and the persistence of effort in the face of obstacles. The influence of emotional reactions to organisational events, such as downsizing or the implementation of change, may

seriously weaken personal commitment to organisationally desired goals and, in turn, job performance.

Emotional intelligence is increasingly being recognised as an important issue in the workplace for the following main reasons:

- Research has shown that for star performance in every field, emotional intelligence is twice as important as cognitive abilities. For success at high levels, close to ninety per cent of success is attributable to emotional intelligence (Chen, Jacobs, & Spencer, 1998).
- Studies conducted by Goleman (1998) indicated that sixty-seven percent of the abilities considered essential for effective performance were emotional competencies.
- Companies and individuals are becoming more interested in their search for competitive advantage and recognise the need to balance rational and emotional aspects of strategy.
- A major drive of interest has been the failure of IQ alone to account sufficiently for differences in success levels of individuals, both in educational and organisational contexts.
- Across all categories of jobs and in all kinds of organisations, emotional intelligence matters in staff turnover, sales, and productivity. Division leaders selected on the basis of emotional competence outperformed their targets by fifteen to twenty percent (McClelland, 1999).
- Leaders and employees selected on the basis of emotional competence have sixty-three percent less turnover during the first year than those selected in the typical way (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Spencer, McClelland, & Kelner, 1997).
- After supervisors in a manufacturing plant received training in emotional competencies, lost-time accidents were reduced by fifty percent, formal grievances were reduced from an average of fifteen per year to three per year, and the plant exceeded productivity goals (Pesuric & Byham, 1996). In another manufacturing plant where supervisors received similar training, production increased by seventeen percent (Porras & Anderson, 1981).
- According to Fatt and Howe (2003), managers should perform emotional intelligence tests on individuals to evaluate their competencies before hiring them and consider the contributions of emotional intelligence as an important factor in staff development.

- Companies should allow their employees to undergo some kind of social and emotional learning programmes which provide systematic instruction to enhance their capabilities to recognise and manage their emotions, empathise with others, make responsible decisions, and use a variety of interpersonal skills to effectively handle tasks and relationships (Fatt & Howe, 2003). Companies may wish to encourage especially older employees to participate in such a programme by emphasising that it is to enhance employees' self-development and their roles in sustaining and improving the well-being of the company.
- Companies should launch programmes to help managers develop greater awareness of their own emotional reactions and those of their clients and employees, and to more fully appreciate the role of emotions in the workplace.
- A person's level of emotional intelligence is not fixed genetically and can be improved. Employees and leaders can learn about emotional intelligence to increase their success in their working life. People can start by being aware of their own emotions, and how their emotions impact on their interactions with others, which can have positive implications for the company.
- Competencies in emotional and cross-cultural management are crucial for organisations to understand how to serve and to retain a customer base that is more diverse and demanding than in years past (Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Daus, 2003).
- Technological changes heighten interaction between individuals in terms of time, intensity, and emotions (Ashkanasy, et al., 2003).
- Management practices that encourage innovation and a high performance and learning culture that embraces all workers are essential as organisational viability depends more and more on the knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes of employees. Diversity and emotional management can potentially contribute to such goals (Ashkanasy, et al., 2003).

In conclusion, industrial and organisational psychologists should take cognisance of the role of emotional intelligence and emotional competence in leader and employee performance, productivity, social adjustment and quality of social interactions. Measures of individuals' emotional competence should be an important aspect of organisational practices such as screening and selection; socialisation; team development; employee wellness programmes; culture and climate surveys; change

management programmes; leader development programmes and performance management.

4.7 EVALUATION

This chapter developed the theoretical basis for understanding the constructs emotion, emotion regulation, emotional intelligence and emotional competence. Emotion is a broad topic, and it can be studied from many different perspectives. It is clear that the nature of affective experiences is wide ranging and organisational researchers need to widen their activities to capture the way emotions are actually experienced in work settings, as dimensional summaries may hide meaningful differences in emotional experiences. In spite of the resurgence of interest in mood and emotions at work, the organisational literature has not begun to tap into the full body of research on affect, emotional intelligence and its relation to emotional competence (Lord & Kanfer, 2002).

Rigorous studies on emotional intelligence and emotional competence are lacking (Keenoy, Oswick, & Grant, 2003; Rahim & Minors, 2003). There is inadequate information on the reliability and construct validity of the existing self-report measures on the construct emotional intelligence. Little research has been conducted in an organisational context and existing research has been largely drawn from physiological research developments, education-based research and developments in the therapy field (Damasio, 1994; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; Goleman, 1996; Steiner, 1997). According to Dulewicz and Higgs (2000), Gardner and Stough (2002), and Rahim and Minors (2003), findings from these studies may not be generalisable in populations of organisation members. Davis, Stankov, and Roberts (1998) argue that the measurement of the construct emotional intelligence still requires significant improvement. As presently postulated, little remains of emotional intelligence that is unique and psychometrically sound. Questionnaire measures are too closely related to established personality traits, whereas objective measures of emotional intelligence suffer from poor reliability.

Furthermore, the constructs emotional intelligence and emotional competence have no clear definition, nor has consensus been reached on the breadth of the concepts and what they should include. Keenoy, et al. (2003) argue that the conceptualisation of emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997), practical intelligence (Sternberg

& Wagner, 1993) and social intelligence (Ford & Tisak, 1983; Gardner, 1993), and thus by implication emotional competence (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001) is problematic. In their view, the concept emotional intelligence can still be seen as general intelligence directed at emotional phenomena and need not be treated as a separate entity. In studying the structure of intelligence, Spearman (1923) and Wechsler (1939) concluded that while there may certain be human abilities or intelligences, these abilities are part of or determined by general intelligence. Contemporary analysis appears to support these insights. Carroll (1993), in factor analyses of nearly all the relevant data collected during the twentieth century, found no broad mental ability that is independent of general intelligence.

Fineman (2000) argues that the literature on emotional intelligence indicates that emotional intelligence involves processes of thinking and judgment that are targeted and refocused on emotions to enhance control of self and others. According to Fineman (2000), emotional intelligence formulations lack a way of grasping the psychoanalytical reality that individuals very often do not know what emotions are impelling them (that is, why they are doing what they are doing) because of the variety of defensive, displacement and screening processes that may be related to aspects of self-esteem and personality preferences, which add complexity and richness to emotional life. From this perspective many of people's emotions defy conscious control and regulation.

Furthermore, because of the recency of the concepts, research is currently in the midst of empirical and theoretical debate about the dimensions and competencies comprising the construct emotional intelligence and how it relates to the construct emotional competence (Ashkanasy, et al., 2003; Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000). Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Härtel (2002) argue that the unity of the construct emotional intelligence remains an unresolved issue. Indirectly, this concern applies to the construct emotional competence due to the lack of data supporting the dimensional components. Larsen, Diener, and Lucas (2002) argue that although the findings on emotion and emotional intelligence are not as well organised or interrelated as in the area of cognition, there are nevertheless issues and measures in the emotion domain on which there is consensus. It seems however that many research areas in Industrial and Organisational Psychology would benefit from a consideration of the role of emotion, emotional intelligence and emotional competence in an organisational context.

Research conducted by Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) concluded that there is evidence for the claims made for emotional intelligence for predicting organisational advancement. Their studies supported the proposition that the combination of emotional intelligence and general intelligence is a more powerful predictor of success than either measure alone. Thus, irrespective of the above-mentioned concerns and limitations regarding the constructs emotional intelligence and emotional competence, Gardner and Stough (2002) point out that research examining the utility of emotional intelligence (and thus by implication emotional competence) in predicting effective leaders is gaining momentum in Industrial and Organisational Psychology (Dulewicz, 2000; George, 2000; Goleman, 1995, 2001; Miller, 1999; Palmer, et al., 2001; Peters, 2003; Sosick & Megerian, 1999; Watkin, 2000; Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). Emotionally intelligent (and emotionally competent) leaders are thought to be happier and more committed to their organisation (Abraham, 2000; Peters, 2003); achieve greater success (Miller, 1999; Wolmarans, 2002); perform better in the workplace (Goleman, 1998; Peters, 2003; Watkin, 2000; Wolmarans, 2000), take advantage of and use positive emotions to envision major improvements in organisational functioning (George, 2000; Peters, 2003), and use emotions to improve their decision making and instill a sense of enthusiasm, trust and co-operation in other employees through interpersonal relationships (George, 2000; Peters, 2003; Wolmarans, 2000).

Finally, the cognitive social learning theories provide a useful framework in viewing people as growth-oriented, cognitive-affective beings. The cognitive social learning theories and meta-cognitive theories have generated significant research. However, Mischel's theory on the cognitive-affective personality system has generated somewhat less research, but that research is more relevant to their core ideas (Feist & Feist, 2002). The empirical nature of Mischel's research exposes the theory to possible falsification and verification. Nevertheless, the theory cannot be easily falsified (Feist & Feist, 2002). According to Feist and Feist (2002), Mischel's theory rates above average on the criterion of organising knowledge. They have continued to broaden the scope of their theory to include both personal dispositions and dynamic cognitive-affective units that are able to predict and explain behaviour. Mischel has evolved a theory from solid research, a procedure that greatly facilitates internal consistency. The theory is also parsimonious, it is relatively simple and does not purport to offer explanations for all human personality. The emphasis on research

rather than philosophical speculation has contributed to the parsimony of the theory (Feist & Feist, 2002).

4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 4 had as its aim to conceptualise the construct emotional competence by means of a comparative examination of the basic literature and research on emotion, emotional intelligence and emotional competence. An integrated model of emotional competence from the perspective of the cognitive social learning theories was proposed to enable the researcher to explain the theoretical relationship between the variables personality preferences, self-esteem and emotional competence. The theoretical research implications for leader development and the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology were discussed. Finally, the limitations of the theory presented were highlighted.

The first research aim has now been achieved, namely to conceptualise the constructs personality preferences, self-esteem, and emotional competence from a theoretical perspective. Chapter 2 provided a theoretical conceptualisation of the construct personality preferences, whereas chapter 3 clarified the construct self-esteem from a theoretical perspective. The second aim of this research, namely to conceptualise the relationship between personality preferences, self-esteem and emotional competence by means of an integrated model which proposes the theoretical relationship between the three constructs, will be addressed in the theoretical integration that follows on the next page.

Chapter 5 discusses the empirical study, starting with the determination and description of the sample population and ending with the formulation of the research hypotheses.

