

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

**INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON JOB
PERFORMANCE**

BY

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DECLARATION

Candidate's declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

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Candidate's Signature Date:.....

Supervisor's declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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ABSTRACT

Emotional intelligence (EI) has become a familiar term among educators, counselors, and business leaders alike. The influence of emotional intelligence on job performance was tested among 43 instructional staff from Opportunities Industrialization Centre, Ghana. The general objective of the study was to assess the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance.

A 25item Boston EI questionnaire and job performance evaluation form was used to measure the participants' level of emotional intelligence and job performance. The results showed a correlation between emotional intelligence and job performance indicating that an increase in emotional intelligence leads to an increase in job performance. This relationship was weak and not significant under a Pearson's correlation test (chi-square). The research also showed that most respondents between the ages of 30 – 39 years needed remedial work on their emotional intelligence.

Also there was no difference in EI (including the elements of EI) in terms of gender. Likewise, job performance was not different with respect to gender. The research recommended that management educate the entire staff, especially, the HR department on the importance of EI on job improvement through organizing of seminars and workshops.

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DEDICATION

To My Husband, Mr. Isaac Maxwell Ekow Ackon and Children,

FiiFi Duncan Ackon and Isaac Maxwell Paka Ackon

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Emotional intelligence (EI) in organizational configurations has dramatic turn in recent decades. Around the globe have organizational environments radical changes following the end of 1990 have seen the development of organizational behavior. The early 20th Century saw the emergence of the concept of emotional intelligence. In the 1990s it became a topic of great interest. When Salovey and Mayer coined the term emotional intelligence in 1990, they were aware of the previous work on non-cognitive aspects of intelligence. They described emotional intelligence as "a form 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 action". Daniel Goleman also became aware of Salovey and Mayer's work, and this eventually led to his book, Emotional Intelligence. It is more useful and interesting to consider how important Emotional Intelligence is for effective performance at work.

Practitioners have incorporated the concept of emotional intelligence into performance management systems and training and development programs as the result of the influence of the popular press and consultants. At this point in time, practices related to embracing emotional intelligence appear to be far ahead of what is actually known from the research and theory.

Researchers in the field of HRD have also looked at the role of emotions and emotional intelligence. The question asked by many of these authors is what role are emotions and/or emotional intelligence playing in the organization through change efforts, leadership effectiveness, training and organizational performance.

According to Yao Yan-hong (2009), theory suggests that individuals who are higher in emotional intelligence are likely to exhibit a higher level of performance. Yan-hong's work studied the influence of emotional intelligence on job performance, task performance and contextual performance, and explored the moderating effects of leadership. The research results show that the emotional intelligence has a significant positive correlation with job performance, task performance and contextual performance respectively, and emotional intelligence has stronger effects on contextual performance than task performance. In addition, transactional leadership has no moderating effect on emotional intelligence-job performance relationship, and transformational leadership only moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and contextual performance.

In the workplace stress framework, many scholars think that occupational stress, emotional intelligence and job performance are distinct constructs, but strongly interrelated. For example, the ability of employees to properly manage their emotions and other employees' emotions will increase the ability of employees to cope with physiological and psychological stresses in implementing job. As a result, it may lead to higher job performance in organizations (Bar-On, 1997, Gillespie, N.A., & et al, Spector & Goh, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

The furious pace of change in business today poses difficulty to manage relationships which sabotage business more than anything else – it is not a question of strategy that gets us into trouble, it is a question of emotions. Researchers and professionals of management and human behaviour ignored the importance of emotions and the ability (intelligence) of handling the emotions in day-to-day life situations till such a concept of Emotional intelligence was highlighted by Daniel Goleman in a book published during 1995. Goleman (1995; 1998a; 1998b; 2000) has made the case through his many writings that the key to effectiveness and success in an organization is emotional intelligence. His premise also challenged conventional thinking, in that the emotions are important to consider in relation to one's effectiveness.

Emotions and emotional intelligence are no longer considered taboo in the workplace today. And it is that, that provides the foundation for performance. Since the publication of Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 1995), the business writings in this area have exploded. The scholarly support of the claims made in these books however is behind the business leaders' perceptions of the impact of high emotional intelligence on effectiveness and success.

A better understanding of emotional intelligence and its relationship with job performance can address the gap in the literature. It is believed that learning difficulties as well as various problems of maladjustment at the workplace is due to the poorly developed emotional awareness, which when developed help people to respond to a variety of environmental situations.

These and many more concerns today confront work organizations, both public and private. Since majority of these concerns involve people in different roles, emotional intelligence must become a determining factor for their effective management. In virtually every case, emotional intelligence must play an important role in handling the concern. For instance, while dealing with the process of change in an organization a lot of emotions get generated which may range from very positive to very negative. This requires ability on the part of both the employer and the employees to perceive and understand the emotional impact of change on self and others. The quality of relationships within an organization significantly impacts productivity or the quality of the product itself.

Opportunities Industrialization Centres, Ghana (OICG) as an organization is no exception. If OICG has existed through many years without knowing and understanding what emotional intelligence is all about let alone incorporating the concept of emotional intelligence into performance management systems, recruitment and selection processes, training and development programs, then it becomes a paradox. It is for this reason that this research was undertaken to look into the Emotional Intelligence and performance Levels of instructional staff and how Emotional Intelligence influences job performance of instructional staff.

Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study is to assess the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance.

Specifically the study seeks to:

1. Ascertain the level of emotional intelligence of OICG instructional staff.
2. Examine the job performance level of OICG instructional staff.
3. Discuss the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance of OICG instructional staff.

Research Questions

The questions the research sought to answer are as follows:

1. What are the levels of emotional intelligence of OICG instructional staff?
2. What are the performance levels of OICG instructional staff?
3. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance of OICG instructional staff?

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study can be viewed from three perspectives: The researcher believes that the findings of this research would be a source of reference for a more comprehensive investigation into performance issues of OICG. The findings of this research will help Human Resource Department in OICG to restructure their recruitment and selection processes. The outcome of the study will give Management of OICG the basis to plan training programmes for staff.

Organisation of the Study

The dissertation is presented in five chapters. The first part of the study discusses the problem uncovered by the researcher and provides ample background on the topic. The chapter constitutes an introduction to the whole study, statement of the problem, objective of the study, the research questions, and the significance of the study.

Chapter Two presents the pertinent theoretical and empirical literature on emotional intelligence competencies and job performance. Chapter Three discusses the methods and procedures used in the study. The chapter outlines the study design and the data collection methods employed. It also presents the research instrument used and the techniques employed to analyse the data.

Chapter Four discusses the findings of the study. Chapter Five comprises three sections, the summary of the findings, the conclusions of the study and the recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

As part of the study, some theories and models of emotional intelligence and job performance are reviewed in this chapter. This includes empirical evidence and theoretical issues on the influence of emotional intelligence and job performance.

Empirical Evidence

Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance

A growing research literature suggests that Emotion Quotient (EQ)- some people refer to it as EI may play a far more important role in career success and job performance than general intelligence. A meta-analysis of 69 independent studies explored the predictive validity of emotional intelligence with diverse job performance outcomes (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). Results suggested diverse measures of EQ correlated 0.23 with job performance ($k=19$, $N=4158$) and 0.22 with general mental ability.

The success of practical workplace application involving the emotional intelligence and the results of empirical research investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and crucial work-related factors suggest that emotional intelligence of employees is an important aspect of organization.

Goleman (1995). Goleman (2001) found that emotional intelligence is positively related to job performance.

Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler and Mayer (1999) found in another study that individuals who scored higher in the ability to perceive accurately, understand, and appraise others emotions were better able to respond flexibly to changes in their social environments and build supportive social networks

Bar-On (2006) assessed the relation between emotional intelligence with a performance measure, and positive workplace outcomes and was examined in 44 analysts and clerical employees from the finance department of a Fortune 400 insurance company. Emotionally intelligent individuals received greater merit increases and held higher company rank than their counterparts. They also received better peer and/or supervisor ratings of interpersonal facilitation and stress tolerance than their counterparts. With few exceptions, these associations remained statistically significant after controlling for other predictors, one at a time, including age, gender, education, verbal ability, the Big Five personality traits, and trait affect.

Goleman (1998) conducted research on EI-based competencies with the data collected from several hundred organizations and concluded that emotional competencies were twice as prevalent among distinguishing competencies as were technical skills and purely cognitive abilities combined.

Wong and Law (2002) found that the interaction between employee-rated emotional demands and emotional intelligence was a significant predictor of job performance. The interaction between supervisor-rated

emotional demands and emotional intelligence, however, was not a significant predictor of job performance by conventional standards.

Cote and Miners (2006) research on EI and job performance show mixed results: a positive relation has been found in some of the studies, in others there was no relation or an inconsistent one. This led researchers Cote and Miners (2006) to offer a compensatory model between EI and IQ that posits that the association between EI and job performance becomes more positive as cognitive intelligence decreases, an idea first proposed in the context of academic performance.

Law, 2007 in the journal on the effects of emotional intelligence on job performance and life satisfaction for the research and development scientists in China, results showed that a self-reported EI scale developed for Chinese respondents, the WLEIS, is a better predictor of job performance than the scale developed in the U.S., the MSCEIT.

Dunn and Salovey (2007) examined whether people who are high in emotional intelligence (EI) make more accurate forecasts about their own affective responses to future events. All participants completed a performance measure of EI (the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test) as well as a self-report measure of EI. Affective forecasting ability was assessed using a longitudinal design in which participants were asked to predict how they would feel and report their actual feelings following three events in three different domains: politics, academics and sports. Across these events, individual differences in forecasting ability were predicted by participants' scores on the performance measure, but not the self-report measure, of EI;

high-EI individuals exhibited greater affective forecasting accuracy. Emotion management, a subcomponent of EI, emerged as the strongest predictor of forecasting ability.

Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall and Salovey (2006) examined the relation between EI, as measured by the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and workplace outcomes of 44 analysts and clerical employees from the finance department of a Fortune 400 insurance company. Results revealed that high EI employees received greater merit increases and held higher company rank than their counterparts. These employees also received better peer and/or supervisor ratings of interpersonal facilitation and stress tolerance. With few exceptions, relations between EI and workplace outcomes remained statistically significant after controlling for other predictors, including age, gender, education, verbal ability, the Big Five personality traits, and trait affect.

Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner and Salovey (2006) examined the relationship between self-report and performance measures of EI and the role of EI in actual social competence, as measured by evaluating participants' observable behaviors in a social interaction with a same sex confederate. Participants were undergraduate college students affiliated with 3 different universities. Results of the studies yielded two primary findings: (a) self-ratings of EI, as assessed by the Self-Rated Emotional Intelligence Scale (SREIS), and performance measures of EI, as assessed by the MSCEIT, were not strongly correlated; and (b) after statistically controlling for personality, the MSCEIT was associated with perceived and actual social competence for men, whereas the SREIS was generally unrelated to social competence for

both genders. Results indicated that perceptions of one's EI and emotional abilities are not an accurate indicator of EI and actual social competence.

Côté and Miners (2006) examined how intelligence and cognitive intelligence are associated with job performance in Toronto, Canada. The authors developed and tested a compensatory model that posits that the association between emotional intelligence and job performance becomes more positive as cognitive intelligence decreases. The study reported results of a study in which employees completed tests of emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence, and their task performance and organizational citizenship behavior which were assessed by their supervisors. Hypotheses from the model were supported for task performance and organizational citizenship behavior directed at the organization, but not for organizational citizenship behavior directed at the individuals. The authors discussed the theoretical implications and managerial ramifications of model and findings.

Thomas, Tram and Hara (2006) examined the relationship among employees' job satisfaction, and performance for 187 food service employees from nine different locations of the same restaurant franchise in the United States of America. The study predicted and found that employees' emotional intelligence was positively associated with job satisfaction and performance. In addition, managers emotional intelligence was found to have a more positive correlation with job satisfaction for employees with low emotional intelligence than for those high emotional intelligence. The findings from this study remained significant after controlling personality factors. A similar pattern was found for job performance, but the effect did not meet traditional standards for significance.

Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) sought to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI), personality, cognitive intelligence and leadership effectiveness in Australia. Sample of senior executives was used to complete an ability measure of emotional intelligence (EI), a measure of personality and a measure of cognitive ability (the Wechsler abbreviated scale of intelligence (WASI). Leadership effectiveness was assessed using an objective measure of performance and a 360° assessment involving each leader's subordinates and direct manager. Correlational and regression analyses revealed that higher emotional intelligence (EI) was associated with higher leadership effectiveness, and that emotional intelligence (EI) explained variance not explained by either personality or IQ. This study established a link between emotional intelligence (EI) and workplace measure of leadership effectiveness.

A study by Kenneth, Wong, and Xiaoxuan (2008) focused on the effect of emotional intelligence (EI) on job performance among research and development scientists in China. The authors argued that emotional intelligence (EI) is a significant predictor of job performance beyond the effect of the General Mental Ability (GMA) battery on performance. According to them, this predictor effect is supported by results on a study of research and development scientists working for a large computer company in China. The results also show that a self-reported emotional intelligence (EI) scale developed for Chinese respondents, the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS), is a predictor of job performance than the scale developed in the United States, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). Implications of the findings are discussed.

Crystal, Chien, Myeong-Gu and Paul (2012) advanced understanding of the role of ability-based emotional intelligence(EI) and its sub-dimensions in the workplace by examining the mechanisms and context-based boundary conditions of the emotional intelligence (EI) and job performance relationship in the United States of America. Using a trait activation framework, this study theorize that employees with higher overall emotional intelligence (EI) and emotional perception ability exhibit higher teamwork effectiveness (and subsequent job performance) when working in job contexts characterized by high managerial work demands because such contexts contain salient emotion-based cues that activate employees' emotional capabilities. A sample of 212 professionals from various organizations and industries indicated support for the salutary effect of emotional intelligence (EI), above and beyond the influence of personality, cognitive ability, emotional labor job demands, job complexity, and demographic control variables. Theoretical and practical implications of the potential value of emotional intelligence (EI) for workplace outcomes under contexts involving managerial complexity are discussed.

Jordan, Neal and Charmine (2002) discussed emotional intelligence as a moderator of emotional and behavioral reactions to job insecurity. The model used in this study is based on the idea that emotional variables explain, in part discrepant findings reported in previous research. In particular, the study proposed that emotional intelligence moderates employees' emotional reactions to job insecurity and their ability to cope with associated stress. In this respect, low emotional intelligence employees are more likely than high emotional intelligence employees to experience negative emotional reactions to job insecurity and to adopt negative coping strategies.

Afolabi, Awosola and Omole (2010) examined the influence of emotional intelligence and gender on job performance and job satisfaction among Police Officers in Nigeria. The study employed a two by two (2x2) factorial design as well as multiple regressions with emotional intelligence and gender as the independent variables. One hundred and nineteen police officers were randomly selected from Esan Area Command. The results show that Police Officers who are of high emotional intelligence are more satisfied and perform better than Police Officers who are of low emotional intelligence. Also, respondents who have male or female roles with high emotional intelligence perform better and more satisfied with their job than respondents who have male or female roles with low emotional intelligence.

Carmeli (2003) suggested that managerial skills in general, and emotional intelligence in particular, play a significant role in the success of senior managers in the workplace. The study attempted to empirically examine the extent to which senior managers with a high emotional intelligence employed in public sector organizations develop positive work attitudes, behavior and outcomes in Israel. The results from the study indicate that emotional intelligence augments positive work attitudes, altruistic behavior and work outcomes, and moderates the effect of work-family conflict on career commitment but not the effect on job satisfaction.

In recent years, emotional intelligence (EI) has been a popular topic of debate in the field of management. It has been praised as a successful predictor of job performance and leadership ability. Authors have also claimed that emotional intelligence predicts success at school. Natalie, Jackson and Sharon (2010) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, as measured

by the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (TEIQue SF) and academic performance in a sample of undergraduate's business students in Florida, United States of America. Emotional Intelligence was found to be associated with work experience. Despite this finding, emotional intelligence was not significantly associated with academic achievements; however, students in the mid-range Grade Point Average (GPA) had a significantly higher mean 'well-being' factor score than students in the lower and higher-range Grade Point Average (GPA).

To review the efficacy of the emotional intelligence (EI) construct in organizational studies, a study by Shahzad, Sarmad, Abbas and Khan (2011) focused on the impact of emotional intelligence (EI) on employee's performance among telecom employees in Pakistan. The study examined the impact of four significant aspect of emotional intelligence (EI) that is self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. Data was collected from five telecom companies by using questionnaires. The results revealed that a positive relationship exists between social awareness and relationship management and employee's performance while self-awareness and self-management were not found significantly related to employee's performance. The study recommends the need for telecom sector to consider meaningful features of emotional intelligence (EI) as a strong predictor for efficient performance of employees.

Krishnakumar (2008) examined the role of emotional intelligence (EI) on individual attitudinal and performance outcomes. Specifically, this study argues that Emotional Intelligence (EI) may be an important determinant of employee job satisfaction, turnover intention, and performance. Further, these

effects are expected to be most pronounced in job functions with higher emotional requirements. Data collected from two hundred and seventy-eight (278) law enforcement and health care employees provided no support for these propositions. After testing a series of hypotheses related to the effects of emotional intelligence, the study found that emotional intelligence (EI) did not have any effect on job satisfaction, turnover intention, and job performance.

Yusof (2007) investigated the relationship of selected independent variables: emotional intelligence dimensions (self-management, relationship-management and communication), organizational commitment dimensions (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment) and job performance, determined the significant difference in job performance between each group of administrators and finally, determined the predictor variables of job performance in Malaysia. Data were collected from a hundred and fifty-two (152), randomly selected administrator from a public university, using self-administered questionnaires. Overall, the study revealed that the administrators' job performance and its dimensions were high. The level of emotional intelligence and its dimensions: self-management, relationship-management and communication were relatively high. Their level of organization commitment was moderate. However, high level of affective commitment was reported, moderate level of continuance commitment but low level of normative commitment. One-Way ANOVA test revealed that there was a significant job performance difference within work load level of administrators. Posthoc Turkey test also revealed that there was a significant job performance difference between age group 20-29 years old and

age group > 49 years old as it increased progressively for each older age group.

Shaun, Arla and Catano (2000) determined the relationship of emotional intelligence, cognitive ability, and personality with academic achievement. Emotional Intelligence was assessed using the EQ-i (total EQ-i score and five EQ-i composite factor scores). Both cognitive ability and personality (in terms of extraversion and self-control) were significantly associated with academic achievements. None of the EQ-i factor scores, nor the total EQ-I score, was significantly related to academic achievement.

Chi-Sum and Kenneth (2002) developed a psychometrically sound and practically short EI measure that can be used in leadership and management studies. The authors also provide a exploratory evidence for the effect of the EI of both leaders and followers on job outcomes. Applying Gross' emotion regulation model, they argued that the EI of leaders and followers should have positive effects on job performance and attitudes. They also proposed that the emotional labor of the job moderates the EI job outcome relationship. The results of the study show that the EI of followers affects job performance and job satisfaction, while the EI of leaders affect their satisfaction and extra-role behavior. For followers, the proposed interactions effects between EI and emotional labor on job performance, organizational commitment, and turnover intention are also supported.

The Business Case for Emotional Intelligence

Cherniss (2010) built a case for how emotional intelligence contributes to the bottom line in any work organization. Experienced partners in a multinational consulting firm were assessed on the EI competencies plus three others. Partners who scored above the median on 9 or more of the 20 competencies delivered \$1.2 million more profit from their accounts than did other partners – a 139 percent incremental gain (Boyatzis, 1999).

Salespeople selected on the basis of emotional competence had 63% fewer turnovers during the first year than those selected in the typical way (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Spencer, McClelland & Kelner, 1997).

In a large beverage firm, using standard methods to hire division presidents, 50% left within two years, mostly because of poor performance. When they started selecting based on emotional competencies such as initiative, self-confidence, and leadership, only 6% left in two years. Furthermore, the executives selected based on emotional competence were far more likely to perform in the top third based on salary bonuses for performance of the divisions they led: 87% were in the top third. In addition, division leaders with these competencies outperformed their targets by 15 to 20 percent. Those who lacked them under-performed by almost 20% (McClelland, 1999)

After supervisors in a manufacturing plant received training in emotional competencies such as how to listen better and help employees resolve problems on their own, lost-time accidents were reduced by 50 percent, formal grievances were reduced from an average of 15 per year to 3

per year, and the plant exceeded productivity goals by \$250,000 (Pesuric & Byham, 1996).

In another manufacturing plant where supervisors received similar training, production increased 17 percent. There was no such increase in production for a group of matched supervisors who were not trained (Porras & Anderson, 1981).

Another emotional competence, the ability to handle stress, was linked to success as a store manager in a retail chain. The most successful store managers were those best able to handle stress. Success was based on net profits, sales per square foot, sales per employee, and per dollar inventory investment (Lusch & Serpkeuci, 1990).

Optimism is another emotional competence that leads to increased productivity. New salesmen at Met Life who scored high on a test of "learned optimism" sold 37 percent more life insurance in their first two years than pessimists (Seligman, 1990). A study of 130 executives found that how well people handled their own emotions determined how much people around them preferred to deal with them (Walter V. Clarke Associates, 1997).

For sales representative at a computer company, those hired based on their emotional competence were 90% more likely to finish their training than those hired on other criteria (Hay/McBer Research and Innovation Group, 1997).

At a national furniture retailer, sales people hired based on emotional competence had half the dropout rate during their first year (Hay/McBer Research and Innovation Group, 1997).

Goleman (1995) has made the case that the key to one's effectiveness and success in an organization is his/her emotional intelligence. His premise also challenged conventional thinking, in that the emotions are important to consider in relation to one's effectiveness. Emotions and emotional intelligence are no longer considered taboo in the workplace today. And it is that, that provides the foundation for performance. Since the publication of Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 1995), the business writings in this area have exploded. The scholarly support of the claims made in these books however is behind the business leader's perceptions of the impact of high emotional intelligence on their effectiveness and success.

Theoretical Issues

Origin of the Concept

The most distant roots of Emotional intelligence can be traced back to Darwin's early work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and second adaptation. Bar-On (2006). In the 1900s, even though traditional definitions of intelligence emphasized cognitive aspects such as memory and problem-solving, several influential researchers in the intelligence field of study had begun to recognize the importance of the non-cognitive aspects.

McClelland (1973) was among a growing group of researchers who were becoming concerned with how little traditional tests of cognitive intelligence told us about what it takes to be successful in life. IQ by itself is not a very good predictor of job performance. Hunter and Hunter (1984) estimated that at best IQ accounts for about 25 percent of the variance. Sternberg (1996) has pointed out that studies vary and that 10 percent may be

a more realistic estimate. In some studies, IQ accounts for as little as 4 percent of the variance.

Defining Emotional Intelligence

There are a lot of arguments about the definition of EI, arguments that regard both terminology and operationalization. One attempt toward a definition was made by Salovey and Mayer (1990) who defined EI as 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 despite this early definition, there has been confusion regarding the exact meaning of this construct. The definitions are so varied, and the field is growing so rapidly, that researchers are constantly amending even their own definitions of the construct.

Although a variety of concepts similar to EI have been proposed over the years (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005), modern interest in EI began with Salovey and Mayer's (1990) article defining EI. Later, Mayer and Salovey (1997) revised their definition of EI into their four-branch model of EI. In order to meet traditional definitions of "intelligence," Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) developed the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). This was followed by the MSCEIT V2.0, which Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenios (2003: 99) described as a "141-item scale designed to measure the following four branches (specific skills) of EI: (1) perceiving emotions, (2) using emotions to facilitate thought, (3) understanding emotions, and (4) managing emotions." However, a number of other scholars and practitioners developed measures of EI that used self-report

or peer ratings, and some used broader definitions of emotional competencies that included measures of related personality traits or skills.

In their prior meta-analysis, Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) conceptualized EI as “the set of abilities (verbal and nonverbal) that enable a person to generate, recognize, express, understand, and evaluate their own, and others, emotions in order to guide thinking and action that successfully cope with environmental demands and pressures.”

The publication of Goleman’s book on “emotional intelligence” in 1995 generated substantial popular interest in the construct. One of the ideas that quickly emerged from the “media fallout” around this book was the notion that EI was associated with success in various educational and work contexts. A plethora of “new” intervention programs quickly appeared for developing or improving various EI-related abilities (Bar-On & Parker, 2000b).

When Salovey and Mayer coined the term emotional intelligence in 1990, they were aware of the previous work on non-cognitive aspects of intelligence. They described emotional intelligence as "a form 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 action”. Salovey and Mayer also initiated a research program intended to develop valid measures of emotional intelligence and to explore its significance.

Daniel Goleman's 1995 Book called 'Emotional Intelligence'. The early Emotional Intelligence theory was originally developed during the 1970s and 80s by the work and writings of psychologists Howard Gardner (Harvard),

Peter Salovey (Yale) and John 'Jack' Mayer (New Hampshire). Emotional Intelligence is increasingly relevant to organizational development and developing people, because the EQ principles provide a new way to understand and assess people's behaviours, management styles, attitudes, interpersonal skills, and potential. Emotional Intelligence is an important consideration in human resources planning, job profiling, recruitment interviewing and selection, management development, customer relations and customer service, and more.

Goleman identified the five 'domains' of EQ as knowing your emotions, managing your own emotions, motivating yourself, recognizing and understanding other people's emotions and managing relationships, i.e. managing the emotions of others. However, is raising one's EI desirable? Goleman (1995) suggests that we are in a social crises and the way out of it is the teaching of EI in schools, and in the work place.

Assessment of Emotional Intelligence and Competence

The oldest instrument is Bar-On's EQ-I, which has been around for over a decade. This self-report instrument originally evolved not out of an occupational context but rather a clinical one. It was designed to assess those personal qualities that enabled some people to possess better "emotional well-being" than others. The EQ-I has been used to assess thousands of individuals, and we know quite a bit about its reliability and its convergent and discriminate validity. Less is known about its predictive validity in work situations. However, in one study the EQ-I was predictive of success for U.S. Air Force recruiters. In fact, by using the test to select recruiters, the Air Force

saved nearly 3 million dollars annually. Also, there were no significant differences based on ethnic or racial group.

A second instrument is the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). The MEIS is a test of ability rather than a self-report measure. The test-taker performs a series of tasks that are designed to assess the person's ability to perceive, identify, understand, and work with emotion. There is some evidence of construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminate validity, but none for predictive validity.

A third instrument is the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI). The ECI is a 360 degree instrument. People who know the individual rate him or her on 20 competencies that Goleman's research suggests are linked to emotional intelligence. Although the ECI is in its early stages of development, about 40 percent of the items come from an older instrument, the Self-Assessment Questionnaire that was developed by Boyatzis. These earlier items had been "validated against performance in hundreds of competency studies of managers, executives, and leaders in North America," Italy, and Brazil.

In a study conducted at the shri Ram centre (Dhingra 1972) the employers of women in the different occupations were of the opinion that they could not expect the same level of performance from women as from their male counterparts. According to them most women employees considered their jobs as secondary importance as compared to their family role. Some gave examples of lack of punctuality and regularity in attendance.

Instructor Performance

In general, instructor performance is defined as the capacity of an instructor to accomplish the work assigned. It is his or her competence to get things done. In university, teaching performance is considered as bottom line of instructors. It refers to the quality and quantity of task accomplishments by an instructor or group of instructors at work. It is a cornerstone of productivity and has great contribution to achievements of university

Emotional Intelligence, Intelligence Quotient and Job Performance

Research of EI and job performance show mixed results: a positive relation has been found in some of the studies, in others there was no relation or an inconsistent one. This led researchers Cote and Miners (2006) to offer a compensatory model between EI and IQ that posits that the association between EI and job performance becomes more positive as cognitive intelligence decreases. The results of their study show that this kind of compensatory model does exist: employees with low IQ get higher task performance and organizational citizenship behavior directed at the organization, the higher their EI.

Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia (2011) defined Job performance as commonly used, yet poorly defined concept in industrial and organizational psychology, the branch of psychology that deals with the workplace. It most commonly refers to whether a person performs their job well. Despite the confusion over how it should be exactly defined, performance is an extremely important criterion that relates to organizational outcomes and success. Among the most commonly accepted theories of job performance comes from

the work of John P. Campbell and colleagues. Coming from a psychological perspective, Campbell describes job performance as an individual level variable. That is, performance is something a single person does. This differentiates it from more encompassing constructs such as organizational performance or national performance which are higher level variables.

Daniel Goleman (1998) reformulated EI in terms of a theory of organizational and job performance. All these models share a common core of basic concepts including Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management.

Definition and Features of Job performance

First, Campbell defines performance as behavior. It is something done by the employee. This concept differentiates performance from outcomes. Outcomes are the result of an individual's performance, but they are also the result of other influences. In other words, there are more factors that determine outcomes than just an employee's behaviors and actions. Campbell allows for exceptions when defining performance as behavior. For instance, he clarifies that performance does not have to be directly observable actions of an individual. It can consist of mental productions such as answers or decisions. However, performance needs to be under the individual's control, regardless of whether the performance of interest is mental or behavioral.

The difference between individual controlled action and outcomes is best conveyed through an example. On a sales job, a favorable outcome is a certain level of revenue generated through the sale of something (merchandise, some service, insurance). Revenue can be generated or not, depending on the

behavior of employees. When the employee performs this sales job well, she is able to move more merchandise. However, certain factors other than employees' behavior influence revenue generated. For example, sales might slump due to economic conditions, changes in customer preferences, production bottlenecks, etc. In these conditions, employee performance can be adequate, yet sales can still be low. The first is performance and the second is the effectiveness of that performance. These two can be decoupled because performance is not the same as effectiveness (Campbell et al 1970).

Another closely related construct is productivity, Campbell & Campbell (1988). This can be thought of as a comparison of the amount of effectiveness that results from a certain level of cost associated with that effectiveness. In other words, effectiveness is the ratio of outputs to inputs—those inputs being effort, monetary costs and resources.

Utility is another related construct which is defined as the value of a particular level of performance, effectiveness, or productivity. Utilities of performance, effectiveness, and productivity are value judgments.

Another key feature of job performance is that it has to be goal relevant. Performance must be directed toward organizational goals that are relevant to the job or role. Therefore, performance does not include activities where effort is expended toward achieving peripheral goals. For example, the effort put toward the goal of getting to work in the shortest amount of time is not performance (except where it is concerned with avoiding lateness).

Multidimensionality

Despite the emphasis on defining and predicting job performance, it is not a single unified construct. There are vastly many jobs each with different performance standards. Therefore, job performance is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct consisting of more than one kind of behavior. Campbell (1990) proposed an eight factor model of performance based on factor analytic research that attempts to capture dimensions of job performance existent (to a greater or lesser extent) across all jobs.

The first factor is task specific behaviors which include those behaviors that an individual undertakes as part of a job. They are the core substantive tasks that delineate one job from another.

On the other hand, non-task specific behaviors, the second factor, are those behaviors which an individual is required to undertake which do not pertain only to a particular job. Returning to the sales person, an example of a task specific behavior would be showing a product to a potential customer. A non-task specific behavior of a sales person might be training new staff members. Written and oral communication tasks refer to activities where the incumbent is evaluated, not on the content of a message necessarily, but on the adeptness with which they deliver the communication. Employees need to make formal and informal oral and written presentations to various audiences in many different jobs in the work force.

An individual's performance can also be assessed in terms of effort, either day to day, or when there are extraordinary circumstances. This factor reflects the degree to which people commit themselves to job tasks.

The performance domain might also include an aspect of personal discipline. Individuals would be expected to be in good standing with the law, not abuse alcohol, etc.

In jobs where people work closely or are highly interdependent, performance may include the degree to which a person helps out the groups and his or her colleagues. This might include acting as a good role model, coaching, giving advice or helping maintain group goals.

Many jobs also have a supervisory or leadership component. The individual will be relied upon to undertake many of the things delineated under the previous factor and in addition will be responsible for meting out rewards and punishments.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodological approach adopted by the researcher for the study. It covers a description of the research design, study site, study population, sampling procedures and sources of data, data collection instruments, field work, data processing and analysis.

Study Setting

The Strategic Plan of OICG (2004) indicates that OICG is an affiliate of Opportunities Industrialization Centre, International (OICI) based in Philadelphia, United States of America (USA). The first OICI in America was founded in 1964 by the Late Reverend (Dr) Lean Howard Sullivan, a Black American Baptist Priest. Rev. Sullivan's action was a direct response to the unvoiced cry of thousands of black disadvantaged and unemployed youth of Philadelphia for jobs and dignity from which they had been excluded as a result of racial prejudice and discrimination practised against the Afro-Americans and other racial minorities in America.

However, with this victory came the realization that the Afro-Americans did not have marketable skills, which in fact was the cause and effect of their social deprivation. OIC was therefore founded as a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) to provide skill training to the unskilled to enable them

take up the jobs that were available. Since the people to be helped were financially handicapped, training has to be free.

Convinced of the relevance and applicability of the OIC concept to the Ghanaian situation, and in consultation with Rev. Sullivan, a group of public-spirited Ghanaians came together to form the first OIC in Accra in 1971 as a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO).

OICG is a human resource development organization established in 1971. It is an affiliate of Opportunities Industrialization Center International (OICI) which was founded by Rev. Dr. Leon H. Sullivan, a Baptist Priest in America. It is also subvented by the Government of Ghana under the Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare. It is governed by Board of Directors drawn from a cross section of the Ghanaian community who have excelled in their various fields of work.

The goal of OICG is to contribute towards poverty reduction among the increasing number of unemployed disadvantaged youth in Ghana. The main objective of the organisation is to provide vocational/technical, business skills training, counselling and follow-up services to Junior and Senior High Schools early exitors and graduates.

From its first training centre established in 1971 in Accra, OICG has now extended its vocational training programme to Kumasi (1976) and Sekondi Takoradi (1977). Courses offered at these training centres include office/computer skills, carpentry, catering, auto mechanics, electrical, graphic arts, textiles/batik tie and dye, masonry/building draughtsmanship, plumbing, stenography, dressmaking, hairdressing and welding & fabrication.

Entry into the centres is generally open to persons with the following qualifications: BECE Certificate with passes in Mathematics and English, holders of middle school leaving certificate, sponsored apprentices with a good educational background and evidence of at least 2 years secondary school or SHS Education

The course is designed for 2 years leading to the National Vocational Training Institute Foundation and Trade Test Grade two (2) Certificates. OICG training is on open-entry basis and the training model comprises 3 interrelated elements and these are counselling, instruction (Theory & practical) and industrial Attachment

OICG/ Evangelischer Entwicklungsdienst (OICG/EED)

The OICG/EED project is earmarked to benefit non-literate (i.e. people who have not had any formal education) and semi-literate (i.e. people who are unable to read and/or write correctly the English language irrespective of the number of years of formal education) youth within the age range of 18 and 30 years.

The goal of the project is to contribute towards the reduction of poverty among Ghanaian youth and to achieve the goal, the objectives to be pursued are to facilitate the placement of youth in the Kumasi Metropolis into employment and assist project graduates in own-businesses to increase their incomes

Four interrelated components developed to enable the project work towards the expected results are vocational skills training,

counseling/animation sessions, basic business skills training and business development/advisory services.

Research Design

The research design employed was quantitative research. Quantitative research means testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables in turn can be measured, typically on instruments so that numbered data can be analyzed using statistical procedures. The report consists of a set of structure consisting of introduction, literature and theory, methods, results, and discussions (Creswell, 2008). In the social sciences, research is often divided into technical quantitative research and humanistic qualitative methods.

Dyer (1995, xv) states that “while it is still true that the experimental method is for many researchers the method of first resort, many also do research by other means, including the ‘soft’ methods such as interviews and participant observational studies”. The problem with these two poles of research in the social sciences is not only at the level of individuals’ thoughts, but has also been typical of the whole academic discipline since the early 80’s.

A cross-sectional study design was used. It focused on finding relationships between variables at a specific point in time. This design was chosen for the study because it sought to provide information about the presence and strength of associations between variables, and also permits the testing of hypothesis about such associations.

Sources of Data

The focus of many research activities is to provide accurate information about some aspects of human activities that arouse interest. According to Miller (1991), there are two major approaches used in social research in gathering data. These are the primary and secondary sources.

Data was therefore collected from both primary and secondary sources. Primary data was collected using questionnaire. Bailey (1987) makes a distinction between a questionnaire and an interview schedule. The former is generally mailed or handed to the respondents and filled in with or without any help from the interviewer whilst the latter is not given directly to the respondent but the questions are read by the interviewer to the respondents. The secondary sources of information were from books, journals, magazines, irrigation scheme reports, internet and earlier research work in this discipline

Furthermore, field observations and discussions were used during the survey to collect primary data. Observation is defined as looking with purpose to see and note what is happening at a particular place and time (Grady, 1998).

The source of data employed was primary data using the survey instrument (questionnaire). The questionnaire was administered to instructional staff of OICG.

Sample Size

According to Beri (1998), a sample is a part of a population, or a subset from a set of units, which is provided by some process or other, usually by deliberate selection with the object of investigating the

properties of the parent population or set. Sample size is dependent upon the nature of the population and the purpose of the study (Bailey 1987).

According to Miller (1991), the researcher needs to select only few items from the universe for his study purposes. He stated that a study based on a representative sample is often better than one based on a larger sample or on the whole population for there is no need interviewing large number of people saying the same thing. The size of a sample should neither be excessively large nor too small, it should be optimal.

OICG has a staff strength/population of 112 which consisted of instructional staff and non-instructional staff. The focus of the research was on the instructional staff of OICG which has staff strength of 43. All the 43 instructional staff representing 100% in the unit was used in the study.

Data Collection Instrument

A data requirement guide that was developed facilitated the data collection for the study. The guide includes research concept, information required, source and method of data collection. Atengdem (1997) defines a research instrument as any type of written or physical device which is purported to measure variable.

The researcher used a questionnaire adapted from Boston EI Questionnaire by Margaret Chapman to assess the EI levels of instructional staff and to evaluate employees' performance, employee evaluation form which was designed for the employees of OICG was used since it was based on the organizations needs. The researcher used the EI with a slight modification (addition of Bio-data whilst the employee evaluation form was used without any modification).

The Boston EI questionnaire was made up of two sections: Section A of EI sought personal information (Bio Data) about the respondents such as Age, Sex, Education, No. of years on the job, Rank and section B had 25 items grouped into different sub-scales namely; Self Awareness, Emotion Management, Self Motivation, Relationship Management and Emotion Coaching.

Section A of Job Performance sought background information about the respondents such as Programme Location, Job Title, rank and section B had 19 items grouped into different sub-scales namely; Core Activities, Professional Development, Service and Extra Duty Activities, Other Traits and Competencies.

Administration of Instruments

Copies of Questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and were given some time to complete them before collection. In all, a total of 43 questionnaires were distributed to instructional staff and 42 out of the total were returned. The method saved time and presented data collected from all the respondents in almost the same form and order.

Methods of Data Analysis

The administered questionnaires were edited and coded. The data were inputted using Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) software version 17. After data entry, error checking was done to ensure data quality. The results were presented in frequencies and correlation cross tabulations. Independent sample t-test was also conducted.

Limitations

Utilizing the emotional intelligence construct is a limitation of this study. A wide variety of definitions of this construct exist ranging from a very broad perspective inclusive of many personality characteristics, to a very narrow restrictive perspective. This area of research is relatively new (since the early 1990's), with most of the work to date, definitional in nature. Only very recently has the research moved into how the construct of emotional intelligence impacts individuals and their performance.

Within the area of emotional intelligence research, there exist few instruments to study. The Boston EI Questionnaire is a limitation to this study because it was recently published and has not had wide testing in the research community. Consequently, its reported validities and reliabilities are ongoing. It is however, the only emotional intelligence instrument that is performance based (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002). Although this instrument is not yet widely researched, it is a promising tool for research into the area of assessing and developing the emotional intelligence of individuals and by itself will add to the body of knowledge in this area.

To measure the performance of OICG instructional staff, the job evaluation form used for assessment was adapted. And this instrument has face validity within the organization studied, which provided critical support for this research to occur.

An additional limitation to this study is the use of a single organization. Though there are advantages to using a single organization due

to its homogeneity and minimizing the impact of external validity concerns, there are disadvantages in that the results are not generalizable.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The present study seeks to assess the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance using the instructional staff of OICG as a case study. This chapter begins with background characteristics of respondents. Emotional intelligence and job performance levels and their relationships are also discussed.

Background Characteristics of Respondents

The background characteristics of respondents included age, gender, educational background, years on the job and rank (Table 1). Analysis of the data collected shows that out of the 42 respondents, 57% of them are males while 43% of them are females. Further analysis shows that 55% of the respondents are between 30 – 39 years, 21% of them are between 20 – 29 years and 24% of them are above 39 years.

Across educational level, 36% of the respondents have HND certificate, 29% of them have Diploma certificate, 19% of the respondents have university degree certificate, and 14% of the respondents have post-secondary certificate as shown in Table 1.

Also, 53% of the respondents have worked on the job between 1 – 5 years, 23% of them have worked between 6 – 10 years, 8% of them have

worked between 26 – 30 years, and 5% of them have worked under 1 year. The distribution is shown in Table 1.

Sixty-two percent of the respondents are Programme Officers, 17% of them are Assistant Programme Officers, 19% of them are Senior Programme Officers and a respondent representing 2% is a Programme Manager.

Table 1 : Background Characteristics of Respondents

	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	24	57
Female	18	43
Age		
20 – 29 years	9	21
30 – 39 years	23	55
Above 40 years	10	24
Educational Level		
Post-Secondary	6	14
GCE ‘A’ Level	1	2
Diploma	12	29
HND	15	36
University Degree	8	19

Table 1 : Background characteristics of respondent Continued

Years On Job		
Under 1 years	2	5
1 – 5 years	21	53
6 – 10 years	9	23
11 – 15 years	2	5
16 – 20 years	1	3
21 – 25 years	1	3
26 – 30 years	3	8
Above 30 years	1	3
Ranks		
Programme Officer	26	62
Assistant Programme Officer	7	17
Senior Programme Officer	8	19
Programme Manager	1	2
Total	42	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2011.

Emotional Intelligence Levels of Respondents

Analysis from Table 2 shows that out of 42 respondents, 24% of them have high Emotional intelligence while 76% of them need remedial work on their emotional intelligence.

Table 2: Emotional Intelligence Levels

Emotional Intelligence	Frequency	Percent
Remedial Work	32	76
High Emotional Intelligence	10	24
Total	42	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2011

Analysis in Table 3 shows that there is no statistically significant difference between males and females with respect to their self-awareness, since at a t-test value 0.068 with $df=40$, the sig. value (0.946) > 0.05 (level of significance). This implies that there is no difference in self-awareness between males ($\bar{X}=14.47$) and females ($\bar{X}=14.50$) and the mean differences observed in the table below may be due to other factors which may influence their self-awareness. This implies that males are not different from females with respect to their self-awareness.

Further analysis shows from Table 3 that there is no significant difference between the emotional management of males from that of females, since at a t-test value 0.058 with $df=40$, the sig. value (0.954) > 0.05 (level of significance). This gives an indication that males emotional management ($\bar{X}=14.53$) is not different from that of the females ($\bar{X}=14.51$).

Also, analyzing the data collected revealed from Table 3 that there is no significant difference between the self-motivation of males and that of the females, since at a t-test value 0.332 with $df=40$, the sig. value (0.742) > 0.05 (level of significance). This implies that males self-motivation ($\bar{X}=15.89$) is not different from that of the females ($\bar{X}=16.00$).

Table 3: An Independent T-test between Gender and Elements of Emotional Intelligence

Gender	N	Mean (\bar{X})	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Self-Awareness					
Male	24	14.47	0.068	40	0.946
Female	18	14.50			
Emotion Management					
Male	24	14.53	0.058	40	0.954
Female	18	14.51			
Self-Motivation					
Male	24	15.89	0.332	40	0.742
Female	18	16.00			
Relationship Management					
Male	24	16.17	0.282	40	0.779
Female	18	16.30			
Emotional Coaching					
Male	24	14.47	0.068	40	0.946
Female	18	16.34	0.659	40	0.514

Source: Fieldwork, 2011

Further analysis shows from Table 3 that there is no significant difference between the relationship management of males from that of female, since at a t-test value 0.282 with $df=40$, the sig. value (0.779) > 0.05 (level of

significance). This gives an indication that males relationship management (\bar{X} =16.17) is not different from that of the females (\bar{X} =16.30).

Finally, analysis shows from Table 3 that there is no significant difference between emotional coaching of males from that of female, since at a t-test value 0.659 with $df=40$, the sig. value (0.514) > 0.05 (level of significance). This gives an indication that males emotional coaching (\bar{X} =16.07) is not different from that of the females (\bar{X} =16.34).

Gender and Emotional Intelligence

Analysis further shows from Table 4 that there is no statistically significant difference between males and females with respect to their emotional Intelligence, since at an independent t-test 0.349 with $df=40$, the sig. value (0.729) > 0.05 (level of significance). This implies that there is no difference in emotional Intelligence of male (\bar{X} =15.54) and females (\bar{X} =15.67) and the mean differences observed in the table below may be due to chance (other external factors). This means that with respect to emotional intelligence, males are not different from females.

Table 4: T-test between Gender and Emotional Intelligence

Gender	N	Mean	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Male	24	15.54	0.349	40	0.729
Female	18	15.67			

Source: Fieldwork, 2011

Job Performance Levels

Furthermore, analysis shows from Table 5 that 17% of the respondents had excellent job performance, 38% of them had very good job performance, 28% of them had good job performance and 17% of them need improvement.

Table 5: Job Performance Levels

Job Performance	Frequency	Percent
Need improvement	7	17
Good	12	28
Very Good	16	38
Excellent	7	17
Total	42	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2011

A cross tabulation of emotional intelligence and job performance (Table 6) revealed that among the respondent whose emotional intelligence needed remedial work, 19% of them need improvement on their job performance, 31% of them have good job performance, 31% of them have very good job performance and 19% of them have excellent job performance. Also among those whose emotional intelligence are high, 60% of them have very good job performance.

Table 6: Emotional Intelligence with Job Performance

		Job Performance			
Emotional	Need	Good	Very Good	Excellent	Total
Intelligence	improvement				
Remedial					
Work	19	31	31	19	100
High					
Emotional					
Intelligence	10	20	60	10	100
Total	17	28	38	17	100

Source: Fieldwork 2011

Emotional Intelligence and Job performance

Table 7 shows a correlation between emotional intelligence and job performance. Analysis shows that job performance has a non-significant weak positive correlation with emotional intelligence since at a Pearson's correlation value 0.111, the significant value (sig.) =0.242 > 0.05 (level of significance). This indicates that the higher the emotional intelligence of the respondents, the higher their job performance, but this was not significant.

Table 7: Correlations between Job Performance and Emotional Intelligence

Pearson Correlation	0.111
Sig. (1-tailed)	0.242
N	42

Source: Fieldwork, 2011

Gender and Job Performance

Analysis further shows (Table 8) that there is no statistically significant difference between males and females with respect to job performance, since at an independent t-test 1.741 with $df=40$, the sig. value (0.089) > 0.05 (level of significance). This implies that there is no difference in job performance of male ($\bar{X}=68.38$) and females ($\bar{X}=73.06$) and the mean differences observed in the table below may be due to chance (other factor) and that males are not different from females with respect to their job performance.

Table 8: An Independent T-test between Gender and Job Performance

Gender	N	Mean	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Male	24	68.38	1.71	40	0.089
Female	18	73.06			

Source: Fieldwork, 2011

Emotional Intelligence by Age

The analysis in Table 9 revealed that, among those whose job performance needed remedial work, 50% of them are between 30 – 39 years, 25% of them are between 20 – 29 years and 25% of them are above 39 years. Also among those who have high emotional intelligence 70% of them are between 30 – 39 years.

Table 9: Emotional Intelligence by Age of Respondent

Emotional Intelligence	Age of Respondent			Total
	20 - 29 years	30 - 39 years	40 +	
Remedial Work	25	50	25	100
High Emotional Intelligence	10	70	20	100
Total	21	55	24	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2011

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The chapter deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations pertaining to this research.

Summary

The present study investigated the relationship between job performance and emotional intelligence. First and foremost, the study sought to find out the level of Emotional intelligence in the respondents. Secondly, it assessed the job performance level of the respondents. Lastly, it investigated whether there exists a relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance. The study was quantitative and across-sectional study design was used. Both primary and secondary data sources were explored. The main research instrument was questionnaire. The study targeted all the instructional staff of OICG. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) software was used and the results were mainly presented in frequencies and correlation cross tabulations.

Comparing the various emotional intelligence levels, more respondents had very good performance (38%) with a few others having an emotional performance which is good (28%). Findings also revealed that the job performance of women over the men is not different and that males and females have the same job performance levels. This contradicts research

performed by Dhingra, which revealed that women in the different occupations were of the opinion that they could not expect the same level of performance from women as from their male counterparts. Hence the mean differences observed in the analysis using the independent t-test were due to chance (negligible).

The research also sought to find level of Emotional intelligence in the respondents. The findings showed that most of the respondents 72% had an emotional intelligence which needed remedial work and the rest had high emotional intelligence. This agrees with a research performed by Goleman on EI-based competencies with the data collected from several hundred organizations. He concluded that emotional competencies were twice as prevalent among distinguishing competencies as were as technical skills and purely cognitive abilities combined. This implies that almost all respondents had an emotional intelligence that was high. Further findings showed that most respondents between the ages of 30 – 44 years had emotional intelligence that needs remedial work or have high EI's.

The research examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance. The findings show that there is a weak positive correlation between emotional intelligence and job performance but it is statistically not significant, meaning no differences exist between them. This contradicts research performed by Yan-hong's whose work studied the influence of emotional intelligence on job performance, task performance and contextual performance, and explores the moderating effects of leadership. The research results show that the emotional intelligence has a significant positive correlation with job performance, task performance and contextual

performance respectively, and emotional intelligence has stronger effects on contextual performance than task performance.

Conclusions

The research investigated the influence of emotional intelligence on job performance. It can be concluded that:

- Males are not different from females with respect to their EI.
- Also, there is no difference between gender with respect to the elements of emotional intelligence, thus, self-awareness, emotional management, self-motivation, relationship management, and emotional coaching.
- Job performance on the other hand has a weak positive correlation with emotional intelligence.
- This indicates that an increase in emotional intelligence leads to an increase in job performance.
- It can be concluded that respondents between the ages of 30 – 39 years needed remedial work on their emotional intelligence.

Recommendations

Given the new understanding of the crucial role emotional intelligence plays in individual, group, and organizational success and the findings from data

collected on the research conducted, appropriate recommendations have been made:

1. Management of OICG should educate the entire working staff on the importance of emotional intelligence on job performance and improvement.
2. The human resource department of OICG needs more insight on Emotional Intelligence (EI) since the understanding of EI could be used more frequently in the selection, assessment, training and development of employees of the organization.
3. Workshops and seminars should be organized by management of OICG in areas such as assertiveness, adaptability, emotion expression, emotion regulation, emotion management (others), emotion perception (self and others), impulsiveness, relationships management, self-esteem, self-awareness and self-motivation. This I believe will help increase the EI of the employees.
4. Seminars should be organized for the public by management of OICG in areas such as self-awareness, emotion management, self-motivation, relationship management and emotion coaching. This will help increase public awareness on the importance of emotional intelligence (EI).
5. Our education system should consider adding practical courses that would help students function at a higher level of emotional intelligence

and which would ultimately improve employee performance and interactions in the workplace.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

ASSESSING AND DEVELOPING YOUR

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Dear Sir/Madam,

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE FOR OPPORTUNITIES INDUSTRIALIZATION CENTRE, GHANA

Introduction

This questionnaire is intended to elicit information for the assessment of the emotional intelligence of OICG Training Staff. Any information/responses given will be treated confidentially and no one will be victimized for his/her views. You are therefore encouraged to be as candid as possible since your views are considered indispensable. The following questions are designed to help you establish just how you are of emotional responses and how well you use your emotional intelligence.

BIO DATA

Please tick (✓) as appropriate

1. **Sex:**

Male [] Female []

2. **Age:**

25-29yrs [] 30-34yrs [] 35-39yrs []

40-44 yrs [] 45-49 yrs [] 50-54 yrs []

55-60 yrs []

3. Education:

City and Guild 1, 2, 3 [] Diploma [] HND []

Degree [] Post Graduate [] Others (please specify)

.....

4. No. of Years on the Job:

Under 1yr [] 1-5yrs [] 6-10yrs []

11-15yrs [] 16-20yrs [] 21-25yrs [] 26-30yrs []

30yrs and above []

5. Rank:

Assisted Programme Officer [] Programme Officer []

Senior Programme Officer [] Principal Programme Officer []

Programme Manager []

THE BOSTON EI QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions are designed to help you establish just how you are of emotional responses and how well you use your emotional intelligence.

The questionnaire follows the 5-step model of EL. For each question, tick the box that comes closest to how you feel about the answer.

		A	B	C	D
1.	Can you tell when your mood is changing?	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
2.	Do you know when you are becoming defensive?	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

3.	Can you tell when your emotions are affecting performance	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
4.	How quickly do you realize you are starting to lose your temper?	Very Quickly	Not very quickly	Slowly	Very slowly
5.	How soon do you realize that your thoughts are turning negative?	Straightaway	Quite soon	After a while	Usually too late
		A	B	C	D
6.	Can you relax when you are under pressure?	Very easily	Quite easily	Hardly ever	No at all
7.	Do you get on with things when you are angry?	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
8.	Do you engage in self-talk to vent feelings of anger or anxiety?	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
9.	Do you remain cool in the face of others' anger or aggression?	Always	Usually	Occasionally	Never

10.	How well can you concentrate when you are feeling anxious?	Very well	Quite well	Just about	Not at all
		A	B	C	D
11.	Do you bounce back quickly after a setback?	Always	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
12.	Do you deliver on your promise?	Without fail	Yes, sometimes	Not often	No never
13.	Can you kick start yourself into action when appropriate	Yes often	Yes, sometimes	Not often	No never
14.	How willing do you change the way you do things when current methods are not working?	Very willingly	Quite willingly	Quite reluctantly	Very reluctantly
15.	Are you able to lift your energy level to tackle and complete boring tasks?	Always	Usually	Rarely	never

		A	B	C	D
16.	Do you actively seek ways of resolving conflicts?	Yes, often	Yes, sometimes	No often	Never
17.	To what extent do you influence others about the way things are done	A great extent	To some extent	Very little	None
18.	How willing are you to act as spokesperson for others?	Very willing	Can be persuaded	Quite reluctant	No at all
19.	Are you able to demonstrate empathy with other's feelings?	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
20.	To what extent do you find that others trust and confide in you	Frequently	Occasionally	Hardly ever	Never
		A	B	C	D
21.	Do you find yourself able to raise morale and make others feel good?	Yes, often	Yes, sometimes	Rarely	Never

22.	How freely do you offer help and assistance to others?	Very freely	Quite freely	Reluctantly	No freely at all
23.	Can you sense when others are feeling angry or anxious and respond appropriately?	Yes, always	Yes, often	Hardly ever	Never
24.	How effectively are you at communicating your feelings to others?	Very	Quite	Not very	Not at all
25.	Do you contribute to the management of conflict and emotion within your work group or family?	Yes, often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

APPENDIX 2

ASSESSING AND DEVELOPING YOUR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Dear Sir/Madam,

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE FOR OPPORTUNITIES INDUSTRIALIZATION CENTRE, GHANA

Introduction

This questionnaire is intended to elicit information for the assessment of the emotional intelligence of OICG Training Staff. Any information/responses given will be treated confidentially and no one will be victimized for his/her views. You are therefore encouraged to be as candid as possible since your views are considered indispensable. The following questions are designed to help one establish just how one is of emotional responses and how well one uses his/her emotional intelligence.

BIO DATA

Instructions: Please tick (✓) as appropriate

1. **Sex:**

Male [] Female []

2. **Age:**

25-29yrs [] 30-34yrs [] 35-39yrs []

40-44 yrs [] 45-49 yrs [] 50-54 yrs []

55-60 yrs []

3. **Education:**

- | | | | |
|------------------------|-----|-------------------------|-----|
| City and Guild 1, 2, 3 | [] | Diploma | [] |
| HND | [] | Degree | [] |
| Post Graduate | [] | Others (please specify) | |
| | | | |

4. **No. of Years on the Job:**

- | | | | |
|-----------|-----|-----------------|-----|
| Under 1yr | [] | 1-5yrs | [] |
| 6-10yrs | [] | 11-15yrs | [] |
| 16-20yrs | [] | 21-25yrs | [] |
| 26-30yrs | [] | 30yrs and above | [] |

5. **Rank:**

- | | | | |
|----------------------------|-----|-----------------------------|-----|
| Assisted Programme Officer | [] | Programme Officer | [] |
| Senior Programme Officer | [] | Principal Programme Officer | [] |
| Programme Manager | [] | | |

THE BOSTON EI QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions are designed to help one establish just how one is of emotional responses and how well one uses his/her emotional intelligence.

The questionnaire follows the 5-step model of EL. For each question, tick the box that comes closest to how one feel about the answer.

		A	B	C	D
1.	Can you tell when his/her mood is changing?	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
2.	Do you know when he/she is becoming defensive?	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
3.	Can you tell when his/her emotions are affecting performance	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
4.	How quickly do you realize he/she is starting to lose his/her temper?	Very Quickly	Not very quickly	Slowly	Very slowly
5.	How soon do you realize that his/her thoughts are turning negative?	Straightaway	Quite soon	After a while	Usually too late

		A	B	C	D
6.	Can he/she relax when he/she is under pressure?	Very easily	Quite easily	Hardly ever	No at all
7.	Does he/she get on with things when he/she is angry?	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
8.	Does he/she engage in self-talk to vent feelings of anger or anxiety?	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
9.	Does he/she remain cool in the face of others' anger or aggression?	Always	Usually	Occasionally	Never
10.	How well can he/she concentrate when he/she is feeling anxious?	Very well	Quite well	Just about	Not at all

		A	B	C	D
11.	Does he/she bounce back quickly after a setback?	Always	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
12.	Does he/she deliver on his/her promise?	Without fail	Yes, sometimes	Not often	No never
13.	Can he/she kick start him/herself into action when appropriate	Yes often	Yes, sometimes	Not often	No never
14.	How willing does he/she change the way he/she does things when current methods are not working?	Very willingly	Quite willingly	Quite reluctantly	Very reluctantly
15.	Is he/she able to lift his energy level to tackle and complete boring tasks?	Always	Usually	Rarely	Never

		A	B	C	D
16.	Does he/she actively seek ways of resolving conflicts?	Yes, often	Yes, sometimes	No often	Never
17.	To what extent does he/she influence others about the way things are done	A great extent	To some extent	Very little	None
18.	How willing is he/she to act as spokesperson for others?	Very willing	Can be persuaded	Quite reluctant	No at all
19.	Is he/she able to demonstrate empathy with other's feelings?	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
20.	To what extent does he/she find that others trust and confide in him/her	Frequently	Occasionally	Hardly ever	Never

		A	B	C	D
21.	Does he/she find him/herself able to raise morale and make others feel good?	Yes, often	Yes, sometimes	Rarely	Never
22.	How freely does he/she offer help and assistance to others?	Very freely	Quite freely	Reluctantly	No freely at all
23.	Can he/she sense when others are feeling angry or anxious and respond appropriately?	Yes, always	Yes, often	Hardly ever	Never
24.	How effectively is he/she at communicating his/her feelings to others?	Very	Quite	Not very	Not at all

25.	Does he/she contribute to the management of conflict and emotion within his/her work group or family?	Yes, often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
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APPENDIX 3

OPPORTUNITIES INDUSTRIALIZATION CENTRES, GHANA

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT/ EVALUATION BASED ON

TARGET SETTING

INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF

A BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

- 1 PROGRAMME LOCATION DATE
- 2 OFFICER'S NAME
- 3 JOB TITLE RANK
- 4 PERIOD OF EVALUATION: From..... To.....
- 5 PURPOSE OF REPORT
Annual Promotion [] Probation []
Others (Please specify).....

B

A. CORE ACTIVITIES	EXP.	ACTUAL
Scheme of Work/Lesson Order/Schedule of Activities (How well did he/she plan to cover the syllabus?)	10	
Lesson Plan (How effective is his/her use of the Lesson Plan?) & Contact Hours (Is he/she utilizing contact hours effectively or allows trainees to loiter around?)	10	
NVTI Examination Target Performance/ Scheduled Counseling Targets (Compare set targets with actual results)		

Innovative Training/Counseling Activities (Does he/she introduce innovative ideas into his/her training delivery?)	20	10	50
B. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT			
Personal (Has he/she initiated any academic self-improvement?) OICG Assistance (Has he/she taken advantage of OICG approved training?) OR OICG Nominated (Has he/she been nominated for an external Programme? What is the impact on his/her training delivery?)	10	5	15
C. SERVICE & EXTRA DUTY ACTIVITIES			
Internal Activities (Extra Curricular) (Does he/she get involved with extra- curricular activities including maintenance jobs?) External Income Generating Activities (Contribution to income generation) Service to community (Does he/she perform any activities to the community?)	5	5	15

D. OTHER TRAITS AND COMPETENCIES			
1. Knowledge of work- Ability to perform work of standard	2		
2. Ability to perform multiple tasks on schedule.	2		
3. Ability to delegate duties/discharge duties delegated to him/her.	2		
4. Timeliness and punctuality.	2		
5. Ability to plan and execute work effectively.	2		
6. Ability to communicate effectively.	2		
7. Ability to relate well with colleagues.	2		
8. Ability to accept and welcome suggestions and follow directives.	2		
9. Ability and eagerness to learn new skills.	2		
10. Neatness and pleasant appearance	2		
		20	

C. RECOMMENDATION

1. Evaluator

I have discussed this evaluation with the Officer

Evaluator's Name-----

Evaluator's Signature----- **Date**-----

2. Officer

I have discussed evaluation with superior officer

(a) I disagree with superior officer

(b) Reasons: -----

Officer's Signature ----- Date -----

3. Programme Manager's Recommendation -----

Signature ----- Date -----