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Running head: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EQ AND PERSONALITY

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

CORRELATIONAL STUDY BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCORES AND
SPECIFIC PERSONALITY TRAITS OF PROFESSIONALS WORKING IN THE
NONPROFIT SECTOR IN THE NORTHWEST

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Suzan L. Huntington

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Kent Rhodes, Ph.D. - Dissertation Chairperson

ABSTRACT

Emotional intelligence (EQ) has received much attention as a factor that is potentially useful in understanding and predicting individual performance at work. EQ is defined as the subset of social intelligence involving 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 (Cobb & Mayer, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Thi Lam & Kirby, 2002; Tucker, Sojka, Barone, & McCarthy, 2000). The two nemeses for EQ are general cognitive intelligence (IQ) and personality theory. Abundant research exists regarding the impact IQ has on personal success. Most research concurs; approximately 20% of personal academic and occupational status is merited to IQ (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Through research, it has been determined that EQ stands alone as an intelligence and that personality is separate from the intelligences. Mayor and Salovey (1995) posit that while, emotional intelligence, personality traits and general cognitive intelligence vary from one another, a line can be drawn between all three constructs.

While social scientists and organizational psychologists have validated EQ, additional theories state emotional intelligence is no more than a glorified definition of personality. The purpose of the study was to determine the extent correlations exist, if any, between specific personality traits and emotional intelligence scores as defined by BarOn EQ-i and personality traits as defined by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Specifically, self awareness and social interaction emotional intelligence scores will be correlated with the personality traits associated with how an individual is energized (extraversion and introversion) and how an individual makes decisions (thinking and feeling).

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Chapter 1. Introduction

Background

Over the past several years, the term emotional intelligence has received much attention as a factor that is potentially useful in understanding and predicting individual performance at work. Research of emotional intelligence first appeared in a series of academic articles authored by John D. Mayer and Peter Salovey (1990, 1993, 1995). These publications generated little attention. In 1995, the term emotional intelligence entered the mainstream with Daniel Goleman's 1995 best-seller *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. More recently, *Working with emotional intelligence* (Goleman, 1998), has caught the attention of human resource practitioners.

Emotional Intelligence is a social science and as such is difficult to explain, thus much criticism exists (Montemayor & Spee, 2004). The two nemeses for emotional intelligence are general cognitive intelligence (IQ) and personality theory. Abundant research exists on the impact IQ has on personal success. Research concurs that about 20% of personal academic and occupational success is attributed to IQ (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Psychologists have yet to confirm what predicts the other 80% of success in these areas of life. Thus, another common criticism of emotional intelligence is that once better understood, will show a relationship to more generally accepted measures of personality. Many will argue that emotional intelligence is a glorified and romantic term for personality.

Understanding the concepts of general cognitive intelligence, emotional intelligence and personality will assist in differentiating among the terms. Though when studied at a deeper level, it is proven, emotional intelligence stands alone as an

intelligence. Mayor and Salovey (1995) posit that a line can be drawn between personality traits, emotional intelligence and general cognitive intelligence, but that all three constructs vary from one another.

This variance is important for human resource personnel to understand as many organizations are using personality inventories as a precursor to employment. Many of the organizations using personality inventories are nonprofit organizations as they can not afford to have a high degree of employee turnover. While most businesses would agree, high employee turnover is not productive; nonprofits in particular are sensitive to employee retention as they rely heavily on donor and volunteer relationships to reach their goals.

Statement of Problem

The notion of emotional intelligence rises 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). Emotional intelligence is reported to be distinct from traditional intelligence and related to psychological adaptation, social functioning, information processing, and social regulation (Greenspan, 1990; Menhart, 1999; Pellitteri, 1999; Ryback, 1998). Emotional intelligence complements a traditional view of intelligence by emphasizing emotional, personal and social contributions to intelligent behavior (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1995).

In contrast to a trait (or behavioral preference), theorists view emotional intelligence as a set of abilities, aptitudes or competencies in the conventional sense (Davies, Stankov & Roberts, 1998; Goleman, 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Mayer,

Caruso and Salovey (2000) suggest that emotional intelligence meets traditional criteria for an intelligence, while others reject the notion that emotional intelligence is an ability that is independent from other types of intelligences (Brown & Anthony, 1990; Ford & Tisak, 1983). Davies et al. (1998) argue that emotional intelligence may constitute an ability, but is difficult to operationally measure. Recommendations for future emotional intelligence indicate a need for demonstrated independence from other constructs.

Some researchers believe that data support emotional intelligence as tapping existing, well-established personality trait theories. This represents a significant departure from a paradigm that emotional intelligence can be learned (Artz, 1994; Geery, 1998; Goleman, 1998; Ryback, 1998). The distinction as to whether emotional intelligence is a subset of personality traits, abilities, learned behavior or a combination thereof remains unresolved.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this research is to examine emotional intelligence and its fundamental uses and the correlations between emotional intelligence scores and specific personality traits among leaders of nonprofit organizations. The understanding of the correlations or lack thereof may help to establish appropriate uses for the workplace to implement either emotional intelligence or personality surveys prior to employment.

While emotional intelligence has been validated and is widely accepted by social scientists and organizational psychologists, many argue that emotional intelligence is merely a glorified term to explain personality traits. Only a few empirical studies exist regarding emotional intelligence and personality and the possible connection or lack between the two. It has been suggested, though not substantiated, that emotional

intelligence is necessary for leadership effectiveness when controlling for general IQ and may use the word *intelligence* arbitrarily. It has also been suggested that emotional intelligence is no more than pop-culture and will phase out as general intelligence will lead the ultimate quest in determining success.

If true, emotional intelligence is renounced, thus impeding the work of social scientists and psychologists as a means of improving the work place, personal improvement and team enhancement. The purpose of this research is to determine if there are any correlations between emotional intelligence levels as defined by BarOn EQ-i and personality traits as defined by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Specifically, emotional intelligence scores will be correlated with the personality traits associated with how an individual is energized and how an individual makes decisions.

Significance of Study

Multiple factors comprise individuality. Organizations seek to employ the right fit to the group for numerous reasons, but mainly to meet the bottom line: organizational success. Regardless of organizational sector status, if precursor scans for employment are being implemented than organizations should utilize the most effective tool available to meet their needs. If an organization needs to employ a licensed professional, they use a mandatory licensure exam to seek qualified applicants. If an organization needs to employ an expert in the field they rely on past experience, research and responsibilities of the applicant. If an organization needs to find the right type of person to succeed in a position with certain social responsibilities, the organization should use appropriate inventories to learn if the applicant is a good fit to the position.

Employing the appropriate individual will result in employee longevity, institutional history and understanding, innovative ideas and ultimately success, both for the individual and organization. Currently, there are several means in which an applicant can be screened for employment. Organizations must realize which inventories will reap the greatest value of applicant; specifically when looking for applicants to fill non-certified positions (business management, sales, development, strategic planning, etc.).

The current dissertation will highlight two available inventories that may suit the needs of nonprofit organizations. Currently, many organizations, specifically nonprofit organizations, are utilizing personality inventories as a precursor to employment. The purpose of this study is two fold; first, through the literature review, emotional intelligence and personality will be deeply reviewed, ultimately assisting with the understanding of the two constructs. And second, the research will identify to what extent there is a correlation between the two constructs, if any. If a correlation does not exist then it could be concluded that the inventories used measure different attributes. Should this be the case, along with the information shared in the literature review, organizations may make different screening choices when hiring employees. This may be crucial to nonprofit organizations as they continue to find creative ways to do more with less while serving a needy population that is increasing even though governmental support is decreasing.

Research Questions

This dissertation attempts to answer the following research questions: (a) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and extraversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (b) To what extent, if any is there a

correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and introversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (c) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and extraversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (d) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and introversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (e) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and thinking as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (f) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and feeling as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (g) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and thinking as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (h) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and feeling as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?

Definitions and Key Terms

Leadership

Leadership can be defined in many ways using many different analogies and approaches. According to Northouse (2001), leadership is a “process whereby an individual influences a group to achieve a common goal” (p. 3). Kevin Cashman (2000) believes that leadership is not something that someone does; rather it comes from within and is a process in expressing ones true self. Kouzes and Posner (2002) believe that leadership is a series of relationships and daily practice. Ultimately, leadership is the ability to take a situation or organization from what-is to what-could-be. Meaning, that

leadership is the ability to “guide a group toward the achievement of goals” (Robbins, 2003, p. 314)

Nonprofit Organizations

Nonprofit organizations, sometimes referred to as the independent sector, are a group of businesses that generally provide a public service. The nonprofit organization is designated as tax exempt by the Internal Revenue Service based on its origination filing (www.irs.gov/charities/index.html). Nonprofit organizations confront social problems both nationally and within individual communities. Societal problems are more visible, if not greater, with daily reminders in the media of underprivileged children; lack of education, employment, food and shelter; and medical diseases and research. Nonprofits aid with providing service and tackling issues that for-profit and government agencies are unable to fully solve.

Emotional Intelligence (EQ)

Emotional intelligence is defined as the subset of social intelligence involving 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 (Cobb & Mayer, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Thi Lam & Kirby, 2002; Tucker, Sojka, Barone, & McCarthy, 2000). EQ can be learned and developed throughout life.

General Intelligence (IQ)

It has been stated that individuals are born with a fixed, potential general intelligence (Gardner, 1998). IQ is stated as the ability to acquire basic knowledge and use it in specific situations (Thi Lam & Kirby, 2002). General intelligence includes several related groups of mental abilities including spatial, verbal, and logical

information processes (Mayer et al., 2000). According to research, an individual's IQ level is set by the age of 14.

Andragogy

As defined by Knowles (1973) andragogy is a set of core adult learning principles that can be applied to most learning environments. Knowles (1973) identified six core adult learning principles of andragogy, (a) the learner's need to know, (b) self-concept of the learner, (c) prior experience of the learner, (d) readiness to learn, (e) orientation to learning, and (f) motivation to learn. Andragogy principles can easily be implemented into practice, and the more they reflect the uniqueness of the learner, the more successful the educational experience will be.

Transformational Learning

Transformational learning shapes individuals' perceptions, behaviors, and attitudes. Transformational learning occurs through personal experience as well as controlled educational experiences. Transformational learning is added to each individual's "personal-experience database" and over the adult life, the database will be added to, evolve, shared and ultimately change a person forever (Clark, 1993).

BarOn EQ-i

Dr. Reuven Bar-On (1997) created the BarOn EQ-i. Bar-On believed that the available empirical clinical literature provided much information about pathology and dysfunction, but relatively little about optimal functioning and life success. BarOn had the desire to answer two difficult questions: why do some persons experience greater levels of psychological well-being than others? Thus in an attempt to answer his

questions, the EQ-i emerged (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer & Salovey, 1995; Salovey & Sluyter, 1997).

Jung's Personality Trait Theory

Personality trait research posits, behaviorism relies on a stimulus-response criterion that focuses on external stimuli and evident behavior as the output reaction (Wheeler, Hunton, & Bryant, 2004). Jung's theory of personality analyzes the individual as either a whole personality or as a collection of characteristics that create a personality type (Myers, 1993). Because certain personality traits interact, Jung's theory focuses on the collection of traits that create a personality type. Jung believed personality traits interact with each other differently, thus several personality types exist (Wheeler et al., 2004). Jung identified eight different traits that generate two opposite pairs of cognitive functions and two opposite pairs of attitudes.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

Using the work of Carl Jung, Katherine Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers created a psychometric instrument for measuring Jungian theory constructs and determining personality types (Opt & Loffredo, 2000). The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator was created to provide a framework for the differences and similarities of personality traits and to highlight a person's personality preferences (Wheeler et al., 2004). The MBTI does not associate any value determinations with personality preferences.

Extraversion

As defined by Myers and McCaulley (1985), extraversion is a personality preference focusing on an individual's preference for obtaining energy from the environment. A person with an extraversion personality preference will draw energy from

being in a stimulated environment. Extraverts enjoy participation in a variety of tasks; they act quickly, develop ideas through discussion with others and like working on teams. Extraversion is the bipolar preference of introversion.

Introversion

Myers and McCaulley (1985) define the introversion preference as drawing energy from one's internal ideas, emotions and impressions. Introverts gain their energy from within versus being in a populated and stimulated environment. Introverts thrive in quite and private spaces; they enjoy working with facts and ideas to complete tasks, they work individually on tasks and need to have time to make decisions. As the bipolar of extraversion, introverts will lose energy in large groups of people over a certain length of time.

Thinking

The personality preference of thinking relates to how an individual makes decisions (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). An individual with a thinking preference will make decisions in an organized manner by structuring information in a logical and objective way. Decision making with this preference can frustrate others as thinkers inadvertently overlook the emotions of those involved in the process. Thinkers tend to be firm-minded and ready to offer criticism while also wanting recognition after a task has been completed. Thinking is the bipolar preference to feeling.

Feeling

Myers and McCaulley (1985) define feeling as a preference for organizing and structuring information to decide in a personal-values oriented manner. Thus feelers use values to reach conclusions and make decisions. They enjoy meeting others' needs and are

concerned with others likes and dislikes. Feelers avoid upsetting others and seek appreciation throughout the process of working on a task with others. Underlying values in a situation are very apparent to the feeler and is used heavily in making a decision.

Limitations of Study

The current study is a preliminary descriptive study between the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the BarOn EQ-i. The study is not a generalization of the differences between personality and emotional intelligence. The study will generate a preliminary view of emotional intelligence and personality but will not link the two. This study is a single look between two instruments only, the BarOn EQ-i and Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. This study will not determine one personality type as superior to another or whether the defined personality type is an indicator of success for nonprofit administrators. The study may identify another view for nonprofits to consider when utilizing tests as a precursor to employment.

Summary

This chapter discussed the construct of emotional intelligence and personality by providing topical background of the subject as well as definition of key terms. The chapter breaks the current study into smaller pieces of the problems related to the current scope of research with emotional intelligence and personality. The purpose of the study is to investigate emotional intelligence and its intrinsic uses as well as the correlations between emotional intelligence scores and specific personality traits among leaders in nonprofit organizations. The comprehension of both constructs should establish suitable uses within the workplace. At the present time, no empirical studies have been completed

assessing the correlations between personality and emotional intelligence using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the BarOn EQ-i.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Impact of Nonprofit Organizations in Society

Nonprofit organizations are tax-exempt organizations serving a public interest and need. The purpose of the nonprofit must be charitable, educational, scientific, religious or literary (Koteen, 1997). Nonprofit organizations are focused on providing quality service at a lesser cost, this stringent culture puts the nonprofit organization in a race to finding the answers with less fiscal support than they need. Realities force nonprofit organizations to change their traditional ways of doing business, to find means to sustain programs while building endowments to ensure longevity. Koteen indicates, “nonprofits are seriously engaged in efforts to reinvent, restructure, and reengineer with many new strategies borrowed from the private sector and the global marketplace” (p. 1).

Nonprofit organizations have less to spend for meeting public needs and social problems; problems that are massive with intended results that are often difficult to achieve. According to Peter Drucker (1990) nonprofit organizations have been seen as marginal to an American society dominated by government and corporate business. He states that nonprofit organizations are central to American society and would argue that they are its most distinguishing feature.

Overall, nonprofit organizations strive to meet the needs of society by providing services to the local community and greater global community. In order for nonprofit organizations to provide services there are three main components to a nonprofit organization: Policy, programs and philanthropy (Koteen, 1997). An ongoing challenge for the nonprofit organization is the ability to provide greater service with fewer employees. If it can be said that one's challenges are one's greatest strengths then this is

true of volunteers in the nonprofit sector as they are a vital component to fulfilling the organizations mission. Adults serving as volunteers in the nonprofit sector spend at least three hours a week volunteering their time. In 2005, over 220,000 individuals were recorded as active nonprofit sector volunteers (Statistics, 2005). This makes nonprofit organizations one of America's largest "employers" according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics as reported in September 2005.

During a visit to America in 1831, Alexis de Tocqueville was impressed by the plethora of voluntary associations and decentralized institutions (Paul, 1999). These associations and institutions include religious societies, civic organizations, educational and health organizations. According to the social capital theory as defined by Fowler (1991), the independent sector is a "training ground for citizenship and leadership as they create vast crucial communication networks" (p. 36). Nonprofit organizations are central to the quality of life in America, central to citizenship and central to the values of American society and tradition.

Nonprofit organizations impact society most heavily by the public service they provide. Drucker (1990) argues that nonprofit organizations neither supply goods, services or controls. Rather, the nonprofit organization's product is a "changed human being" as such; he calls nonprofit organizations "human-change agents" (p.5). The end result of the product is a cured patient, an educated individual, an individual that has grown into an active member of society; ultimately a changed human life.

The Labor Board of Statistics calls the independent sector the "Growth Industry" of America; Drucker calls the independent sector the "Civil Society," and Koteen posits that nonprofit organizations are the "American community." In order for the nonprofit

organization to manage the volunteer aspect and the product, they must employ strong leadership that understand the mission, create organizational values, provide innovation and motivate employees and volunteers to be human-change agents. (Drucker, 1990; Fowler, 1991 & Koteen, 1997).

Leadership and Nonprofit Organizations

Nonprofit organizations must seek leaders that are able to understand and articulate the culture and values of the organization in order to have loyal followers. Nonprofit organizations are continually searching for ways to be more effective in providing service; as such it is imperative for the nonprofit leader to be innovative and capable of shaping and influencing the work environment in a positive direction (Jaskyte, 2004). In order for the manager to have this ability, it is crucial that the leadership be strong and motivating.

Leadership is a ubiquitous presence in daily life and even at the dyadic level requires both social and emotional relationships. The social component of leadership evolves into the emotional aspect of leadership. Social interactions are laden with affective interpretations. Leaders assess the intentions and the behaviors of the other actors and make judgments based on the interpretations. According to Bass (1990) individuals able to assess their own and others' emotions and appropriately adapt their behavior for a given situation based on that assessment make more effective leaders.

Nonprofit organizations realize that the command-and-control, hierarchical model of leadership that their counterpart for-profit organizations employ will not suffice when creating a strong organization (Ruderman, Hannum, Leslie, & Steed, 2001). Instead, nonprofit organizations are moving toward a more participative management style,

encompassing theories based on motivating employees and assisting with their professional growth and success. The essence of participative management is obtaining a commitment from colleagues at the beginning of an initiative. A leader creates this commitment by involving and engaging the colleague through communication and coaching them in the decision making process and building consensus (Jaskyte, 2004).

Nonprofit organizations utilize volunteers as a staple in providing service thus; participative management practices are even more crucial. When implemented correctly, participative management gives the volunteer a sense of altruism and ultimately commitment to the organization. Nonprofit leaders must understand the major impact they have on the formation of the organizational culture. Leaders can transmit and embed organizational culture through deliberate teaching, coaching, role modeling, reward allocation, recruitment, and promotion (King, 2004). Nonprofit leaders can generate employee commitment by stressing core values and promoting group loyalty. This type of leader is essential to the longevity and success of the organization as relationships with constituents are stewarded and stronger bonds are created with the population served by the nonprofit.

History of Emotional Intelligence

Those studying the intelligence of emotions would agree that research in this area has advanced in the last few years. To understand the construct of emotional intelligence, a look into the discovery, research and popularization is important. In 1920, Thorndike proposed the existence of a construct very similar to emotional intelligence, called social intelligence. Thorndike suggested that intelligence could be organized under three broad dimensions: mechanical, abstract and social. Thorndike's categorization prompted the

development of instruments to assess each of the three types of intelligence (Thorndike, 1920).

Not until the early 1980's did emotions and the concept of emotional intelligence in the workplace hit the research map. Arlie Hochschild (1983) was one of the first to introduce the concepts of emotional labor and emotional work. This work transitioned to organizational behavior and in 1989, research by Rafaeli and Sutton, (1989) identified emotional expression as an important phenomenon in organizational research.

Many of the early advances were found in the field of sociology; specifically critical during this time was feminist literature where emotions were presented arguing "bounded emotionality" and "bounded rationality" have significant relevance in organizational behavior (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003). Van Maanen and Kunda (1989) stated organizational life is simply a process of emotional management. The most noted emotional intelligence researchers emerged in 1990; John D. Mayer and Peter Salovey introduced empirical research focusing on emotional intelligence and created its definition, a definition that is widely used in research.

During the time that Mayer and Salovey were making their mark with the topic, others followed suit and between 1991 and 1995 many would write influential articles and books regarding the use of emotions in organizations. The research argued the positive effects of emotions in the workplace (Straw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994); other research provided a general overview of emotions in organizations (Pekrun & Frese, 1992); while others argued that more attention ought to be paid regarding emotions in organizational studies (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995); and theories of mood and motivation were created using emotions as the baseline (George & Brief, 1996). Goleman

(1995) popularized emotional intelligence and put it on the public radar through his book *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ.*

As the emotional intelligence construct evolved, key players emerged and several theories were identified and developed. In 1993, Gardner created the *theory of multiple intelligences* which encompasses intrapersonal intelligence, including knowledge of one's own emotions and thoughts. Averill and Nunley's (1992) *emotional creativity theory* focus' on the value of emotional fulfillment through creativity. Saarni's (1999) *theory of emotional competence* is similar to other theories but places an emphasis on the social context of emotional functioning and emotional self-efficacy. However, of all the theories presented, none were as critical to the study of emotional intelligence as Mayer and Salovey in 1990.

Emotional Intelligence as an Intelligence

Throughout the literature review, it is emphasized that emotional intelligence explains individual cognitive based performance over the level attributable to intellectual intelligence (IQ). Proponents assert, increasing individual emotional intelligence will lead to greater quality of life, both personally and professionally by enhancing life success. The foundation of EQ is monitoring emotions in self and others, the ability to discriminate among the emotions, and ultimately use the information to facilitate decision making (Cobb & Mayer, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Thi Lam & Kirby, 2002; Tucker et al., 2000). Emotional intelligence has a spectrum of abilities broader than other intelligences as it focus' on social relationships as well as internal emotions. This acute focus pertains predominantly to the emotional problems embedded in personal and social problems.

General Intelligence

The common definition for intellectual intelligence (IQ), or as commonly referred to as general intelligence, is the “ability to acquire basic knowledge and use it in novel situations” (Thi Lam & Kirby, 2002, p. 134). It has been stipulated that individuals are born with a fixed, potential intellectual intelligence (Gardner, 1998). General intelligence includes several related groups of mental abilities revolving around spatial, verbal, and logical information processes (Mayer et al., 2000). With regard to intelligence as an ability, Wechsler (1940) posits that the definition of intelligence is the aggregate of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with the environment. IQ is measured by completing a number series; pattern recognition; and analogies using mathematical-reasoning, spatial-visualization abilities and verbal skills (Jensen & Weng, 1994). Intellectual intelligence can increase, but only slightly following the teenage years (Mayer et al., 2000).

Emotional Intelligence

By definition, emotions are internal events that “link psychological subsystems including responses, cognitions and conscious awareness” (Mayer et al., 2000). Being able to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-based feelings and process those thoughts for productive information is the essence of an emotionally intelligent person (Mayer et al., 2000). John D. Mayer and Peter Salovey (1990) were among the first to use the term *emotional intelligence* in reference to the ability of a person to deal with personal emotions and the emotions of others. They defined emotional intelligence as “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" (p. 189).

An intelligence is called such because it meets the requirements of the standard criteria for an intelligence, an ability. Emotional intelligence is included as an intelligence because it is based on abilities, not favored courses of behavior. Further, emotional intelligence is a mental aptitude, one that assists in intellectual processing. It is this enhanced processing of certain types of information that makes EQ an intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Reviews of neurobiological studies indicate that facets of the emotional intelligence construct correlate with the functional activity in specific parts of the brain involved in the cognitive processing of emotions (Goleman, 1998).

Gardner (1993) significantly expanded traditional definitions of intelligence. His concepts of "intrapersonal" intelligence (the identification of one's own emotions) and "interpersonal" intelligence (the understanding of other's emotions and intentions) were part of his unique multifactor model. These definitions are remarkably similar to recent descriptions of emotionally intelligent behaviors (Goleman, 1998; Schulte, Malcolm and Carretta, 2004). In his reformulation of intelligence, Sternberg (1996) described practical intelligence as a combination of technical expertise and socialized experience. Sternberg suggested that on-the-job learning, common sense and experience account for as much occupational success as traditional IQ estimates. General intelligence is typically directed at short and long-range goals and employed to solve problems important to emotions, well-being, needs, plans, and survival (Fox & Spector, 2000).

According to Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) there are "three criterions for intelligence: conceptual, correlation and developmental" (p. 269); the development of the

cognitive and neural mechanisms underlying emotional intelligence is heavily influenced by strong relationships in early childhood. This specific conceptual criterion mandates that in order for behavior to be considered an intelligence, the individual must display mental performance rather than favored ways of acting in situations. The mental performance must measure the concept in question (Mayer et al., 2000). The correlation criteria indicates the intelligence should relate closely to a set of prescribed abilities that are similar to the mental abilities defined by other existing intelligences. These abilities will develop throughout life as individual competencies increase.

Developing Emotional Intelligence

The literature is resounding that emotional intelligence is not a personality trait. Throughout research, there is strong consensus that emotional intelligence is a learned trait or competency and can therefore develop as an individual adds skill sets to his or her repertoire (Cherniss, 1998; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Lopes et al., 2004; Mayer & Geher, 1996; Tucker et al., 2000). Many of the aforementioned authors discuss emotional intelligence and its role and development within a managerial learning context (Fineman, 1997). In Fineman's view, the core capabilities are developed within childhood, but are malleable and thus capable of being developed. In addition, workplace experiences have a significant impact on shaping ones abilities. One theory regarding the development of EQ is andragogy, a term coined by Malcolm Knowles in 1973 as cited in Fineman, 1997.

Core Principles of Andragogy

Andragogy is a set of core adult learning principles that can be applied to almost any learning environment or situation. Once implemented, the more the principles

resemble and reflect the uniqueness of the learner, the more successful the educational experience will be. Knowles (1973) identified six core adult learning principles of andragogy, (a) the learner's need to know, (b) self-concept of the learner, (c) prior experience of the learner, (d) readiness to learn, (e) orientation to learning, and (f) motivation to learn. If the educator understands the principles, then the student and teacher share in the responsibility of the learning process. For adults, it is proven this experience will differ significantly from their earlier educational experiences and greater learning will occur (Knowles, 1973). With regard to emotional intelligence, andragogy shows that emotional intelligence is amenable to development, even if interventions were not made during the learner's childhood.

The Learners' Need to Know

Adults must know why they need to learn before they embark on the learning process (Knowles, 1973). The learning material should be the responsibility of the educator though their personal feelings and values regarding the material should be second to the learner's need to know. Further, the educator should provide the adult learner an overview of the techniques and tools that will be presented in the curriculum. Learning coupled with real life experience will assist students to employ the learned tactics for a greater more positive performance outcome (Knowles, 1973).

The Learners' Self-Concept

Adults are capable of self-direction because they believe they are responsible for their own lives (Knowles, 1973). Caffarella (1993) identifies self-directed learning as a three pronged ideology: a self-initiated process of learning stressing the ability of individuals to plan and manage their own learning; a characteristic that each learner feels

personal autonomy; and methods of organizing instruction in formal settings where the adult learners have significant control.

The Learners' Prior Experience

Adults seeking further education or to develop current abilities come to the table with personal experience. Adults identify themselves by their experiences and are capable of transforming these experiences into educational learning tools. Most common adult learning situations are a mixture of backgrounds, needs, motivation, and goals and therefore these situations demand activity to utilize these experiences in the curriculum (Knowles, 1973). The educational facilitator should utilize all appropriate experiences from the students to enrich the course material and to aid in the transformational learning of each student.

Transformational Learning

Transformational learning shapes individuals perceptions, behaviors, and attitudes. This type of learning can occur through experience as well as situated educational experience. According to Mezirow (1990) all human beings function within meaning systems, (structures of beliefs and theories) that function as a filter whereby personal experience travels and is interpreted (Clark, 1993). Once filtered, transformation learning has occurred, and the individual changes or shapes their behavior in a noticeable way. Arguably, this can be one of the richest experiences an individual can add to their learning repertoire.

The Learners' Readiness to Learn

According to Knowles (1973) “adults become ready to learn the things they need to know and need to do in order to cope effectively with real-life situations” (p.67). If an

administrative assistant has no interest in promotion, the individual will not seek opportunity to be promoted. But if later, after mastering key concepts that assistant decides to seek promotion, all avenues will be sought until the goal is accomplished. This is a dramatic shift from the child student learning what he or she is told regardless of interest. Knowles (1973) adds that developmental tasks associated with moving from one learning stage to another should be relevant to the learner for success to follow.

The Learners' Orientation to Learning

Adults are life-centered learners bringing experience to each situation. As discussed previously, adults learn best when the situation is applicable to real-life. At times, adults need a facilitator to assist with the learning process without losing control of the situation. Ultimately, adults will learn best if the material connects to a past experience and is applicable to current situations and experiences (Hiemstra, 1993).

The Learners' Motivation to Learn

Tough (1979) found for normal adults continual learning is innate. Motivation is another key component that separates children learners from adult learners. According to Cross (1981) motivation to participate is the result of an individual's perception of both positive and negative forces. For human resource training purposes, understanding the adult learner's motivation is crucial to the success of the learning experience.

It has been supported that adults can learn and are primed to learn when the core principles of andragogy are in place, but the question remains, how is emotional intelligence developed? Many studies have been conducted and respond by reviewing scores on EQ competency-based scales. Much of that research showed promising reliability and predictive validity over a long period of time (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004).

Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) found emotional intelligence scales used for managers before and after training showed construct validity between EQ, morale and stress at work. Further, their research “provided clear evidence of the concurrent validity of the EQ measures of current performance” (p. 97). Ultimately the research found support that EQ elements could be developed through training by extending the range of an individual’s skills.

Research highlighted in *Primal Leadership* suggests that outstanding leaders need higher EQ competencies as they move to higher level positions in organizations (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Goleman found more EQ competencies in the higher ranked leader as the reason for their effectiveness and success. He continues by saying “EQ contributes 80% to 90% of the competencies that distinguish outstanding from average leaders” (Goleman et al., 2002, p. 251). Research stipulates that an IQ between 110 and 120 is needed to complete an advanced degree (Goleman et al., 2002). If true, there is little variation of IQ among those who are in the higher levels of organizations. Conversely, there is a much wider EQ capability variation among executives (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004; Goleman et al., 2002; Thi Lam & Kirby, 2002).

Neurological Basis of Emotional Intelligence

The underlying basis for the ability to develop emotional intelligence is neural and most deficiencies in emotional skills can be cognitively developed (West-Burnham, 1997). Cognitive learning involves fitting new data and insights into existing frameworks of association and understanding, extending and enriching the corresponding neural circuitry (Goleman et al., 2002). Emotional learning engages the neural circuitry where the social and emotional habit repertoire is stored. The neural system responsible for

intellect and emotion are separate but have intimately interwoven connections (Goleman et al., 2002).

The earliest known definition of emotion was developed by William James and is called the *James-Lange Theory of Emotion* (Davidson, Jackson, & Kalin, 2000). James suggested “bodily changes follow directly the perception of the exciting fact, and that our feeling of the same changes as they occur is the emotion” (p. 891). This definition can be tested empirically due to the occurrence of physiological responses when feeling emotion. Without the physiological response there is not emotion. Thus, it could be said that emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize and control the physiological responses that occur when feeling emotion (Davidson et al., 2000).

Emotional behavior is achieved by integrated activity of the autonomic nervous and limbic systems and provides outward behavior that an inner emotion has created (Vander, Sherman, & Luciano, 1994). According to Vander et al. (1994), inner emotions, such as feelings of fear, joy, anger, and love involves the amygdala, a nucleus at the tip of the temporal lobe. Emotional behavior is centered in the hypothalamus, part of the limbic system in the brain. Vander, et al. (1994) states the following:

The limbic system serves as the route by which information about the emotional meaning of an external stimulus, including information gleaned from memory and understanding is passed to the hypothalamus. The hypothalamus then integrates the endocrine and autonomic behaviors and even influences some of the motor activities that form appropriate emotional behavior (Vander, et al., 1994, p. 379).

Emotion has guided physical human survival since the dawning of time proving to be a neural struggle for today’s leaders as they operate in a socially complex environment. According to Goleman (2002), emotional impulses follow an intricate circuitry that moves from the amygdala to the prefrontal cortex, to the brain’s executive

center, just behind the forehead. The prefrontal area receives and analyzes information from the entire brain and then makes a decision based on the analysis. Simply, the prefrontal cortex can override an emotional impulse to generate a more appropriate response and if this system failed the amygdala's impulse would be acted upon (Goleman et al., 2002; Rolls, 1999).

Emotion facilitates decision making, influences memory and learning and provides the necessary motivation for critical action (Davidson et al., 2000). While very intense emotions can interfere negatively with effective decision making, as Damasio (1994) suggests, "The reduction in emotion may constitute an equally important source of irrational behavior" (p. 53). Feelings are intimately connected to the human experience and are intricately bound to the ways people think, interact and make decisions (George, 2000).

Ultimately, emotion creates individual differences and is the key attribute for the nuclear dimensions of personality. LeDoux (1996) lists emotional learning as the most impressive evidence for brain plasticity. The neurological basis for emotion is important to understand when discussing emotional intelligence because, emotion is what research suggests is the essence of individual differences.

According to George (2000), emotions can be useful in terms of directing attention to pressing concerns choosing among options and making decisions. Being able to anticipate how one would feel if certain events occurred can lead to choosing among multiple options (Frigda, 1988). Additionally, emotions can be used to facilitate certain cognitive processes such as creative and integrative thinking, inductive reasoning and detection of errors and problems (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Finally, shifts in emotions

can lead to more flexible planning, the generation of multiple alternatives, and a broadened perspective on problems (Sinclair & Mark, 1992). All fore mentioned abilities are cognitive and neurological processes.

Emotional Intelligence and Life Success

According to Goleman (1995), IQ contributes to approximately 20% to the factors determining life success. The remaining 80% must be attributed elsewhere and emotional intelligence sums up the answer. Goleman states that nearly 90% of the difference in successful managerial profiles was attributable to emotional intelligence factors rather than cognitive abilities (2002). It was also found that when superior leaders are compared to average or below average performers, the superior leader was found to possess a higher self-confidence, effective emotional reading of others, and a higher motivation and ability to persuade (Cherniss, 1998).

Emotional intelligence is predictive of life success based on four major aspects: appraisal and expression of emotion, the use of emotion to enhance cognitive processes and decision making, knowledge about emotions, and management of emotions (George, 2000). Managing all four aspects will lead to life success as emotional intelligence facilitates the use of emotional input in forming judgments and making decisions (Davies et al., 1998). Studies have shown that managerial derailment indicates a lack of emotional intelligence not a lack of technical or educational skills (Tucker et al., 2000). The derailment is frequently attributed to “character flaws, inability to change, poor treatment of others, and problems with interpersonal relationships” (Tucker et al., 2000 p. 331).

Work environments are constantly changing and organizations are expecting more from their employees. Employees are expected to work well with others, bring innovation

and change to the work place, and create a stable environment where success will flourish (Cobb & Mayer, 2000). Thi Lam and Kirby (2002) posit that delinquencies in any of these areas will lead to workplace demotions, below average employee achievements, and ultimately firings. Research conducted in 2005 found that individuals who are more emotionally intelligent are expected to perform better in the workplace (Bar-On, Handley and Fund, 2005). Repeatedly, the literature stated that emotional intelligence could be integrated into workplace training. The common denominator between a formal educational setting and a professional work environment is the adult as the learner. And when adults find the reason for learning and embrace the self-direction of that learning, there is no better place to implement emotional intelligent concepts and ideas.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Emotional intelligence has become increasingly popular as a measure of identifying potentially effective leaders. In fact, many organizations and corporations are using pre-screening tools to locate potential leaders in employee candidates (Robbins, 2003). Much research has shown that emotional intelligence may account for how effective leaders monitor and respond to colleagues and subordinates (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003; George, 2000; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001).

According to Goleman (1998) interpersonal skills are more integral to effective leadership than personality traits, professional skills and education. Leadership roles are designed to inspire and motivate others, to create awareness of individual and team contribution and to promote positive attitudes in the workplace; therefore developed interpersonal skills are imperative (Palmer et al., 2001). Often, employees are hired for their educational record and past experience with a certain skill set. More frequently

leadership skills are being assessed for employment and promotion by human resource departments, one way to measure leadership skills is through emotional intelligence screening.

Leadership can be defined in many ways using many analogies. According to Northouse (2001), leadership is a “process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 3). Kevin Cashman (2000) believes that leadership is not one act that someone performs, rather it comes from within and is a process of expressing ones true self. Cashman believes leaders must master the process, “leadership is an authentic self-expression that creates value” (p. 20). Kouzes and Posner (2002) believe that leadership is a relationship and daily practice. Through years of case study Kouzes and Posner developed a model of leadership whereby good leaders follow this paradigm by incorporating five common practices: (a) model the way; (b) inspire a shared vision; (c) challenge the process; (d) enable others to act; and (e) encourage others with heart (p. 13).

When the leader begins to operate through emotion instinctively, it is known as primal leadership (Goleman et al., 2002). Leadership becomes primal when an individual understands the important role of emotions in the workplace. When the “primal leader is driving emotions positively and bringing out everyone’s best the effect is called resonance” (Goleman et al., 2002, p. 5).

Ultimately, leadership is the ability to take a situation (or organization) from what is to what could be. Meaning, that leadership is the “ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals” (Robbins, 2003, p. 314). Robbins is quick to highlight that

leaders are not always managers and vice versa and leaders are not always created from a formal structure but depending on their ability they may emerge from within a group.

Leaders are the individuals with a vision while managers possess the ability to put actions into play so that the vision is realized. Leaders execute a vision by motivating, guiding, inspiring and listening by creating resonance. Robbins (2003) believes that “organizations need strong leadership and management for optimal effectiveness” (p. 314). Recent studies indicate that emotional intelligence, more than IQ or expertise is the best predictor of who will emerge as a leader (George, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Goleman et al., 2002; Mayer et al., 2000; Tucker et al., 2000).

Leadership is dealing effectively with emotions and handling the needs of individuals while keeping the vision of the project alive and the mission of the organization on task. Understanding emotions and the abilities associated with EQ are imperative (Mayer & Geher, 1996). Understanding EQ factors and effective leadership is the unknown factor in current research. While the interest level is high, there is little empirical data regarding the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence.

Mayer and Salovey (1995) through their EQ ability model provide the intuitive basis for which to examine this relationship. Their framework conceptualizes emotional intelligence as an intelligence consisting of a related set of mental abilities correlated with emotions and the processing of emotional information. As noted in several research studies, transformational leadership is considered a prime example of this framework and a more effective leadership style as it promotes greater organizational performance (Palmer et al., 2001). Transformational leadership is more emotion-based compared with other leadership styles and involves a heightened sense of internal and perceived

emotional levels (George & Brief, 1996; Goleman, 1995; Goleman et al., 2002; Northouse, 2001). Leadership potential can be identified by EQ assessments and explains approximately 20% of leadership potential (Bar-On, Handly and Fund, 2005). The ability to monitor and manage emotions in oneself and others claims to be a highly developed EQ (Mayer & Salovey, 1995).

There is preliminary evidence for the relationship between EQ and effective leadership (Palmer et al., 2001). The correlation between EQ and leadership has significant impact on human resource practitioners when selecting employees for leadership development. When premier performers are compared with average ones in senior management positions, nearly 90% of the difference in their effectiveness was attributable to EQ factors rather than basic intelligence (Robbins, 2003). Additionally, emotional intelligence attributes may provide additional selection criteria for recognizing potentially effective leaders (Goleman, 1998).

According to West-Burnham (1997) being attuned to the feeling of others, being able to handle disagreements before they escalate and having the ability to move people to positive attitudes in the work environment are benefits of emotional intelligence. He continues by adding, “leadership is not domination, but the act of persuading people to work towards a common goal” (p. 12). Successful leaders understand other people (awareness of others emotions), obtain skills that foster goals (empathy) and assist others to reach accomplishments and overall success (motivate others). Thus, it could be argued that effective leadership resonates with a person having high emotional intelligence.

Any organization looking to move forward ought to be led by people who are capable of personal transformation and have the skills to assist their subordinates and

colleagues to transform with the organization (Straw et al., 1994). While experience may assist in determining the mindset and skill-set of an applicant, human resource departments are utilizing personality inventories alone as a confirmation to a successful hire. However, as stated here, it may be a greater advantage to substitute emotional intelligence measurements with personality inventories.

Measuring Emotional Intelligence

Broadly speaking, emotional intelligence addresses the emotional, personal and social dimensions of intelligence. As stated earlier, the premise of EQ is to understand oneself and others, relate to others and adapt and cope with the immediate surroundings. When an individual develops their emotional intelligence, they tend to be more successful in dealing with social and environmental demands (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Thus, when emotional intelligence is tested, the score will indicate the degree the individual is self-aware, able to self regulate emotion, motivate others, posses empathy and social skills. Ultimately, using emotional intelligence measurement tools should assist in mapping areas that are functioning well and those that can be developed and enhanced.

There are several emotional intelligence tests available, but not all are available for public use. Each EQ inventory is based on the author's definition of emotional intelligence. While several inventories are available, only two will be discussed at this time due to their popularity of use and previous research. The inventories that will be discussed are the BarOn, EQ-I and the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT).

BarOn EQ-i

Dr. Reuven Bar-On created the BarOn EQ-i in 1997 (Bar-On, 1997). The EQ-i emerged from Bar-On's attempt to answer two difficult questions: why do some experience greater levels of psychological well being than others?; and why are some individuals more able to succeed in life than others? (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer & Salovey, 1995; Salovey & Sluyter, 1997). Bar-On believed the empirical clinical literature provided much information about pathology and dysfunction, but relatively little about optimal functioning and life success.

Because the EQ-i is an integral part of the current study, the theoretical and construct history will be reviewed in detail. Bar-On's emotional intelligence definition is "array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence a person's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (Bar-On, 1997, p. 14). The EQ-i was originally constructed by logical clustering of variables and underlying factors believed to contribute to individual success and well being. During this process, numerous theories and studies were reviewed. Eleven success factors emerged: assertiveness, self-actualization, interpersonal functioning, flexibility, happiness, problem solving, self-regard, social responsibility, and reality testing independence. Upon further review, empathy, optimism, emotional self-awareness and impulse control were added as personal success factors (Bar-On, 1997).

Experienced clinicians generated a list of test items based on logical and conceptual considerations. After the test items were generated, the clinicians assessed the extent to which a hypothetical interviewee possessed each of the factors based on operational definitions. For item reduction, the items most closely related to conceptual

definitions were selected. After all items were categorized, the most concise items were selected. The ultimate task was to assign seven to nine items to each subscale. This included discarding one or two of the lowest inter-correlating items. This normative database consisted of nearly 4,000 persons in several countries. Bar-On conducted subsequent validation research in eleven other countries, including the United States of America.

The EQ-i is a 133-item self-report inventory that provides information on five composite factors (i.e. Intra-Personal Scale; Inter-Personal Scale; Adaptability Scale; Stress Management; General Mood Scale) and 15 sub-scales (i.e., Self-Awareness; Assertiveness; Self-Regard; Self-Actualization; Empathy; Independence; Interpersonal Relationships; Social Responsibility; Problem Solving; Reality Testing; Stress Tolerance; Flexibility. Impulse Control; Happiness and Optimism).

The EQ-i assessment is completed within 30-45 minutes. There are four output reports that are available: (a) *Individual Summary* providing overall EQ score; (b) *Development Report* providing an in-depth meaning of the score; (c) *Resource Report* providing the EQ scores in color graphics and (d) *Group Report* providing an anonymous summary of EQ results for a group. The EQ-i may only be administered by a qualified professional with a background in clinical psychology, or completion of graduate-level courses focusing on tests/measurements or receive equivalent documented training (Bar-On, 1997). EQ-i costs vary from \$60.00 to \$150.00 depending on selected output reports. The EQ-i is available in 13 languages.

Unpublished reports cited in the *EQ-i Technical Manual* (Bar-On, 1997) suggested that scores on various sub-scales have been used to discriminate between

successful and unsuccessful US Air Force recruiters and academic students (Newsome, Day, & Catano, 2000). Bar-On (1997) reported that such results suggest emotional intelligence is an important factor in predicting academic success. EQ-i validation is discussed in the Methods chapter in the subsection “Instrument Validity: BarOn EQ-i.”

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)

Mayer, Salovey, Caruso and Sitarenios (2003) developed the only existing “objective” measure of emotional intelligence, the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Test (MEIS or MSCEIT interchangeably). The test is objective insofar as there are “better” and “worse” answers, as determined by group consensus ratings (Lopes et al., 2004; Schulte et al., 2004). For example, if group consensus believes a face to be expressing anger, then it is assumed that the face does indeed express anger. People who subsequently do not judge the face to express anger are rated as “less correct” than others.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) define emotional intelligence as comprising four branches: “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (p. 5). From this definition, Mayer, Salovey, Caruso created the *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)* or *Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS)* to measure three hierarchical branches of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Affective perception and appraisal of emotion is the most basic branch of emotional intelligence, measured by people identifying emotion in faces, stories, designs and music. The second branch includes the ability to assimilate affect into mental life. The third branch involves understanding the reasoning about emotions. Because MEIS is less subject

to self-presentation biases, it may exhibit strength when compared to other measures. The MEIS samples a wide range of behaviors, has generally reliable subscales and correlates with a number of criterion measures (Mayer & Salovey, 1995).

The MEIS is a 141 self-report ability-based measure of the facility for recognizing the meanings and relationships of emotions, and for reasoning and solving problems using emotional information (Mayer et al., 2002). Test item content is comprised of four areas and include: (a) identifying the emotions in a design or as expressed by a face, generating a mood; (b) solving problems using that mood; and (c) defining the cause of different emotions and understanding their progression and finally (d) determining how to optimally include emotion in thought during situations involving self and others (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003).

The MSCEIT is completed within 30 and 45 minutes. The outcome report represents actual abilities at solving emotional problems (Mayer & Geher, 1996). The cost to administer the MSCEIT is between \$35.00 and \$50.00 and the administrator must be accredited (Mayer et al., 2003).

Construct Validity and Critical Review of Emotional Intelligence

The construct of emotional intelligence is well researched in applied and scholarly literature. However, Montemayor and Spee (2004) believe that the “scant research intended to explicate and validate emotional intelligence” has yielded mixed results (p. 1). The definition of emotional intelligence has been previously addressed but many believe that the construct loses validity with the many EQ definitions created by researchers (Antonakis, 2003; Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Montemayor & Spee, 2004; Newsome et al., 2000; Schulte et al., 2004). In fact, Montemayor and Spee (2004) infer

that conceptual contamination of the emotional intelligence definition is a major obstacle in advancing the scientific status and integrity of the EQ construct.

The measurability of emotional intelligence and the quality of that measure is also a serious concern regarding the validity of EQ (Antonakis, 2003). Mayer, et al. (2000) believes that EQ measures should exhibit reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Many believe the existence of emotional intelligence cannot be demonstrated with a self-report inventory (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer et al., 2003; Newsome et al., 2000; Schulte et al., 2004).

Historically, general cognitive ability (IQ) has played a central role in illuminating our understanding of human performance and time and time again, it has shown to be the best predictor of performance (Barrick & Mount, 1996; McCrae & Costa, 1997; Newsome et al., 2000; Schulte et al., 2004). The role of personality in predicting human performance has been extensively examined with emotional intelligence thrown into the performance mix over the last decade. (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993). Mayer et al. (2000) believe that EQ has the same relations to emotional creativity as intelligence does to general creativity.

The main nemesis for emotional intelligence is general cognitive intelligence (IQ). There is an abundant amount of research that stipulates IQ is the key factor in predicting and determining the success of an individual (Antonakis, 2003). The question most asked in the literature is if EQ predicts variance in leadership effectiveness beyond what is predicted by IQ; and is the variance detailed enough to create a definitive answer (Antonakis, 2003). Mayer and Salovey are frequently criticized for connecting emotion and intelligence (Newsome et al., 2000). Reasons for this criticism are based on the

importance Mayer and Salovey place on connecting emotions to abilities and using the word “intelligence” haphazardly (Newsome et al., 2000).

However, Mayer and Salovey (1993) theorize that a line can be drawn between personality traits, emotional intelligence and general intelligence as follows:

“Personality traits such as extraversion involve dispositions toward behavior: intelligence involves organic abilities to behave. A trait is a behavioral preference rather than “an ability.” Knowing what another person feels, in contrast, is a mental ability. Such knowledge may stem from intelligence, or be somewhat independent of it. The way in which we have defined emotional intelligence – as involving a series of mental abilities – qualifies it as a form of intelligence” (p. 435).

The criticisms of emotional intelligence lie within limited empirical data indicating that EQ is necessary for leadership effectiveness when controlling for general IQ (Antonakis, 2003; Newsome et al., 2000; Schulte et al., 2004). Antonakis (2003) sites that “self-monitoring, agreeableness, and need for affiliation are personality factors that are conceptually related with facets of EQ and do not support EQ being essential for leadership” (p. 357). Schulte (2004) states that elevated levels of emotional recognition may not be useful in industrial settings because individuals can easily gauge, then magnify or misinterpret negative emotions in others.

The bulk of emotional intelligence criticisms rest with construct definition variation and categorizing EQ as an intelligence (Antonakis, 2003). For each study conducted a researcher will use a different definition for emotional intelligence, thus creating a lack of integrity and validation for the construct. In addition, the multitude of available emotional intelligence inventories paint a picture of uncertainty with regards to the core essence of emotional intelligence: The ability to perceive emotions and adjust oneself to the most productive response. A lack of empirical evidence demonstrating that

EQ explains a large portion of the variance in leader emergence or effectiveness is weak in the literature. Often times the empirical findings will be contradictory to other arguments (Antonakis, 2003).

Another constant controversy is the premise that emotional intelligence can be developed. All agree that an adult can learn about EQ, but the question remains: is the construct being developed and fostered beyond basic learning or is the learning an inherent trait? The empirical research does not answer this question concretely.

Personality Trait Research History

Personality trait research hypothesizes that behaviorism relies on a stimulus-response criterion focusing on external stimuli and evident behavior as the output (Wheeler, Hunton, & Bryant, 2004). According to Wheeler, et al. (2004), cognitive science and personality psychology understand the human mind as navigating the effects of external stimuli on behavioral responses. By examining how humans process information and identify their personality traits, the more complete and valid the stimulus-to-output results become. Carl G. Jung emphasized personality as a mediating and assimilating factor for numerous psychological processes (Myers, 1993; Opt & Lopes, 2003; Wheeler et al., 2004). The relationship between cognitive science and personality theory is complex and under-researched. However, most personality theories view the mental functions related to information acquisition and decision making as central to personality (Myers, 1993).

Personality theories, insist that human cognition cannot be adequately understood in isolation, but must be “placed within a broader context that includes aspects of personality” (Wheeler et al., 2004, p. 4). According to research Jungian personality

theory is the most popular in terms of explaining mental cognition and personality traits (Gardner & Martinko, 1996; McCrae & Costa, 1997; Myers, 1993; Opt & Lopes, 2003; Thunholm, 2001; Wheeler et al., 2004). According to Opt and Lopes (2003), Jungian personality instruments include attitude scales capturing specific attributes that exhibit temperamental traits (i.e. introversion, extraversion, adaptability, organization, concentration, feeling, and intuition).

Because the current research uses the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator as a survey instrument, the Jungian personality theory will be discussed in greater detail. However, it should be noted other personality theories exist and are valid and reliable with coinciding measurement instruments as well.

In 1921, Jung's theory of personality analyzes the individual as either a whole personality or as a collection of characteristics comprising a personality type (Myers, 1993). Because certain personality traits interact, Jung's theory focuses on the collection of traits that create a personality type. Jung believed that personality traits will interact differently, thus several personality types exist (Wheeler et al., 2004). Jung identified eight different traits that generate two opposite pairs of cognitive functions and two opposite pairs of attitudes. The resulting four dichotomies are seen in the Table 1, the four dichotomies of Jung's personality theory.

Table 1

The Four Dichotomies of Jung's Personality Trait Theory

Attitude Pairs: Bipolar Attitude Traits	
Extraversion (E)	Introversion (I)
Judging (J)	Perceiving (P)
Cognitive Function Pairs: Bipolar Cognitive Function Traits	
Sensing (S)	Intuition (N)
Thinking (T)	Feeling (F)

Individuals will exhibit some form of all eight traits, however each individual will have a dominant preference in each bipolar area (Wheeler, et al., 2004). The four preferences will interact to define the predominate make-up of an individuals personality type (Opt & Lopes, 2003). Myers and Briggs added to Jung's eight personality types creating 16 personality types in total (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). According to Myers and Salovey (1995) the Judging/Perceiving dichotomy was developed to assist in differentiating how individuals deal with the external world and how they respond to mixed results with cognitive functions.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

Katherine Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers added to the work of Carl Jung by creating a psychometric instrument for measuring Jungian theory constructs and determining personality types (Opt & Loffredo, 2000). Ultimately the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator was created to provide a framework for examining the differences and similarities of personality traits and preferences (Wheeler et al., 2004). Personality traits and preferences are not value determinations, merely personality identification.

The MBTI was developed from Jung's research on human behavior as he noted patterns and differences among individual behavior and then organized the observed behavior (Opt & Loffredo, 2000). Myers and Brigg created the MBTI to identify type preference along four indices; Perceiving, judging, extraversion-introversion and dominate process. The Jungian definition of cognitive style has been researched at great length, and the MBTI is most frequently used for measuring personality style, especially among non-psychiatric populations (Opt & Lopes, 2003; Wheeler et al., 2004).

Extraversion and Introversion

According to Jungian theory, attitudes reflect an individual's inherent views of the physical and cognitive aspects of the world (Wheeler et al., 2004). Extraversion (E) and introversion (I) are bipolar preferences and is a critical indicator as to how an individual views the world and environment. Extraverts will focus their attention on the external world (people and objects) while introverts will have a primary concentration on the inner world of experience and will focus on the perception and judgment of ideas (Myers, 1993). An individual with extraversion as a dominate preference will be viewed as approachable and communicative; while a person with a dominate preference to introversion, is often defined as disengaged and contemplative (Wheeler et al., 2004).

Perceiving and Judging

In Jungian theory, there are two bipolar attitude functions: Perceiving and Judging (Myers, 1993). The Perceiving (P) relates to how an individual absorbs information about an experience. Individuals will perceive information in two forms; by Sensing (S) directly through the five senses or by Intuition (N) an indirect attention to associations and relationships in experience (Myers, 1993).

Myers (1993) suggests the two kinds of perception compete for a person's attention and that most people, from infancy through adulthood, will show preference to one more than the other. Sensing perceptions are more discrete, whereas intuition perceptions rely more on structures and relationships among sensations and experiences (Wheeler et al., 2004). An individual with a sensing preference has an interest that lies in the actuality surrounding them, not in the possibility of the experience. A person with a perceiving preference of intuition has a greater interest based on insight and creativity, not basic fact alone (Opt & Loffredo, 2000). Metaphorically sensing types, "see the trees," while intuitive types, "see the forest."

The second function is cognitive and called Judging as it relates to how an individual will process information into useful outputs congruent with what has been perceived (Opt & Lopes, 2003). Judging has two traits, Thinking (T) and Feeling (F). Thinking is a logical thought process connecting ideas and experiences. Feeling is a decision-making process that uses personal subjective values (Myers, 1993). Comparing the two classes of judging, Wheeler, et al. (2004), found that thinking types tend to reflect logical and rational natures, while feeling types are more idealistic and compassionate.

Myers (1993) posits that judging and perceiving cannot be used simultaneously and dominant preferences will be reflected in a person's lifestyle. In addition, different experiences will solicit a different response as appropriate, thus people will shift between judging and perceiving. Most people will find one dominant preference that is comfortable for a majority of situations. As discussed earlier, all preferences combine to form 16 personality types that can be identified by using the MBTI, (MBTI types are

denoted by the first four letters of the preferences. For example, an extravert, sensing, thinking judging type would be denoted as ESTJ).

According to Jungian theory, everyone uses all four core processes (sensing, intuition, thinking and feeling) but differs in the priority given to each process (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). In addition, the bipolar of each core preference is favored for the 16 MBTI personality types. According to Opt and Loffredo (2000) “The preference on each index is independent of the preferences for the other three indices, so that the four indices yield sixteen possible combinations called types,” (p. 12). Thus, the MBTI is a sorting indicator that categorizes each participant into a personality type based on the results from four bipolar scales.

Limitations of the MBTI

The MBTI is not suitable for research seeking before and after testing results (Wheeler et al., 2004). This limitation is based on Jung’s hypothesis that personal preferences are inherent and invariant in individuals. The MBTI is meant to describe rather than prescribe, therefore it is used to open possibilities not limit options (Hirsh & Kummerow, 1998). The MBTI measures outcomes on personality type not the strength of the preference (Opt & Lopes, 2003). The MBTI assumes that all preferences are equally important, valuable and necessary (Hirsh & Kummerow, 1998). And finally, the MBTI can not capture all aspects of an individual’s mind and personality in one inventory (Wheeler et al., 2004). That being said, it would be difficult to find one personality inventory that was successful in capturing the entire aspect of a person’s mind and personality.

Human Resource Management Use of Personality Inventories

In June 1998, the American Management Association completed a survey with results indicating that 45% of 1,085 companies reported administering one or more personality inventories to job applicants as a precursor to employment (Prewitt, 2005). This is an increase of 10% from the prior year's survey. Companies utilizing these inventories typically use them for potential managers rather than lower-level employees due to the time and expense. Prewitt (2005) states that using personality tests as a precursor to employment should only be used as part of the interview process and not relied solely upon as an antecedent to job success. Prewitt also reports that Powell and Wagner Associates, a psychology-consulting firm, conducted three follow-up studies of executives prescreened for hire. The results of the study found a high correlation between the firm's ratings of managers hired and the rate of subsequent termination. In addition, a statistical comparison showed that personality screening outperformed all other methods of assessing candidates, including interviews, references, and career history (Prewitt, 2005).

According to Robbins (2003) more than two million people a year take the MBTI in the United States. Corporate organizations began using the MBTI to enhance their human resources department (Robbins, 2003). Research concludes that organizations use the MBTI to leverage individuals' natural strengths, improve team work, enhance effective communications, resolve conflict, coach individuals, recognize employees' unique contributions and develop time management and stress management skills (Hirsh & Kummerow, 1998; Myers, 1993; Opt & Lopes, 2003; Robbins, 2003).

An increasing amount of research supports that measures of personality can add significantly to the prediction of both job performance and academic achievement (Bar-On, 1997; Barrick & Mount, 1991, 1996; Ones et al., 1993). The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator functions as a tool that helps organizations understand themselves and their behaviors; appreciate others so as to make constructive use of individual strengths; and approach problems straight forward thus, being more productive (Robbins, 2003).

Research Questions

This dissertation attempts to answer the following research questions: (a) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and extraversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (b) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and introversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (c) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and extraversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (d) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and introversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (e) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and thinking as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (f) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and feeling as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (g) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and thinking as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (h) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and feeling as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?

Chapter 3. Methods

Research Design

To complete the proposed study, the research design was a descriptive study using nonprofit professionals working in the northwest as the research sample. Descriptive research is an appropriate design to achieve the desired results of the study because it will describe the data from a set of numbers (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993). Descriptive statistics focuses on what is with respect to data and describes the sample explicitly. According to McMillian and Schumacher (1993), the use of descriptive research is the most fundamental tool to summarize data, and interpret the results of quantitative research. Furthermore, descriptive statistics will be used to explain the data in an effort to find answers to questions by analyzing relationships between non-manipulated variables and then providing a generalized conclusion beyond the sample used (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993).

Sources of Data

The data for this study were obtained from individual professionals working in the nonprofit sector¹ in the Northwest. Participants volunteered to participate in the current research based on their personal interest in the topic. Participants were not compensated for their time. The age range and gender of the participants varied.

¹ The nonprofit sector is defined as an organization with tax-exempt status as the resources used to operate come from third parties, such as contracted organizations, government entities, donors and foundations (Koteen, 1997). Koteen (1997) notes that the nonprofit sector is rapidly growing allowing for more than “10 million paid workers supplemented by a volunteer unpaid work force of more than 6 million” individuals (p.18). Additionally, Koteen notes that more than 25 academic centers and programs are focused on providing education for individuals seeking to fill professional positions in the nonprofit sector.

There are several nonprofit professional development organizations in the Northwest (Organization Development Network, Oregon and Washington Chapters; American Society for Training and Development, Oregon and Washington Chapters; NW Planned Giving Round Table; NW Director of Development Consortium; Willamette Valley Development Organization; Seattle Nonprofit Professional Development Organization). Combined, these organizations have approximately 500 members. The researcher received a copy of the membership lists from these organizations because once membership to these organizations is obtained; the lists are available to all nonprofit professionals. Nonprofit professionals from these organizations were invited to participate in the current research electronically. The specific sample was comprised of those that responded to the invitation to participate in the study.

Data Collection Process

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the BarOn EQ-i were used to gather data regarding the personality preferences and emotional intelligence levels of participants. Both inventories (BarOn EQ-i and MBTI) were taken online through a secure website created by the researcher. The website informed participants of the two inventories to be completed as well as a confirmation of confidentiality. Participants were told the total participation time would be approximately 1 hour (25-30 minutes for the MBTI and 30-35 minutes for the EQ-i). In addition, they were instructed to create a personal username necessary to complete each inventory. The username contained a series of numbers and letters and the participant was advised not to use their first or last name when creating the username. Participants were asked to complete the MBTI and the EQ-i at their leisure.

After the inventories were completed, the participants did not receive scores or outcomes, only confirmation the inventories were completed. Following, the researcher received a confidential report from Consulting Psychologists Press for the MBTI and a summary report from Multi Health Systems for the EQ-i. The researcher completed the necessary forms to qualify the administration of both inventories. The researcher paid for each survey taken and only raw data was added to the research data spreadsheet. One potential limitation to the web-based data collection process is the assumption all participants had Internet access. However, since each participant is currently employed, this likelihood, while possible, is not likely.

Collection Tools

Each participant completed two instruments: the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator - Form C (MBTI) and the BarOn EQ-i. The MBTI consists of 94 items that force respondents to choose between one or two answers that reflect the two poles for each specific index (Extravert or Introvert, Sensing or Intuition, Thinking or Feeling and Judging or Perceiving). Each response is weighed 0, 1 or 2 points, and the total points for each index indicate a person's preference on that pole. Test-retest reliabilities for the instrument range from .48 to .89. Myers and McCaulley (1985) reported several studies that provide evidence of construct validity for the MBTI. The MBTI for this research will be purchased from Consulting Psychologists Press. The researcher paid \$225.00 to create a website link to the MBTI and paid \$6.75 for each MBTI completed.

The BarOn EQ-i inventory examines an individual's emotional and social strengths and weaknesses. Participants rate each of the 133-item BarOn EQ-i on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = Very seldom or Not true of me; 5 = Very often true of me or

true of me) the degree to which the statements represented themselves. Emotional intelligence will be calculated based on the total EQ-i score as well as scores from five composite factors (Intra-Personal Scale, Inter-Personal Scale, Adaptability Scale, Stress Management Scale and General Mood Scale)². The inventory will take approximately 30 to 35 minutes to complete and will be computer-scored by Multi Health Systems, assuring reliability of scoring. Raw scores will standardize and transform to yield a scale with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15 (Bar-On, 1997). As reported in the EQ-i manual, internal reliabilities of the 15 sub-scales that comprise the five factor scores range on average from 0.69 to 0.86 across 10 studies (Bar-On, 1997)³. The researcher will purchase the EQ-i from Multi Health Systems. The researcher paid \$9.00 for each EQ-i report.

Procedures

Participants received an electronic invitation informing them of the opportunity to participate in the current research. The invitation introduced the topic and explored the importance of such research. The invitation encouraged all participants to contact the researcher or dissertation chair directly if there were questions regarding any aspect of the research. A secure Internet link was located at the bottom of the invitation with instruction to use this link to complete the inventories. Participants were invited to participate and informed of the data collection time period. Access to the website was approximately four weeks, during which time they were able to complete the inventories at their convenience.

Protection of Human Subjects

The Graduate School of Education and Psychology at Pepperdine University require that all human subjects are treated with careful consideration and that all potential risk to the participants be disclosed prior to research participation. According to the Federal Guidelines for Human Subjects Considerations, this study was classified as expedited review. Once the researcher provided adequate information explaining that completing the inventories would not distress participants and participant anonymity was secure, the Pepperdine institutional review board granted full-approval.

Participants were informed of the research purpose and intended use of the information being sought. Participation in the current study was voluntary and indicated as such throughout the invitation as well as on the research website. Consent for participation was based on the voluntary response to each e-survey. Email addresses used for invitation were not released or used for any other purpose and the participants were informed of such. Confidentiality of the data was ensured to all participants and all results were reported in aggregate. Due to the process of receiving inventory results, it was not possible for the researcher to link responses with individual participants.

Data received from each report (MBTI and EQ-i) was added to an excel spreadsheet upon receipt. Hard copies of the reports were kept in a secure file cabinet until the research was fully completed. At such time, the researcher cross-cut shredded each report. The researcher saved the data spreadsheet on a personal computer with a back-up copy stored on a private USB drive.

Instrument Validity: BarOn EQ-i

In terms of validity, nine subscale types were studied: content, face, factor, and construct, convergent, divergent, criterion-group, discriminant and predictive. The method by which EQ-i was created reflects an attempt to establish content and face validity. Subsequent item analysis discarded less content and face valid items. Furthermore, feedback from nearly 3,000 participants was used during final stages of the EQ-i development. A number of factor analyses and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to strengthen the EQ-i development and examine the underlying theoretical structure. These results suggested a close match between the hypothesized structure and the factor analytic structure (Bar-On, 1997).

Additional construct validity analyses were completed in six countries (Argentina, Canada, Germany, Israel, South Africa and the United States of America) over a 12-year period. Significant relationships were established between the EQ-i and the Sixteen Personality Factory Questionnaire (Cattell, Eber & Tatsouka, 1970), the Eyesenck Personality Questionnaire (Eyesenck & Eyesenck, 1975), the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck & Steer, 1987), the Sense of Competence Questionnaire (Wagner & Morse, 1975), the Attribution Style Questionnaire (Peterson et. al., 1982), and the MMPI-2 (Butcher, Dahlstrom, Graham, Telllegen, & Kaemmer, 1989).

Instrument Validity: Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

As will be highlighted below, the MBTI has yielded generally satisfactory split-half and test-retest reliabilities as well as similarly favorable validity measurements across a variety of studies. Validity research of the MBTI mainly focuses on the theoretical constructs of Carl Jung's personality theory. Examination of item content

concludes that the E-I, S-N and T-F scales seem largely consistent with the content of Jung's typological theory (Carlson, 1989; Carlyn, 1977; Gardner & Martinko, 1996; Lampe, 2004; Tzeng, Outcalt, Boyer, Ware, & Landis, 1984). Bradway (1964) studied 28 Jungian analysts by asking them to classify themselves according to the E-I, S-N and T-F type categories. Comparisons were then made between self-typing and MBTI typing. There was 100% agreement on E-I classification, 68% agreement on S-N, 61% agreement on T-F, and 43% agreement on all three dimensions. The E-I index proves to be remarkably valid for the sample.

Additional validity research correlated subjects' MBTI scores with their scores on the Gray-Wheelwright Questionnaire (1946), another instrument designed to identify Jungian personality theory. The Gray-Wheelwright Questionnaire is similar to the MBTI because it uses continuous scores to assign subjects to type categories (Carlyn, 1977). Bradway (1964) utilized the Gray-Wheelwright Questionnaire and the MBTI, with the same 28 Jungian analysts used in the research mentioned above. Comparing the scores on the two instruments, he found that 96% of the analysis received the same E-I classification with both tests, 75% received the same S-N classification, 72% received the same T-F classification, and 54% received identical classifications on all three dimensions with both tests.

Validity of MBTI construct has also been tested. Researchers have used factor analysis to investigate the relationship between the constructs measured by the MBTI and constructs measured by other tests (Tzeng et al., 1984). Factor analysis revealed that the four Jungian type dimensions formed a structure based on the Jungian theory the MBTI was created to test.

An item validity research study was conducted in 1984 using the MBTI administered to 444 college students and clerical employees (Tzeng et al., 1984). Participants were divided into three groups; males, females and mixed gender. Results indicated that the reliability coefficients for the four scales were rather high (.74-.85). Factor analysis on inter-correlations among all 95 items yielded simple structure with the empirical factors matching nearly perfectly with the theoretical scales of the MBTI. Tzeng et al. (1984), found that the MBTI is a reliable instrument and that the items would generate four distinct psychometric dimensions that are consistent with the theoretical constructs of the MBTI.

Numerous studies of construct validity summarized in this section suggest that the individual scales of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator measure important dimensions of personality which seem to be quite similar to those postulated by Jung. Findings indicate that the MBTI scores “relate significantly to a large number of variables including personality, ability, interest, value, aptitude and performance measures, academic choice and behavior ratings” (Mendelsohn, 1965, p. 322).

Statistical Procedures

Confidentiality of Data

The data collected by the researcher was delivered via electronic transfer from Consulting Psychologists Press (CPP) for the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and from Multi Health Systems (MHS) for the BarOn EQ-i. From the information received, the researcher transferred raw data into a spreadsheet for storage and later analysis. As stated earlier, all received data was added to an excel spreadsheet upon receipt. Hard copies of the reports were kept in a secure file cabinet until the research was fully completed. At

such time, the researcher crosscut shredded all reports. The researcher kept the data spreadsheet on a personal computer with a back-up copy stored on a private USB drive.

Data Analysis

Once collected, the data was analyzed utilizing the correlation coefficient, or the Pearson r correlation. The scale for the correlation coefficient goes from +1.0, representing a perfect positive correlation, to -1.0, representing a perfect negative correlation. When the Pearson r correlation is positive in value, the relationship is direct. The closer Pearson r is to +1.0, the stronger the relationship.

The score on this scale (r representing the correlation coefficient) was interpreted based on a scale offered by Guilford (1959); (a) $< .20$ equals a slight, almost negligible relationship; (b) $.20$ to $.40$ equals a low correlation, definite but small relationship; (c) $.40$ to $.70$ equals a moderate correlation and substantial relationship; (d) $.70$ to $.90$ equals a high correlation, marked relationship; and (e) $> .90$ equals a very high correlation and a strong dependable relationship. The Guilford scale provides a consistent means for interpreting the statistical correlation found in the study, and is to be evaluated in light of the p values, or significance levels. In this study, the significance level was set at $<.01$ in a two-tailed Pearson r correlation.

Software Used

Data collected was kept on a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet to highlight Myers-Briggs Type Indicator results and a separate worksheet was used to maintain the BarOn EQ-i results. All statistical calculations were completed by manual input and formula creation within Microsoft[®] Excel. As stated earlier, only raw data was kept for both inventories ensuring participant anonymity.

Summary

The methods for the proposed study are quantitative using the results of specific inventories. The focus of this study involves nonprofit professionals working in the Northwest. The researcher used the survey instruments created by Myers and Briggs to collect personality data and by BarOn to collect emotional intelligence scores. The overall objective is to find any relationship between personality preferences as outlined by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and emotional intelligence scores as highlighted by the BarOn EQ-i.

Chapter 4. Findings

This chapter reports the results of the current study. The first section states the purpose of the study. The second portion addresses the analysis and primary findings of the eight hypotheses, as well as the degree to which the hypotheses were supported by the data. The statistical procedures used are also explained as well as graphical representation of the findings.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine the extent correlations exist, if any, between specific personality traits and emotional intelligence scores. The study compared personality traits using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and emotional intelligence using the BarOn EQ-i. Thirty participants were determined to be the minimum sample size due to prior research and the measures used in the design. As stated in the Methods chapter, the criterion for participation was based on current employment with a nonprofit organization at the time of the study, their membership in nonprofit professional associations and their accepting the invitation to participate in this study. Participants completed both the MBTI and the BarOn EQ-i electronically from the researcher's secure website. A total of 758 email invitations were sent, with response from 42 individuals. Twelve participants were excluded from the data, as they did not complete both inventories. Therefore, a total of 30 ($N=30$) participants provided data for this study.

Analysis

The data used in the study were collected via scored data sets as received from completed self-report Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and BarOn EQ-i from the

participants. Multi Health Systems (MHS) formally scored the BarOn EQ-i and the MBTI scored by SkillsOne. The researcher analyzed the findings using the scored data sets through the statistical function in Microsoft Excel®. The researcher analyzed the data using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson r). The mean and range were also analyzed from the data.

Pearson r determines the existence (or nonexistence) of a statistically significant correlation (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993). The Pearson r is used when both of the variables contain scores such as with the MBTI and BarOn EQ-i. The Pearson r uses raw data to ascertain if a relationship exists or does not exist.

The r can have a value of anywhere between 1.00 and -1.00. The larger r , the stronger the association between the two variables the more accurately one can predict the existence of a relationship between the two variables. At its extreme, a correlation of 1.00 (or -1.00) means that the two variables are perfectly correlated, meaning the data will predict the values of one variable from the values of the other with perfect accuracy. At the other extreme, an r of zero implies an absence of a correlation and there is no relationship between the two variables. This represents that knowledge of one variable lends absolutely no information about what the value of the other variable is likely to be. The sign of the correlation implies the “direction” of the association. A positive value is representative of a positive relationship, meaning that relatively high scores on one variable will pair with relatively high scores on the other variable, and low scores are paired with relatively low scores. Contrary, a negative correlation means that relatively high scores on one variable are paired with relatively low scores on the other variable.

Regarding effect size, a correlation coefficient of 0.1 is small, 0.3 is moderate and 0.5 is considered large (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993).

Primary Findings

Results indicate that for every research question there was not a significant correlation between personality scores and the measured emotional intelligence scores. Both positive and negative correlations were found, but still no significant correlations.

Findings for Question 1

To what extent, if any, is a significant relationship between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and extraversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI. The answer to this question was not confirmed. A significant relationship between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and extraversion as rated on the EQ-I and the MBTI did not exist. The correlation between self-awareness and extraversion is 0.098. Thus, self-awareness as scored on the BarOn EQ-i does not relate to extraversion as scored on the MBTI. Both instruments are measuring different constructs.

Findings for Question 2

To what extent, if any, is a significant relationship between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and introversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI. The answer to this question was not confirmed. A significant relationship between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and introversion as rated on the EQ-I and the MBTI did not exist. The correlation between self-awareness and introversion is -0.429. Thus, self-awareness as scored on the BarOn EQ-i does not relate to introversion as scored on the MBTI. Both instruments are measuring different constructs.

Findings for Question 3

To what extent, if any, is a significant relationship between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and extraversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI. The answer to this question was not confirmed. A significant relationship between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and extraversion as rated on the EQ-I and the MBTI did not exist. The correlation between social interaction and extraversion is 0.076. Thus, social interaction as scored on the BarOn EQ-i does not relate to extraversion as scored on the MBTI. Both instruments are measuring different constructs.

Findings for Question 4

To what extent, if any, is a significant relationship between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and introversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI. The answer to this question was not confirmed. A significant relationship between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and introversion as rated on the EQ-I and the MBTI did not exist. The correlation between social interaction and introversion is 0.456. Thus, social interaction as scored on the BarOn EQ-i does not relate to introversion as scored on the MBTI. Both instruments are measuring different constructs.

Findings for Question 5

To what extent, if any, is a significant relationship between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and thinking as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI. The answer to this question was not confirmed. A significant relationship between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and thinking as rated on the EQ-I and the MBTI did not exist. The correlation between self-awareness and thinking is 0.151. Thus, self-

awareness as scored on the BarOn EQ-i does not relate to thinking as scored on the MBTI. Both instruments are measuring different constructs.

Findings for Question 6

To what extent, if any, is no significant relationship between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and feeling as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI. The answer to this question was not confirmed. A significant relationship between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and feeling as rated on the EQ-I and the MBTI did not exist. The correlation between self-awareness and feeling is -0.228. Thus, self-awareness as scored on the BarOn EQ-i does not relate to feeling as scored on the MBTI. Both instruments are measuring different constructs.

Findings for Question 7

To what extent, if any, is a significant relationship between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and thinking as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI. The answer to this question was not confirmed. A significant relationship between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and thinking as rated on the EQ-I and the MBTI did not exist. The correlation between social interaction and thinking is -0.160. Thus, social interaction as scored on the BarOn EQ-i does not relate to thinking as scored on the MBTI. Both instruments are measuring different constructs.

Findings for Question 8

To what extent, if any, is a significant relationship between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and feeling as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI. The answer to this question was not confirmed. A significant relationship between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and feeling as rated on the EQ-I and the MBTI did not

exist. The correlation between social interaction and feeling is 0.184. Thus, social interaction as scored on the BarOn EQ-i does not relate to feeling as scored on the MBTI. Both instruments are measuring different constructs.

Chapter 5. Discussion

This chapter will present a summary of the research, as well as several implications resulting from the findings of this study. Limitations will be addressed as well as suggestions for further research. Support will be highlighted between the literature and former research confirming the findings. The section will conclude with the advantages and disadvantages of using measurement tools to distinguish leadership and the importance of integrating emotional intelligence in the workplace.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine to what extent there are correlations between personality traits and emotional intelligence scores, if any. Specifically, the study assessed whether the personality traits of gaining personal energy (introversion and extraversion) and making decisions (thinking and feeling) correlated with the emotional intelligence scores of self awareness and social interaction. Personality traits were identified through the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and emotional intelligence was identified through the BarOn EQ-i. Nonprofit professionals were asked to participate and complete both inventories electronically.

This dissertation attempts to answer the following research questions: (a) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and extraversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (b) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and introversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (c) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and extraversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (d) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction

emotional intelligence scores and introversion as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (e) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and thinking as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (f) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between self-awareness emotional intelligence scores and feeling as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (g) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and thinking as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?; (h) To what extent, if any is there a correlation between social interaction emotional intelligence scores and feeling as rated on the EQ-i and the MBTI?

Implication of the Findings

The emotional intelligence and personality trait attributes measured do not correlate with one another proving that both instruments measure two separate constructs. While correlations do not exist and the hypotheses were not confirmed, this research is important as it supports previous findings that the instruments measure separate constructs.

Limitations of the Study

As outlined in the Findings chapter, the results indicate that for every research question there a significant correlation between personality scores and the measured emotional intelligence score did not exist; meaning that the MBTI and the BarOn EQ-i measure different attributes and are not interchangeable. This finding is consistent with other data and supports previous theories separating personality from emotional intelligence. The fact that a correlation does not exist between any of the research questions allows for the interpretation that not only is personality a different attribute

than emotional intelligence, but that each inventory is validated as measuring what it claims to measure.

Limitation 1

The current study does not determine if one inventory is superior to the other. The inventories used in this study were selected for use based on their validity and ease of administration. As stated previously in the literature review, there are several personality and emotional intelligence tests available. It is not certain if this research were replicated utilizing different inventories that results would remain the same.

Limitation 2

The research sample was limited to nonprofit professionals working in a specific geographical area. The sample size of 30 further confines the findings. Conducting this study with a larger sample size in a greater geographical area should strengthen current findings.

Limitation 3

This study uses two specific inventories only, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the BarOn EQ-i. Therefore the findings are only applicable to the use of the MBTI and the BarOn EQ-i. While these two inventories are used in several research studies and validated for use in collecting empirical data there are several other personality and emotional intelligence inventories available for use.

Limitation 4

The results support the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the BarOn EQ-i measure two separate constructs. These results do not indicate which inventory is the superior

precursor to employment, or better predictor of success. And finally, the results do not renounce the criticisms of either construct.

As discussed in the Literature Review chapter, nonprofit organizations strive to hire individuals that will make a significant positive impact. In an effort to “hire smart,” nonprofit organizations are using measurement tools as a precursor to employment. When an organization is looking for specific personality traits in their personnel, then the MBTI is a valid and accurate instrument to gather the desired information. While other research has already stipulated this to be the case, nonprofit professionals have never been the sole research population. This study does not validate that one inventory is a superior predictor of success than the other, but in its entirety, this study should assist nonprofit organizations understand the differences between personality and emotional intelligence. By understanding the differences between emotional intelligence and personality traits, appropriate uses of the inventories can be implemented in the workplace by managers and human resources.

Nonprofit services will continue through fundraising and volunteer management as well as the creation of a shared vision and healthy strategic plan. Success in those instrumental areas is extremely dependent on the attributes of the employee and their ability to possess strong leadership skills, build effective teams and relationships with their constituents. Because emotional intelligence is a learned intelligence, it is hoped that this study helped to outline and explain its importance in the workplace.

Current Research Impact on the Independent Sector

The current dissertation, in its entirety, is a condensed document highlighting the differences between emotional intelligence and personality. The understanding of these

differences along with the comprehension of what makes a successful leader will assist the independent sector in determining the best means for making good hires. The findings reveal that personality inventories will only measure personality and is not a significant link to success. Further research should be considered by organizations prior to making hiring decisions based on inventory results.

Use of Inventories as a Precursor to Employment

In 1998, 45% of a 1,000 member companies reported administering one or more tests to job applicants, especially with managers and higher-level leadership positions (Prewitt, 2005). The US Air Force participated in a leadership review study and learned nearly 25% of all recruiters hired within their first year were performing below standards. After combining emotional intelligence screening as a precursor to employment and hiring only top-scoring candidates, the Air Force was able to predict the successful recruiters by threefold, reducing attrition and cutting financial costs substantially (Bar-On et al., 2005). Several other examples of companies using emotional intelligence tests to recruit or promote people into leadership roles exist. All of the companies investing in this activity experienced positive results with the outcomes.

Why do these inventories work? Results can point to aspects of the candidate's social or self-management skills that bear further investigation and or development to make that person more successful. Research also shows that when an individual is doing well in their position they will continue to on their upward climb because they will see positive results among their team, their outcome and ultimately their loyalty to the organization deepens. That being said, it is a risky practice for organizations to utilize personality and/or emotional intelligence inventories as a means of promotion. This risk

puts the organization on thin ice as they presume through inventory testing they have promoted the best individual and then set unrealistic expectations for the employee and their team.

The inventories could be used as a precursor to employment if they were used for specific employment positions. For instance, if a company is looking for a candidate who can work independently, in a tedious and meticulous fashion, a personality inventory could be useful. If a nonprofit is just beginning, the personality inventory could be utilized, creating a better sense and understanding of the new hires. Inventories would be most useful if employers used the information to tailor the employees' workload, responsibilities and team management.

Significance and Value of Emotional Intelligence

Peter Drucker (1990) states that leadership is dynamic in nature not stagnate. Leaders must be capable of building relationships, motivating others and anticipating crisis. Change is opportunity and nonprofits must operate under this philosophy, as their goals are moving targets based on public need. As stated in the literature review, research states other intelligences than IQ make up 80% of the success in a leader. EQ is one of the intelligences and the more developed an individual's EQ, the more opportunity one has to lead change and make a significant impact in their organization. "Leadership is a foul-weather job," notes Peter Drucker (1990, pg. 9). Nonprofit organizations have to face the foul weather more frequently as their bottom line is not as tangible as that in the for profit sector. Nonprofits operating with the philosophy that change is opportunity must have leaders that are capable to build relationships, motivate others, and most importantly, anticipate crisis (Drucker, 1990).

Emotional intelligence is the denominator for being successful in building relationships, motivating others and anticipating crises. Strong emotional intelligence makes the difference as a high functioning leader will be able to read the emotions of others and the climate and internalize these findings to make appropriate decisions. Nonprofit organizations build success through relationships established with their board of directors, donors and the population they serve. Relationships must be strategic and personal; they must be genuine and authentic; and nonprofit employees must have a high level of integrity. Nonprofit organizations rely so heavily on relationships due to the benefits of a successful bond – a charitable donation, organizational loyalty and a commitment to serve.

As government funding begins to decrease in the independent sector, donors are essential to continued programming. Relationships involve communication, the ability to understand the intentions and needs of others and to make appropriate decisions that will be in the best interest of all parties involved. Emotional intelligence is a valuable component when building professional relationships with colleagues as well as constituents. Emotional intelligence is the ability to be self-aware as well as aware of the feelings and needs of others. The pinnacle of emotional intelligence is the ability to use the information to make decisions. The more skilled an individual is at reading the emotions of self and others, the more effective the decision will be.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Leadership Research finds the superior leader to possess several characteristics: a higher self-confidence, effective emotional reading of others, a deeper personal motivation level while having the ability to persuade others, greater interpersonal skills

and the ability to drive emotions positively (Ashkanasy, 2003; George, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Goleman et. al., 2002; Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer & Salovey, 1995; Palmer, 2001). All of the aforementioned attributes are the foundation to emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence includes the ability to motivate individuals in a socially appropriate manner. Motivation research has found that in order for long-term change to persist the reality of the current situation must align with the ideal. Change management operates on this very premise, moving from the what-is to the what-could-be (Bridges, 1991). Leaders have significant impact on followers if they implement productive motivation skills. Three of the most charismatic leaders motivated their followers to implement severe change and all of them made history: Hitler, Stalin and Mao. Of course most of today's leaders seek positive change, but the point is, without motivation from the leader, change is infeasible. Positive motivation will lead to commitment from the person and the organization stands to reap a great benefit from that commitment. Thus, it is clear to see why emotional intelligence is an integral component any leader, including in the nonprofit sector.

Recommendations for Future Study

The literature review discusses the differences, strengths and validity of emotional intelligence and personality. This discussion states that personality differs from emotional intelligence as measured by the MBTI and Bar-On EQi. This is important work as it supports the validation of the differences between the two inventories. It is recommended that more personality and emotional intelligence research be completed, not to further promote the differences but to find support and make recommendation as to which construct is the better predictor of professional success.

Longitudinal Study

Research using both the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the BarOn EQ-i correlated with job success could advocate how organizations should spend their resources when hiring employees or implement leadership training. This type of study could include a multiple regression with a dependent variable as a measure for success. While there are several valid leadership inventories available, when compared with emotional intelligence scores, a longitudinal study may reveal the important relationship the two constructs play.

This type of study could also include educational doctorates with a tested high emotional intelligence score and their professional success and leadership skills. There are several leadership inventories available to assist with this type of study. Results may stipulate that the higher an individual's emotional intelligence the greater success incurred and the better leadership skills employed. This would prove helpful in the training and curriculum of post-graduate degrees. In addition, findings would benefit executive coaches in seeking tangible exercises to further develop the leadership skills in their clients.

Pre-Test/Post-Test Research

To further support the notion that personality differs from emotional intelligence both the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the BarOn EQ-i could be used in a pre-test/post-test research design with an emotional intelligence-training component administered between inventories. The results may corroborate that emotional intelligence can be learned and personality is inherent and invariant in individuals.

Results may also highlight the importance of improving emotional intelligence within their current employees.

Correlational Study

Many nonprofit organizations require higher education degrees for upper level positions. A descriptive research design using both personality and emotional inventories while also collecting the educational background of the participants may prove beneficial. This type research may produce data that states success is not always a predictor based on education levels.

Summary

Regardless of sector status, organizations cannot afford to be perennially locked in a stagnant pattern, failing to implement positive change and create opportunity. This would prove devastating, even to the best organizations and would make an impact on society for the nonprofit organization as a public program or service may become extinct due to a flat growth pattern. Regardless of the known outcomes, this type of failure will have a crippling affect on public needs and services offered to a growing underprivileged population though governmental funding is dwindling. Success for the nonprofit is to continue service, add programs and remain fiscally responsible and sustainable. The nonprofit organization must create its success through a solid vision and efficient planning as well as smart hiring practices, training and leadership opportunities.

To meet the challenges and demands, nonprofit organizations are hiring consultants to assist with creating their success. Many consultants begin working with the leadership and make efforts for the organization to become more aligned with their reality and the ideal so that changes implemented will endure. Leadership is the ability to

articulate and showcase the mission and vision of the organization. Leadership also includes the ability to create powerful teams that will assist with implementing the mission. Research has proven the superiority of group decision making over that of even the most brilliant individual in the group (Goleman et al., 2002). However, if the group lacks synergy and harmony, group decision-making can result in worse outcomes than if one individual made all of the decisions without consultation or advisement. Therefore groups with a higher skill set of emotional intelligence qualities will create superior results (Goleman et al., 2002). With the compelling leadership research and the understanding of emotional intelligence, it seems that using emotional intelligence measurement tool has its advantages.

The nonprofit sector has matured out of necessity to survive and has more influence, higher public profile and focuses more attention to accountability and organizational performance than ever before. As the literature states, attracting, training and retaining successful employees will help organizations gain a competitive edge while enhancing their success, thus public service to the community. Nonprofit organizations need the discipline of organized abandonment possibly even more than a for-profit business. Nonprofits need to confront critical choices and make informed decisions to maintain their position in the global community.

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APPENDIX A

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Personality Table

Table A1.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Personality Table

S	S	N	N	
I	ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ J
I	ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP P
E	ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP P
E	ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ J
T	F	F	T	

APPENDIX B

Dissertation Website Review

Welcome to the Dissertation Research Website for Suzan L. Huntington

INVITATION:

You are invited to participate in research being conducted by Suzan L. Huntington, Doctoral Candidate at Pepperdine University.

RESEARCH DISSERTATION TITLE:

Relationship between Emotional Intelligence Scores and Specific Personality Traits with Nonprofit Professionals Working in the Northwest

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE:

Determine if any relationships exist between personality traits as identified on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and emotional intelligence scores as determined by the BarOn EQ-i (133).

Why Emotional Intelligence and Personality Trait Testing:

Abundant research exists regarding the impact IQ has on personal success. In fact, most research concurs, about 20% of personal academic and occupational status is merited to IQ (Mayer and Salovey, 1995). Psychologists have yet to understand what predicts the other 80% of success in these areas. Understanding the concepts of general cognitive intelligence, emotional intelligence and personality will assist human resource departments to differentiate among the terms whereby using appropriate inventories at their organizations.

Many of the organizations using personality inventories are nonprofit organizations as they can not afford to have a high degree of employee turnover as they rely on the relationships built between employee and constituency. Thus, the question remains, "Are personality inventories a better predictor of success than emotional intelligence?" This study does not answer that question specifically; however upon completion, it will highlight any relationships between personality and emotional intelligence. The understanding of the differences and/or relationships will establish appropriate uses for the workplace to implement either emotional intelligence or personality inventories.

Participation:

Those willing to participate in the current research are doing so voluntarily. By volunteering to participate you will complete two inventories, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the BarOn EQ-i (133). All participants will remain anonymous, will not receive compensation and will need approximately one hour to complete both inventories.

If you choose to participate you will need to create a personal username and complete BOTH the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the BarOn EQ-i (133).

By completing both the Myers Briggs Type Indicator and the BarOn EQ-i, you are consenting to participate in the current study.

If you have questions at anytime throughout your participation, please contact the researcher in the following manner:

Suzan Huntington
Phone: XXX.XXX.XXXX
Email: XXXXX@pepperdine.edu

CREATE USERNAME:

Your username will be used for both the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the BarOn EQ-i (133).

You will use your username anytime you are asked to give your first and last name on both the MBTI and the BarOn EQ-i (133).

To create your personal username you need a minimum of five letters and two numbers. You MUST use this same username for both inventories. You will use this username as your first and last name when completing both inventories.

Once you have created your username, write it down as reference for each inventory. After you have created your username click on each inventory link and follow the instructions listed below to complete both the MBTI and the BarOn EQ-i (133).

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) Instruction:

www.online.cpp.com

1. Click on the above link to connect to the MBTI assessment website and follow the instructions below.
2. Enter the following:
 - a. Login: Suzan
 - b. Password: Huntington1
 - c. Leave the User ID blank
 - d. The login and password are case sensitive; should you have a login error, verify you have entered the login and password correctly.
3. Click LOGIN
4. Click BEGIN
5. Under BACKGROUND INFORMATION enter the following:
 - a. First Name: Type your username
 - b. Last Name: Type your username
 - c. Leave Personal ID blank
 - d. Do not forget to write down your personal username: you will use it again to

complete the BarOn EQ-i (133).

6. Click CONTINUE

BarOn EQ-i (133) Instruction:

www.mhsassessments.com

1. Click on the above link to connect to the BarOn EQ-i (133) assessment website.
2. In the sign in box on the right side of the screen, enter the following:
 - a. CODE: 3472-001-sue
 - b. PASSWORD: research
3. Click LOGIN
4. If you agree to the terms and conditions listed in the PERMITTED ACCESS box, click "I ACCEPT" to continue.
5. Read the instructions on the next web-page carefully. When you are ready to begin, click CONTINUE:

"Complete the assessment in one session, without breaks. Provide a response for each item. Read each statement and decide which one of the five possible responses best describes you. Be sure to answer honestly. Some items might seem to have obvious responses; even so, the responses are not right or wrong. Choose the response that best represents you."

6. Under PERSONAL IDENTIFICATION enter the following:
 - a. FIRST NAME: Type your username; the same username used in the MBTI
 - b. LAST NAME: Type your username
 - c. Leave AGE blank
 - d. Leave GENDER blank
7. Click CONTINUE

COMMENTS:

By completing both the Myers Briggs Type Indicator and the BarOn EQ-i, you are consenting to participate in the current study. If you have questions at anytime throughout your participation, please contact the researcher in the following manner:
Suzan Huntington

Phone: XXX.XXX.XXXX

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As a participant, once you begin taking the inventories, you are able to quit at anytime and you do not need to answer every question on the inventories. Because participation is

anonymous, job status will not be affected by refusal to participate or by withdrawal from the study. At any time during this study, the researcher is available to answer questions.

NOTES FROM THE RESEARCHER:

Thank you for considering participating in the current research. Time is a valuable commodity and I appreciate the time you have spent to complete both inventories. Thank you!

I anticipate completing the final defense of my dissertation in May 2006. If you are interested in viewing the entire dissertation please check back to this website in July 2006 for a complete copy of the research.

If you would like to read about personality traits or emotional intelligence I have included a reading list below.

Again, thank you for your time and participation. I am able to complete my doctorate after four years because you have assisted in the data collection process.

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Personality Trait Theory and Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

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Running head: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EQ AND PERSONALITY

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CORRELATIONAL STUDY BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCORES AND
SPECIFIC PERSONALITY TRAITS OF PROFESSIONALS WORKING IN THE
NONPROFIT SECTOR IN THE NORTHWEST

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

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