# Yong EQ Inventory :

# Norms & Technical Manual

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## 1.0    Introduction

It has been generally agreed that the term emotional intelligence was first coined in 1990 by Peter Salovey and J.D. Mayer, although the issue of non-cognitive or social intelligences has been addressed by previous researchers as early as 1940 (Harmon, 2000). In his book on multiple intelligences, Gardner (1993) refers to the "personal intelligences" as one subgroup of intelligences. Personal intelligences include inner-directed, intrapersonal knowledge, which allows one to detect and to symbolize complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings; and outer-directed, interpersonal knowledge, which is the ability to notice and make distinctions among the moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions of others.

The concept of emotional intelligence is an umbrella term that covers a wide-ranging group of individual abilities and temperaments usually referred to as soft skills. These are outside the traditional area of specific knowledge, general intelligence, and technical or professional skills. According to Mayer and Salovey (1993), to some extent, emotional intelligence probably overlaps with general intelligence. The emotionally intelligent person is able to think more creatively and use his emotions to solve problems.

It is crucial to understand that emotional intelligence is not the opposite of intelligence, it is not the triumph of heart over head, instead, it is the unique connection of both. Emotional intelligence combines affect with emotion, and emotion with intelligence. Emotional intelligence does not and should not be thought of as a replacement or substitute for ability, knowledge or job skills. Emotional intelligence enhances workplace outcomes but does not guarantee it in the absence of suitable skills. Applications of emotional intelligence in the workplace include:

- Career development. People who have an aptitude for understanding people and themselves may perhaps consider a people-oriented career such as those in the customer service field.

- Management development. Managers who focus on their technical skills do not manage, they are just in charge. Understanding and increasing emotional intelligence may improve certain management skills and styles.

- Effective teamwork. Emotional intelligence contributes to high group morale, motivation, and improved conflict management.

## 1.1 Salovey and Mayer's Theory of Emotional Intelligence

Peter Salovey and John Mayer view emotional intelligence as, a set of skills hypothesized to contribute to the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself and others, the effective regulation of emotion in self and others, and the use of feelings to motivate, plan, and achieve in one's life (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Their current writing on emotional intelligence

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emphasizes four cognitive components: the capacity to perceive emotion, to integrate it in thought, to understand emotion, and to manage emotion (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Their work subsumes Gardner's (1983) intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences and in many ways is consistent with earlier research on social intelligence (Ford & Tisak, 1983). Salovey and Mayer contend that it is not problematic to view emotional intelligence as a legitimate type of intelligence, and acknowledge that neither their theory of emotional intelligence nor research necessarily supports the g model of intelligence. The g-factor (general intelligence) represents the dominant proportion of individual intelligence, and is manifested in one's ability to perceive the strength of relationships and to, where appropriate, spot causal connections between ideas or events.

### 1.2 Goleman's Theory of Emotional Intelligence

The publication of Daniel Goleman's (1995) best selling book, Emotional Intelligence, made popular the notion that emotions are a valid domain of intelligence. He defines emotional intelligence as, being able to rein in emotional impulse; to read another's innermost feelings; to handle relationships smoothly. Goleman (1995, p. 28) argues,

> In a sense we have two brains, two minds - and two
> different kinds of intelligence: rational and emotional.
> How we do in life is determined by both...ordinarily
> the complementarity of limbic system and neocortex,
> amygdala and prefrontal lobes, means each is a full
> partner in mental life.

Goleman's (1995, 1998) thesis is that the balance and management of our emotions determines how intelligently we will act and our ultimate success in life. Goleman's (1995) model of emotional intelligence is extensive. He hypothesizes that a large number of human abilities fall within the emotional intelligence construct, including: frustration tolerance, delay of gratification, motivation, zeal, persistence, impulse control, regulation of mood, ability to empathize, attunement to others, hopefulness, and optimism. Goleman (1995) defines emotions as impulses to act (p. 6). He points out that, although there is no consensus on which human emotions are primary, the main candidates are anger, sadness, fear and enjoyment.

## 1.3    Emotional Intelligence and Gender

Research concerning gender differences in emotional intelligence has found that in terms of total emotional intelligence, men and women do not seem to differ. Due to the perception that emotional intelligence is a "soft" skill (skills relating to people issues) which involves emotions, some may believe women are more emotionally intelligent than men.

According to Simmons (2001), women are not more emotionally intelligent than men. Instead, they are emotionally intelligent in different ways.  Simmons (2001) further states that analysis of emotional intelligence in thousands of men and women have shown that women on average, possess more self-awareness of their emotions, demonstrate more empathy, and display more interpersonal skills.

On the other hand, men are found to be more self-confident, optimistic, adaptable and manage stress better. In general, men and women share more similarities than differences in terms of emotional intelligence. As Simmons (2001) puts it, "Some men are as empathetic as the most interpersonally sensible women are, while some women are just as able to withstand stress as the most emotionally resilient men."

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Other studies have also found evidence that men and women may differ on specific competencies. In a study by Bar-On (2000), analysis of the emotional intelligence scores of over 7,700 people revealed that while men and women did not differ on total emotional intelligence, men scored higher on Self-Actualization, Assertiveness, Stress Tolerance, Impulse Control, and Adaptability, while women scored significantly higher on Empathy, Interpersonal Relationships, and Social Responsibility.

It can be suggested that when the overall ratings for men and women are taken account of in total, the strengths and weaknesses average out, resulting in a similar level of emotional intelligence for both genders. In conclusion, from the review of the research on gender differences in emotional intelligence, women and men are equally as intelligent emotionally, but they are strong in different areas.

## 1.4    Measuring Emotional Intelligence

There is presently no evidence of a widely accepted measure of emotional intelligence. However, there are one dozen or more self-report instruments that purport to measure it, and a smaller number of emotional intelligence measures that are not in a self-report format.

Salovey and Mayer's work has incorporated a variety of self-report measures that purport to measure EI. They use tests developed by them and

instruments borrowed from other researchers, such as the BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On, 1996; Bar-On & Parker, 2000); The Style on the Perception of Affect Scale (Bernet, 1996); The Toronto Alexithymia Scale (Taylor, Ryan & Bagby, 1985); The Emotional Control Questionnaire (Roger & Najarian, 1989). Below is a description of three emotional intelligence measures, one developed by Bar-On (Bar-On & Parker, 2000) and two measures developed by Salovey and Mayer.

The BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version (Bar-On & Parker, 2000) is a 60-item self-report instrument designed to measure emotional intelligence in young people ages seven to eighteen years. The authors define emotional intelligence as, abilities related to understanding oneself and others, relating to people, adapting to changing environmental demands, and managing emotions. Employing a 4-point Likert style format (very seldom true of me, seldom true, often true and very true), items invite self-appraisals about having fun, ease at telling others how you feel or talking about deep feelings, the importance of having friends, and knowledge about how other people are feeling.

The Trait Meta-Mood Scale (Salovey, *et al.*, 1995) is a 30-item self-report scale that measures attention to, and clarity of feelings, and mood repair - aspects of emotional intelligence, according to the authors. Subjects rate on a 5-point Likert scale the extent to which they agree with items such as:

"When I become upset, I remind myself of all the pleasures in life"

"I almost always know exactly how I am feeling"

In contrast to the two self-report measures above, The Emotion Perception Tests (Mayer, et al., 1990) is one of the few emotional intelligence tests that is not a self-report inventory. It purports to measure emotional perception in colors, musical vignettes, sound intervals, and faces. Subjects are presented with various stimuli (visual images, musical excerpts, etc.) and asked to rate, again on a 5-point scale, their experience of the amount of emotion present in each stimuli, across six different emotion scales. The six emotion scales are happiness, sadness, anger, fear, surprise, and disgust (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998).

Another measuring instrument is the Yong EQ Inventory. The Yong EQ Inventory was designed by Yong (2002) and has been used in Malaysia among Malaysian managers..

## 2.0 The Yong EQ Inventory

The Yong EQ Inventory is a self-report questionnaire comprising 28 items which measures seven dimensions of emotional intelligence. It employs a 5-point Likert style format (disagree strongly, disagree a little, neither agree nor disagree, agree a little, agree strongly). The seven emotional intelligence dimensions measured by the Yong EQ Inventory are:

1. Intrapersonal skills
2. Interpersonal skills
3. Assertiveness
4. Contentment in life
5. Resilience
6. Self-esteem
7. Self-actualization

These seven dimensions were chosen based on an exhaustive review of literature on the concept of EQ as well as the inventories (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Salovey, *et al.*, 1995; ) which have been researched to a reasonable extent. The literature on the current understanding of EQ seem to indicate these seven dimensions as the common factors influencing the emotional intelligence of an individual. These dimensions will be described in the following section.

Intrapersonal personal skills include skills such as the ability to form an accurate, realistic model of oneself, and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life.  Inter-Personal Skills, on the other hand, include skills such as the ability to understand other people; what motivates them, how they work, how to work cooperatively with them.

Assertiveness is the third dimension. It gives an estimate of the individual's ability to express needs, opinions, feelings and beliefs in direct, honest and appropriate ways. The fourth dimension, Contentment in Life has to do with the individual's satisfaction and happiness with life.

The fifth dimension of Resilience indicates the individual's ability to bounce back after disappointment; learn from failures and move on, persevere in the face of adversity. An individual's Self-Esteem represents the sixth dimension of EQ. Self-esteem yields the individual's sense of worth, confidence and self-respect. An individuall with high self-esteem is deemed to have a favourable opinion of oneself. The seventh dimension, Self-Actualization, measures the individual's achievement of personal potential; the degree to which an individual believes they have realized their full potential.

Based on the respondent's self-report on these seven dimensions, the Yong EQ yields a score for the individual's EQ.

## 2.1    Validity of the Yong EQ Inventory

Validity is concerned with the goodness of the data. An instrument is considered to be valid if it measures what it purports to measure. There are generally three types of validity for an instrument. These are Face Validity, Criterion Validity and Construct Validity. Face validity refers to the decision whether the items composing the instrument are plausible and appear to make a logical sense that these items do measure what the instrument purport to measure.   The face validity for the Yong EQ Inventory was established by consulting 3 Human Resource Practitioners and asking them to give their judgment as to whether the Inventory does measure what it purports to measure. All three of them were of the opinion that the Inventory dimensions yield valid measures of what has been operationalized in the instrument.

Criterion Validity is made up of two types, concurrent validity and predictive validity. Predictive validity refers to future events which are predicted based on the results of the measurement, e.g. the Malaysian Form Five National Exam (SPM) results for an individual may have some predictive validity in predicting his subsequent academic achievement at university.   Concurrent validity refers to the existence of a significant correlation of the instrument with a similar instrument already existing and having widespread acceptance. Concurrent validity is thus an important aspect of the instrumentation. In subsequent updates of this norms and technical manual concurrent validation studies will be established.

The third type of validity is Construct Validity which refers to the relationship between variables linked to the ones measured. Construct Validity exists when the components of the construct being measured are shown to exist. Construct validity gives great confidence to the instruments but requires further research. In future updates of this Manual, construct validation studies will be reported.

## 2.2 Reliability of the Yong EQ Inventory

Reliability refers to the consistency and stability of a measure over time, yielding the same results when applied to the same person at different times. There are two types of reliability, namely test-retest reliability to establish the stability of the instrument and internal consistency reliability which refers to the homogeneity of the items measuring the same dimension in the instrument. It is generally more problematic to obtain test-retest reliability as this involves requiring the participants to do the test twice.

The most common method of establishing internal consistency reliability of the instrument is to use the Alpha Cronbach coefficient of internal consistency. The Alpha Cronbach coefficient will be established for each of the seven dimensions of the Yong EQ Inventory.

## 3.0    The Importance of Emotional Intelligence to Managers

Low emotional intelligence brings a host of negative emotions, like self-pity, fear, and aggression. These consume a great deal of energy, lowers self-esteem, leads to absenteeism, indifference, and are an effective block to team work. There are insensitive managers who try to run over the people they manage. They think that steady criticism, backed by a loud voice and threats, will motivate staff to perform better. Undoubtedly, this is not emotionally intelligent behaviour.

A manager may behave in an unpleasant manner because of similar feelings caused by negative past experiences or they have a misconception of how a boss should behave. The negative behaviour evokes bad reactions in the staff, which in turn evokes bad behaviour. According to Bagshaw (2000), once emotionally unintelligent behaviour starts, it creates a downward spiral of low morale, avoidance, and negative politics.

Fineman (1997) argues that managerial learning is emotional and that the traditional cognitive approach to management has ignored the presence and role of emotion. This may be a causal factor in the frequent dysfunctionalities of the managerial learning process (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000). Other researchers and authors have also explored the role of emotional rather than rational behaviours in relation to managerial performance, and urge managers and organisations to pay attention to the emotional components in relation to performance (Kolb *et al.*, 1994).

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Emotions have an important part to play at the workplace. Clearly, emotional intelligence is an asset. There is growing research evidence that EQ helps organizations to improve employees' performance. Based on his review of a number of research studies, Cherniss (2000) suggests that emotional intelligence contributes immensely to an organization's performance. He summarized the following benefits from high EQ practices.

Firstly, division leaders outperformed their targets by 15 % to 20%. McClelland (1999) reports that division leaders with emotional competencies such as initiative, self-confidence, and leadership outperformed their targets by 15 to 20 percent. Individuals who lacked these competencies under-performed by almost 20%.

Secondly, accurate self-assessment leads to superior performance in managers. A study by Boyatzis (1982) indicates that accurate self-assessment, an important emotional competency, was associated with superior performance among several hundred managers from 12 different organizations.

Thirdly, the ability to handle stress is linked to success. The ability to handle stress, another emotional competency, was linked to success as a store manager in a retail chain. The most successful store managers were those best able to handle stress (Lusch & Serpkeuci, 1990).

Managers and leaders, in particular, need high emotional intelligence because they represent the organization to the public, they interact with the highest number of people within and outside the organization and they set the

tone for employee morale (Goleman, 1995). Leaders with empathy are able to understand their employees' needs and provide them with constructive feedback according to Goleman, (1995).

Each individual is unique, and there are many possible reasons why a person with poor emotional intelligence skills performs or behaves that way. However, given the right developmental efforts, emotional intelligence can be improved. Managers who are technically adept at their job but who have poor interpersonal skills that de-motivate others may simply not have had opportunities to develop his emotional intelligence skills in earlier years (Harmon, 2000). But if these managers can be made aware of their blind spots and is brought to understand that their deficit is not a fundamental character flaw, chances are they will not be defensive when asked to work toward change.

## 3.1    Relationships between Emotional Intelligence & Personality Styles

According to Goleman, (1995) and Coleman (1998), of the seven essential qualities required by employers, six can be described as functions of emotional intelligence. These he lists as: adaptability and resilience, personal management, motivation and confidence, and interpersonal skills. Based on the literature on personality psychology, Polednik and Greig (2000) noted that these six emotional intelligence areas bear a remarkable resemblance to the Five Factor Model of personality.

This model was first postulated in the 1930's (Thurstone, 1934) and stipulates that individuals are characteristically described by others across five central areas. These five areas were further supported as being the basis of 'public' personality - the way in which we present ourselves to others (Norman, 1963), and again clarified in several meta-analytic studies in the early 1990's (Barrick and Mount, 1991 and Goldberg, 1992). The research strongly indicates, therefore, that personality can be explained along five key characteristics. It is significant that these characteristics - and indeed this theory have endured across many decades. The Five Factor Model is now regarded as the central paradigm for defining and measuring personality in both the US and UK, and is widely represented in both the world of academia and practice.

In the past there has been little agreement about the personality domain. The focus and content of personality tests were driven largely by the particular

theories of personality endorsed by their authors, or were 'rationally' derived to produce scales that appear to have some utility. Where tests have made claims to empirical foundations such as the 16 Personality Factor Test (known widely as the 16PF), these have not achieved general acceptance (Anastasi, 1988). The significance of the Five Factor Model is that it tells us what a personality assessment needs to cover (Polednik and Greig, 2000).

Based on the re-analysis of tens of thousands of test administrations using the most widely respected personality measures, researchers have been able to identify a common factor structure underlying these disparate approaches to personality assessment. This new consensus about the scope and structure of normal personality gives a balanced view of the total picture, rather than an arbitrary selection of traits or a bias towards any one doctrinaire view of personality.

The similarity between theories of emotional intelligence and personality is further supported by Goleman himself. He adds several variables to the original concept of Emotional Intelligence that may be better defined as personality traits and classes the remainder as learned abilities or competencies. In combining his six "construct areas" in this way, using personality and competency descriptions, it looks similar to the five areas presented in the five factor model. The five areas presented in the Five Factor Model (FFM) are similar to Goleman's six areas of Emotional Intelligence as shown in the table below.

**Table 3.1:  The FFM and Goleman's Six Emotional Intelligence Constructs (Polednik & Greig, 2000)**

| Five Factor Model | Goleman's Six Emotional Intelligence Constructs |
|---|---|
| FFM 1 Emotional Stability | Adaptability and Resilience |
| FFM 2 Extraversion | Motivation and Confidence |
| FFM 3 Agreeableness | Interpersonal Skills |
| FFM 4 Conscientiousness | Personal Management |
| FFM Openness | --- |

With reference to Table 3.1 Emotional Stability is represented by Adaptability and Resilience, Extraversion is represented by Motivation and Confidence, Agreeableness by Interpersonal Skills, and Conscientiousness by Personal Management. Openness however is not represented in Goleman's emotional intelligence constructs.

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