AN EXAMINATION OF ABILITY-BASED EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE STRUCTURED EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Research on emotional intelligence (EI) is gaining momentum and becoming one of the most topical areas of organizational research (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). Although the concept of emotional intelligence was developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990), interest in EI has increased dramatically with a popular book from Dan Goleman (1995). The popularity of EI has been met with both acclaim and criticism within the academic community.

EI has been conceptualized in various ways, such as mixed models consisting of various components including intelligence, personality, motivation, and competencies as well as ability-based models rooted exclusively in intelligence. These differing conceptualizations have led to controversy in the academic literature regarding how EI should be defined and what dimensions constitute emotional intelligence. These differing models have also been operationalized in different ways including self-reports, peer-reports, and ability tests. Each of these models and operationalizations has its own theoretical and methodological issues, as well as merits and limitations.

A four factor ability-based measure of emotional intelligence has begun to emerge, arguably, as the most valid measure of emotional intelligence to date (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). The four factors consist of the ability to perceive, facilitate, understand, and manage emotions. Although conceptual and methodological issues still

exist (see Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004), there has been an increased interest in testing the predictive ability of ability-based emotional intelligence, particularly in the employment context. Of particular interest is the role of emotional intelligence in the context of employee selection and job performance. These calls have come from the personnel selection literature (Robertson & Smith, 2001) as well as the emotional intelligence literature (Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Daus, 2002).

The employment interview is a critical component of the employment selection process and consists of a complex social interaction between candidate and interviewer. Emotions influence the outcomes of this interaction on many levels (Fox & Spector, 2000). The employment interview appears to be an ideal context in which to study the role of emotional intelligence, particularly given the ability of interviews to predict job performance (Robertson & Smith, 2001).

In the context of the employment interview, the style of interview may impact interviewee reactions. Of the various types of interviews, both situational and behavioral descriptive interviews have been demonstrated to provide reliable and valid results. However, based on the work of Huffcutt, Weekley, Wiesner, DeGroot, and Jones (2001), the behavioral descriptive interview (BDI) demonstrates higher predictive power in all job types, while the situational interview (SI) demonstrates high predictive power only in lower level jobs. This issue is a central focus for this study, in that the antecedents of the situational versus behavior descriptive interview need to be explored further in order to better understand what characteristics drive interview ratings for different types of jobs. Interview rating is defined as "the ratings used to evaluate the interviewee by the interviewer."

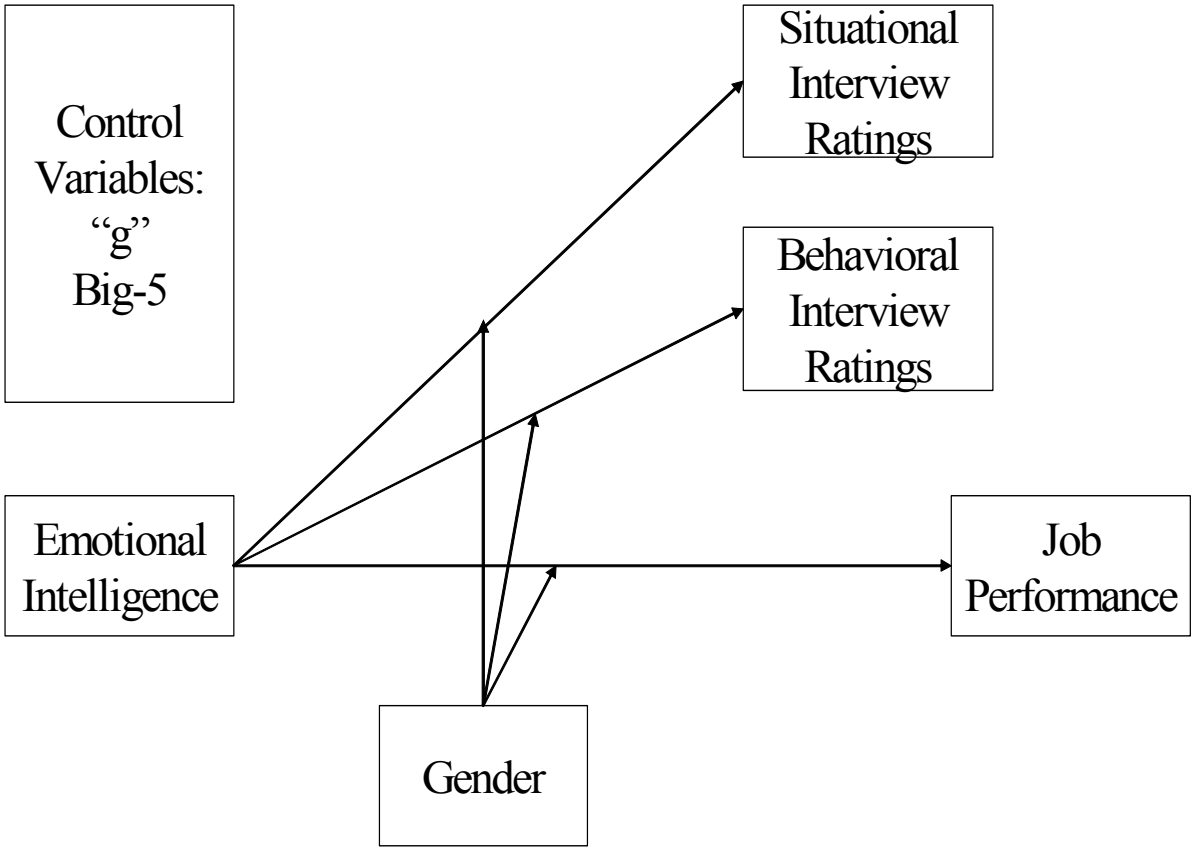
Job performance is also a central focus of this study. Specifically, do emotionally intelligent individuals perform better on the job? Organizations are settings in which employees encounter variety of interpersonal interactions and stressful events. These situations give rise to the prevalence of emotions in organizations. It has been argued that individuals high in emotional intelligence have a greater ability to perform on the job, considering the frequency in which emotional situations occur on the job. Despite calls in the literature for an evaluation of EI as a predictor of job performance, little evidence currently exists.

Research Models

Minimal research has been conducted examining the effect of EI in the employment interview and job performance contexts. Thus, this study attempts to discover how emotional intelligence may play a role in both employment interviews and job performance. To this end, Figure 1 shows the model that will be used to explain the proposed relationships.

FIGURE 1

Composite EI Model



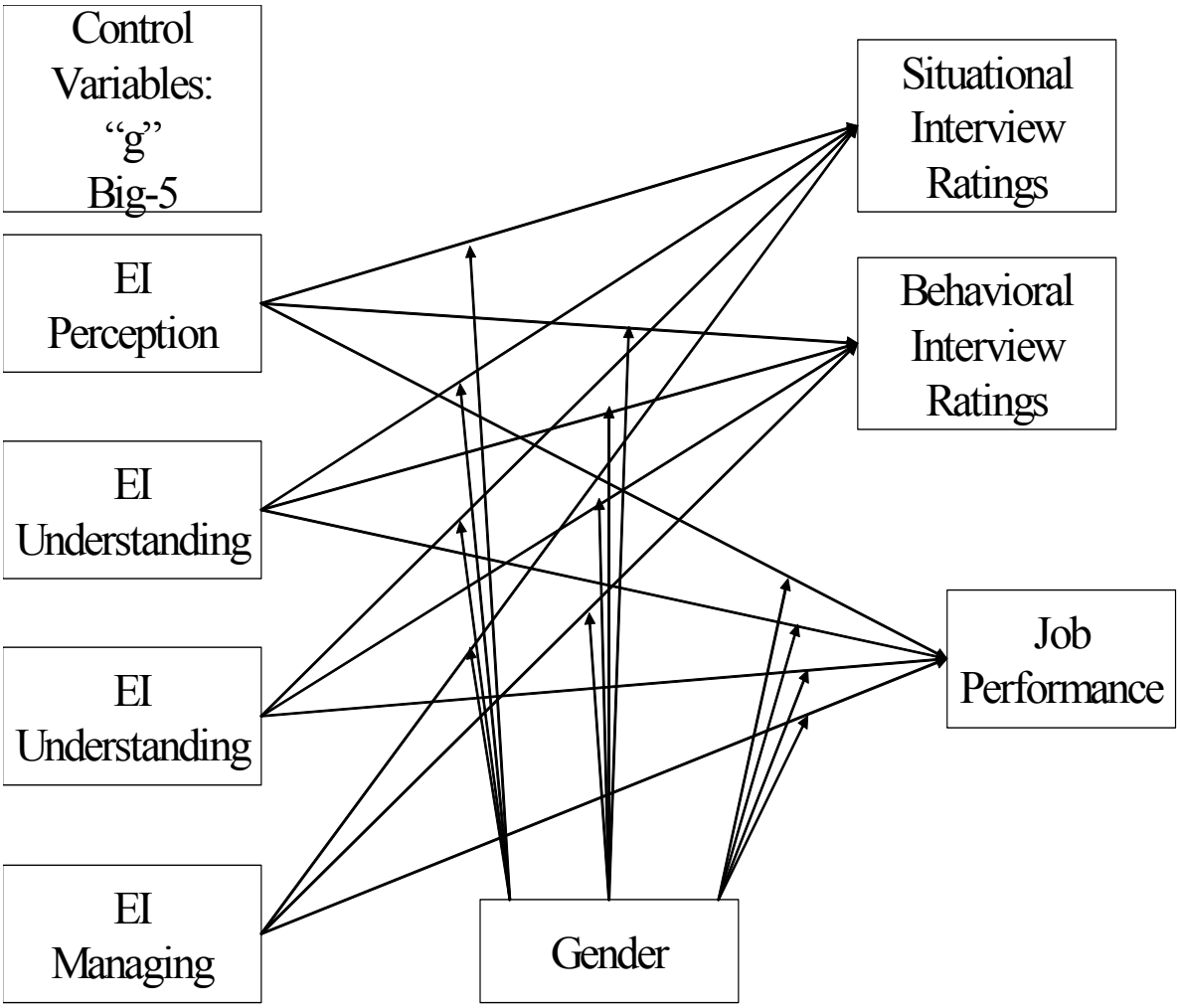
Based on recent calls for empirical testing, the overall goal of this dissertation is to determine the effect of emotional intelligence on SI (H1a) and BDI (H2a) interview ratings and job performance (H4a). Also, gender has been shown to affect EI. This study evaluates gender as a moderator of the relationships between EI and SI interview ratings (H5a), BDI interview ratings (H6a) and job performance (H7a). In addition, the effect of EI in the employment interview may depend on the type of interview question format

used. For example, a more emotionally intelligent interviewee may utilize his/her emotional intelligence to a greater extent when answering BDI interview questions and to a lesser extent when answering SI interview questions. Therefore, EI is hypothesized as a stronger predictor of BDI interview ratings in comparison to SI interview ratings (H3a).

Prior studies have evaluated the effect of intelligence and personality as predictors of both interview ratings and job performance. Therefore, the incremental validity of emotional intelligence is evaluated in relation to interview ratings and job performance after controlling the effects of intelligence and personality. Specifically, intelligence and some aspects of personality have been demonstrated to predict interview ratings and job performance (see Barrick & Mount, 1991; Huffcutt, Weekley, Wiesner, DeGroot, & Jones, 2001; Robertson & Smith, 2001). Both intelligence and the Big-5 personality dimensions relate somewhat to EI (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). Therefore, if EI leads to interview ratings and job performance, do those relationships exist after accounting for intelligence and personality? The link between interview ratings and job performance has been well-established (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997) and is therefore not tested in this study.

FIGURE 2

EI Sub-dimensions Model



Next, the four dimensions of EI (perceiving, facilitating, understanding, and managing emotions) are independently tested to determine their ability to predict the SI and BDI interview ratings and job performance, thus extending current literature. Due to the complex nature of employment selection and job performance, as well as the EI construct itself, a simple test of the direct effect of EI on interview ratings and job performance may not yield an adequate explanation of these relationships. In order to

adequately extend the literature, this dissertation analyzes the EI to performance relationship based on independent relationships of each of the four dimensions of EI with SI and BDI interview question type and job performance. To this end, Figure 2 shows the model that will be used to explain the proposed relationships regarding the dimensions of EI.

Rationale is given in an effort to propose why different dimensions of EI may have a greater or lesser ability to predict situational interview ratings (H1b-e), behavioral descriptive interview ratings (H2b-e), and job performance (H4b-e). This dimensional model also evaluates gender as a moderator of the relationships between the EI dimensions and situational interview ratings (H5b-e), behavioral descriptive interview ratings (H6b-e), and job performance (H7b-e). Also, just as with the composite EI model, the effect of the EI dimensions in the employment interview may depend on the type of interview question format used. Therefore, the dimensions of EI are hypothesized as a stronger predictor of behavioral descriptive interview ratings in comparison to situational interview ratings (H3b-e).

Implications for Theory

Considering that the development of an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence is recent, few empirical studies have been conducted to date. This study will help in the establishment of the convergent and discriminant validity of EI in relation to intelligence and personality. Even more importantly, the incremental validity of EI

beyond the established constructs of intelligence and personality has been called for and will be assessed.

This study has the potential to be one of the first to establish criterion-related validity of EI with job performance. Although calls for this type of research have been made, little research has supported the theoretical claims.

Differences between males and females in emotional intelligence have been shown to exist. This study proposes that gender moderates the relationship between EI and performance. Developing a better understanding of the gender / EI relationship should provide valuable information regarding the role of EI in organizational research.

This study is the first to analyze ability-based EI as an antecedent in the employment interview, paving the way for an undeveloped area of research in this setting.

There has been limited theoretical development regarding the independence of the four dimensions of EI. The independent relationships of the four EI dimensions in the employment interview and on the job may extend current literature. Specifically, evaluating each dimension independently constitutes a more fine-grained research approach, when compared to the use of composite EI.

Finally, BDI and SI structured interview questions have demonstrated improved validity over unstructured approaches. This study may begin to explain what factors impact interview question types and therefore explain the mechanisms through which interviewee characteristics are transmitted in structured interviews.

Implications for Practice

Positive findings of the effect of EI on job performance would dramatically affect practitioners in pre-employment screening. Even a 1% increase in incremental prediction of job performance could save large organizations considerable money in recruiting and training costs.

In the interview, positive relationships between EI and interview ratings could further affect the methods in which employment interviews are conducted. Results could reinforce the benefits of different types of structured rating formats and could provide further support for the use of BDI versus SI rating formats.

The next chapter begins with a review of the employment interview and job performance literature including the effect of intelligence and personality. A thorough review of emotional intelligence is then presented including its relationship with intelligence, personality, and emotions, alternative conceptualizations of EI, and the validity of ability-based emotional intelligence. Next, the incremental validity of EI and its dimensions are evaluated in relation to gender, intelligence, and personality. Finally, the four dimensions of EI are explored.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Job Interview

The role of the job interview in employment selection

The interview is a selection procedure designed to predict future job performance on the basis of applicants' oral responses to oral inquiries (McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, & Maurer, 1994). Interviews have been found to be either the most frequently used selection technique (Arvey, 1979) or the second most commonly used technique, just behind applications and resumes (Ash, 1981). This is perhaps due to their intuitive appeal for those people in organizations who hire.

Ratings of interview questions could be measuring cognitive factors such as intelligence (Huffcutt, Roth, & McDaniel, 1996; Hunter & Hirsch, 1987), tacit knowledge (Harris, 1998) or job knowledge, while they may also be measuring social skills and/or aspects of personality. In fact, Schmidt and Hunter (1998) and Schmidt and Rader (1999) consider that interviews measure a mélange of experience, cognitive ability, specific abilities and aspects of personality such as conscientiousness.

Unstructured vs. Structured Interviews

In the 90-year history of published research on employment interviewing (dating back to Scott, 1915), few conclusions have been more widely supported than the idea that structuring the interview enhances reliability and validity (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). All narrative reviews and meta-analyses have supported the use of structured interviews (Arvey & Campion, 1982; Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Campion, Pursell, & Brown, 1988; Harris, 1989; Huffcutt & Arthur, 1994; Judge, Higgins, & Cable, 2000; Mayfield, 1964; McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, & Maurer, 1994; Schmitt, 1976; Ulrich & Trumbo, 1965; Wagner, 1949; Wiesner & Cronshaw, 1988; O. R. J. Wright, 1969). Structure is defined as "any enhancement of the interview that is intended to increase psychometric properties by increasing standardization or otherwise assisting the interviewer in determining what questions to ask or how to evaluate responses" (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997).

Cortina, Goldstein, Payne, Davidson, and Gilliland (2000) analyzed five meta-analyses which had been recently conducted that focused on the criterion-related validity of selection interviews (Huffcutt & Arthur, 1994; Marchese & Muchinsky, 1993; McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, & Maurer, 1994; Wiesner & Cronshaw, 1988; Wright, Lichtenfels, & Pursell, 1989). In general, these studies found that using questions that are based on job analysis, training raters, taking notes during the interview, use of panel interviewers, and using behaviorally anchored rating scales all are believed to play a key role in the improvement of interview reliability and validity (Campion, Pursell, & Brown, 1988).

Research in the last two decades has shown that cognitive ability, personality, and interviews all contribute to prediction of job performance for a variety of jobs (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Huffcutt & Arthur, 1994; Hunter & Hunter, 1984). There has, however, been some controversy regarding the incremental validity of the job interview beyond intelligence and personality (particularly conscientiousness).

Campion et al. (1988) found validity for the job interview, yet no incremental validity beyond four intelligence tests. It was speculated that the interview was only effective because it operates like an "orally administered cognitive ability test" (p. 36). Walters, Miller, and Ree (1993) also found validity for a structured interview, yet no incremental validity beyond cognitive tests led them to conclude that the tests "measure, in some degree, the same construct" (p. 36).

Conversely, Motowidlo et al. (1992) revealed that the interview had incremental validity beyond an intelligence test composite. A potential answer to these contradictory findings came when Cortina et al. (2000) used a meta-analysis of low, moderate, and high levels of structure to assess the incremental validity of the employment interview on job performance. Low structure predicted 1.5% of variance beyond cognitive ability and conscientiousness. Moderate structure predicts 3.7% beyond cognitive ability and conscientiousness, while high structure predicts nearly 17% of incremental validity. They concluded that the contribution to prediction made by interview scores depends almost entirely on the amount of structure in the interview such that unstructured interviews contribute very little, even under ideal circumstances, and interviews high in structure contribute as much, if not more, to prediction as do cognitive ability scores.

Despite the overwhelming evidence of the superiority of structured interviews compared to unstructured interviews, operationalization of structure has varied widely across studies (Campion, Pursell, & Brown, 1988). Based on these consistent findings, Wiesner and Cronshaw (1988) called for a moratorium on unstructured interview research and suggest that researchers should focus on structured interviews. Perhaps more interestingly, despite the strengths of structured over unstructured interviews and although managers may recognize the job-relatedness of structured interviews (Latham & Finnegan, 1993), structured interviews have not been utilized by practitioners to the extent warranted by academic research.

According to VanDerZee, Bakker, and Bakker (2002), several reasons have been suggested for the underutilization of structured methods. First, practitioners may be unaware of the academic literature supporting the use of structured interviews or they may question its credibility, relevance, and practical usefulness (Terpstra & Rozell, 1997). Second, in structured interviews, important interviewer needs are neglected, such as the need for autonomy and the need for power (Dipboye, 1997). A highly standardized procedure could be seen as reducing the task into a boring exercise, whereas an unstructured interview could offer challenges and autonomy. Third, applicants are more favorably disposed to interviewers who are attentive, warm, and socially perceptive. Unstructured interviews allow the communication of these qualities better than structured interviews (Dipboye, 1997). Fourth, structured staffing procedures may be perceived as counter to the organization's philosophy (Kossek, 1989), and their practice may be seen as detrimental by some in the organization. Finally, budgetary and time constraints may prevent the utilization of structured methods. Human resource managers or top

executives may lack a solid background and training in human resources management and may therefore lack the skills and expertise to implement structured interviews (Gannon, 1983; Terpstra & Rozell, 1997).

Situational interview vs. Behavioral description interview questions

Differences in some interview features may account for a large portion of the variance in predictive validities among alternative formats (Wiesner & Cronshaw, 1988). The two most popular structured interview formats are situational interviews (SI) and behavioral descriptive interviews (BDI).

Situational interviews ask future-oriented questions (Campion, Campion, & Hudson, 1994; Latham, Saari, Pursell, & Campion, 1980). They focus on the individual's ability to project what his or her behavior would be in a given situation (McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, & Maurer, 1994). Pulakos and Schmitt (1995) give an example of a situational interview question: "Suppose you were working with an employee who you knew greatly disliked performing a particular job task. You were in a situation where you needed this task completed, and this employee was the only one available to assist you. What would you do to motivate the employee to perform this task?"

Behavior description interviews (or job related interviews) ask past-oriented questions. They describe a situation and ask respondents how they have behaved in the past in such a situation (McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, & Maurer, 1994). The questions may be predictive because past behavior predicts future behavior (Campion, Campion, &

Hudson, 1994). An example of an experience based interview question is as follows: "Think about a time when you had to motivate an employee to perform a job task that he or she disliked but that you needed the individual to do. How did you handle the situation?" (Pulakos & Schmitt, 1995).

Past research on the superiority of situational vs. behavioral interviews has yielded mixed results. Latham and Sue-Chan (1999) found a situational interview to predict GPA for nursing students above the Wonderlic Personnel Test and a tacit knowledge test. In one study, situational interviews yielded a higher mean validity (.50) than did job-related interviews (.39) (McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, & Maurer, 1994). One potential advantage of situational questions is that all interviewees respond to the same hypothetical situation rather than describe whatever experience they may wish to relay from their past (Pulakos & Schmitt, 1995). Responses to situational questions, therefore, tend to be more directly comparable and thus potentially easier to score in a reliable way by multiple interviewers. This has the potential to increase interview consistency in organizations with multiple interviewers.

Researchers have also asserted the benefits of the behavioral interview (Janz, 1982). Results of another empirical study indicate that experience-based interviews significantly predicted job performance, while situational interviews did not and that experience-based interviews explain additional variance in performance beyond that explained by a cognitive ability test (Pulakos & Schmitt, 1995). Campion et al. (1994) found that past oriented questions had higher validities than future oriented questions. They concluded that highly experienced candidates may make past questions more relevant. Also, future questions may be influenced by fakability in selection contexts.

Campion et al. (1997) determined that validity superiority between situational and past behavior questions could not be determined from current evidence and suggested the use of both question types. The authors concluded that as long as different question types have adequate validity, a range of questions offers variety for both the candidate and interviewer.

More recent evidence, however, has supported the validity of both formats in low level positions, but supports the use of behavioral descriptive interviews over situational interviews for upper-level positions (Huffcutt, Weekley, Wiesner, DeGroot, & Jones, 2001), even after controlling for job experience. This distinction forms the basis for using both SI and BDI variables in this study. Based on these findings, it is proposed that behavioral descriptive interviews will consistently predict job performance, while situational interviews will predict job performance only in certain types of jobs.

Job performance

As stated above, the purpose of the employment interview is to assess the potential for job performance. In other words, the main purpose of the employment interview is to predict job performance so that the most appropriate applicants can be hired. The research literature on personnel selection methods generally focuses on one specific indicator of validity, the criterion-related validity coefficient (Robertson & Smith, 2001). This is given prominence above all other indicators of validity.

Job performance is typically measured with a performance appraisal. Performance appraisal is the process by which an observer, usually a direct supervisor,

rates the job performance of a subordinate. From a research perspective, to ensure that performance raters give ratings as accurately as possible, job performance ratings should be made exclusively for research purposes. This should minimize certain rater biases such as leniency error.

The links between job performance and both intelligence and personality have been well established. The next two sections outline the relationship between intelligence / personality and job performance. Finally, a central focus of this study is to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance. Therefore, a later section of this paper outlines the proposed relationship between EI and job performance.

Intelligence in employment selection and job performance

Perhaps the most often cited definition of intelligence is Wechsler's statement that "intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The first hallmark of intelligence is abstract reasoning (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2000). That is, intelligence involves such capacities as seeing the similarities and differences among objects, being able to analyze parts and appreciate their relation to each other as a whole, and generally, being able to reason validly within and across content domains. The measurement of general intelligence consists of completion of number series, pattern recognition, and analogies designed to capture mathematical reasoning, verbal, and spatial-visualization abilities (Gottfredson, 1998).

The core dimension of cognitive ability (general mental ability, or "g") is the key component in providing predictions of subsequent job performance. The use of specific abilities (i.e. sub-components of general mental ability) does not enhance the predictions provided by the use of "g" alone (Olea & Ree, 1994; Ree, Earles, & Treachout, 1994).

Since the very earliest research on personnel selection, cognitive ability has been one of the major methods used to attempt to discriminate between candidates and to predict subsequent job performance (Robertson & Smith, 2001). Intelligence as measured by IQ tests is the single most effective predictor known of individual performance at school and on the job (Gottfredson, 1998), accounting for approximately 25% of the variance in job performance (Hunter & Hunter, 1984). Cognitive ability provides criterion-related validity that generalizes across more or less all occupational areas (Robertson & Smith, 2001).

Huffcutt, Roth, and McDaniel (1996) propose that highly structured interviews could be measuring cognitive factors such as cognitive ability. In fact, general mental ability ("g") has been shown to demonstrate a moderate correlation with interview ratings (Robertson & Smith, 2001). Salgado and Moscoso (2002) found an uncorrected correlation of .14 (.28 corrected) between GMA and structured interview ratings and a correlation of .20 (.41 corrected) in the conventional interview, indicating a weaker yet significant effect of GMA in structured interviews. More specifically, the corrected correlation for GMA and BDI was .33 while the correlation between GMA and SI was .19, indicating a stronger effect of intelligence in behavioral versus situational interviews.

Conversely, Huffcutt et al. (2001) found no effect of intelligence on SI and BDI questions. Huffcutt et al. (2001) found that general mental ability did not predict either

SI or BDI performance. GMA correlated -.09 with SI total scores and -.04 with BDI total scores. It should be noted that GMA did significantly predict training performance ($r = .34$, $p < .001$).

Personality in employment selection and job performance

The 1990s have seen a huge growth in the use of personality assessment within personnel selection practice and research studies designed to evaluate and explore the role of personality within personnel selection (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Frei & McDaniel, 1997; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993; Salgado, 1998; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991). All of these studies adopted a meta-analytic procedure and provide positive evidence for the criterion-related validity of personality. When it comes to the prediction of overall job performance, particularly when data are aggregated over large samples, broad measures such as conscientiousness have demonstrated good validity coefficients. Barrick and Mount (1991) conducted a meta-analysis of 117 criterion-related validity studies of how the Big-5 personality dimensions predict job behavior. Conscientiousness was found to be the best predictor, showing consistent predictions across all occupational groups.

Schneider & Schmitt (1986) found that all five personality dimensions are useful for predicting interview ratings. However, the degree to which these personality dimensions are related to one another may, in fact, depend on the structure or type of interview.

Huffcutt et al. (2001) found a link between BDI ratings and extroversion. Caldwell and Burger (1988) noted that extroversion is probably the most important personality trait during the interview interaction, and found that it influenced interview decisions in their study. In addition, meta-analysis has shown that extraversion is related to performance in managerial and other positions (Barrick & Mount, 1991). However, extroversion probably represents only one component in the larger oral expression / social skills construct (Huffcutt, Weekley, Wiesner, DeGroot, & Jones, 2001).

In a recent meta analysis, Salgado and Moscoso (2002) found uncorrected correlations between structured interviews and conscientiousness of .08 (.17 corrected), agreeableness of .06 (.12 corrected), openness to experience of .04 (.09 corrected), neuroticism of -.04 (-.08 corrected), and extroversion of .10 (.21 corrected). However, these authors did not distinguish between BDI and SI interview formats.

Huffcutt et al. (2001) found that of the Big-5 personality dimensions only extroversion was a significant predictor of interview ratings, and only with BDI questions. Correlations for extroversion were .01 with SI and .30 with BDI. Conscientiousness related -.01 for SI and .08 for BDI. Agreeableness correlated -.13 for SI and .01 for BDI. The correlations with openness to experience were -.08 for SI and .06 for BDI. Finally, emotional stability related .14 with SI and -.05 with BDI.

Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Recently, the use of emotional intelligence for career selection and placement purposes has begun to gather momentum in many organizations. A survey of benchmark

practices among major corporations found that four out of five companies are now trying to promote EI in their organizations (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004). The concept of EI is thought to be useful in selection, training, placement, and promotions (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004). Emotional intelligence, however, is a relatively new concept surrounded by much controversy and enthusiasm. Before describing the usefulness of EI in employment selection, a variety of issues will first be addressed. First, EI's foundations in the intelligence and emotion literature will be reviewed. Next, a review of the EI literature will be presented, with particular emphasis on competing models of EI and their relative validity.

Emotional intelligence as an intelligence

General intelligence ("g") refers to "a person's overall capacity for adaptation through effective cognition and information processing" (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001). It is sometimes seen as a general competence of the mind (mental ability) or higher order faculties such as understanding, reasoning, problem solving, and learning (cognitive ability) (Brody, 1992). However, the concept of general intelligence says little about the more specific competencies that comprise it. Thus, academics have sought to partition the domain of intelligence into more manageable chunks, including less narrow categories of abilities (crystallized intelligence) or more specific abilities (verbal comprehension).

The importance of conventional cognitive intelligence has been challenged by suggestions that there are many different kinds of intelligence (Gardner, 1983). As these

include abilities such as musical intelligence, it is difficult to assume that the same criterion for inclusion holds true for all intelligence constructs (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001). Ultimately, each may do the job of describing abilities that presently are omitted from intelligence tests (Wong & Law, 2002).

One area of interest related to cognitive ability has been the development of 'practical intelligence' (Sternberg & Wagner, 1995), based on Thorndike's (1920) tripartite division of intelligence into the following broad classes:

- Abstract-scholastic intelligence – The ability to understand and manage ideas.
- Mechanical-visuospatial intelligence – The ability to understand and manipulate concrete objects.
- Practical intelligence – The ability to understand and manage people and act wisely in social contexts.

Sternberg and Wagner (1995) state that practical intelligence can be distinguished from the kind of intelligence that lies behind successful academic pursuits. Practical intelligence is unrelated to formal academic success but related to the abilities that people develop in seeking to attain their ordinary goals.

A concept closely related to practical intelligence is that of social intelligence. According to Gardner (1983), social intelligence or "the ability to understand and manage people" (Thorndike & Stein, 1937) is one among seven intelligence domains. It comprises an individual's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Gardner also termed these personal intelligences as individuals' access to their feelings, labeling of those feelings and use by them to guide behavior. Traditional views of social intelligence may take on a manipulative perspective because they omit consideration of one's own

and others' emotions that may guide conduct in a more beneficial fashion (Izard, Kagan, & Zajonc, 1984). Another problem is that social intelligence is defined so broadly that it blends verbal and visual intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Compared with social intelligence, emotional intelligence is broader in including internal, private emotions that are important for personal growth, as opposed to social growth (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

Emotions as they relate to Emotional Intelligence

EI begins with the idea that emotions contain information about relationships (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). Although there is considerable diversity of opinion as to what emotion is (Frijda, 2000; Solomon, 2000), Mayer and colleagues (2001) define emotion as "an organized mental response to an event that includes physiological, experimental, and cognitive aspects." Emotions are recognized as one of three or four fundamental classes of mental operations (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). These classes include motivation, emotion, cognition, and (less frequently) consciousness. Emotions signal and respond to changes in relationships between the individual and the environment. Elkman (1973) posits that emotional information, and the capacity to read it, would demonstrate universally across human beings. Elkman argues that recognition of facial emotional expression is universal. Any apparent differences in human emotional expression from culture to culture could be attributed to the fact that different societies teach different display rules about appropriate moments to express certain feelings. Mayer and Salovey (1997) view emotions of all sorts as

potentially contributing to thought rather than disorganizing it. Steiner (1984) suggests that to be emotionally literate, we need to know what it is that we are feeling and what the causes of our feelings are. One would expect, therefore, that the interaction of emotion and cognition would give rise to emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

Accorging to Ashforth and Humphrey (1995), the role of emotions in organizations have traditionally been ignored despite the issue that emotions in the workplace have often been central to management practice and development (Mastenbroeck, 2000). For years, the rational-cognitive approach has dominated the field of organizational behavior (e.g., Simon, 1976). Emotional issues in organizational behavior have been, at best, buried in the service of cognition or, at worst, ignored (Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Daus, 2002). Ashkanasy (2002) notes that this position is changing dramatically, with various books either published or in process of being published. The interest in mood and affect has led to the recent surge of academic interest in emotions in the workplace (e.g., Isen & Means, 1983). In the late 1980's and early 1990's, the shift of examining mood and affect moved further into the organizational setting. More recently organizational scholars have begun to call for a broader view of emotions in the workplace. The publication of The Managed Heart (Hoschild, 1983) is an early example of research into emotions in organizations.

Alternative models and measures of Emotional Intelligence

Research on ability-based EI began in the early 1990's (Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Salovey and Mayer (1990) first 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 actions" (p. 189). These researchers acknowledge that their initial conception of EI was partly a "mixed model" because it incorporated aspects of personality that might accompany emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000, p.402). Mayer and Salovey (1993) gradually refined their definition of EI and argued that it was a real intelligence. They offered a revised, more focused definition of EI as "the ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions, and regulate emotions to promote personal growth" (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Goleman (1995) popularized EI by making new and extraordinary claims about its importance, including that it is "as powerful and at times more powerful than IQ" (p. 34). Independent reviews of Goleman's work have shown this claim to be unsubstantiated (Epstein, 1998; Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000; Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2002). The basis of the Goleman model is that of "emotional competencies", and therefore departs from Mayer and Salovey's focus on EI as an intelligence.

Bar-On, Brown, Dirkcaldv, and Thome (2000) developed their model of of EI based on "non-cognitive intelligence." The EQ-I (Bar-On, 1997) provides information on five composite factors that are composed of 15 subscales, although Bar-On et al.

(2000) recently made a revision to the scale in which the general mood factor is said to be a facilitator of EI rather than a part of it.

- Intrapersonal EQ - emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, and independence
- Interpersonal EQ - empathy, relationship skills, and social responsibility
- Adaptability - problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility
- Stress management - stress tolerance and impulse control
- General mood - happiness and optimism

Mayer and colleagues (2000) argue that these models of EI define emotional intelligence as a mixture of abilities and other personality dispositions and traits (mixed model). The motivation for this appears to be the desire to label a single entity what appears to be, in fact, a diverse group of things that predict success (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). However, labeling nonintellectual characteristics intelligence potentially obscures their meaning (Salovey & Mayer, 1994; Sternberg, 1997).

An additional issue with "mixed models" of EI is their potential lack of discriminant validity with related constructs. Mayer and colleagues (2000) identify various concepts related to mixed models of EI. These include achievement motivation (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1953), alexithymia (Bagby, Parker, & Taylor, 1994), emotional-responsiveness empathy (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972), openness (Costa & McCrae, 1985), optimism (Scheier & Carver, 1985), pleasant-unpleasant effectivity (Green, Goldman, & Salovey, 1993), practical intelligence (Sternberg, Wagner, Williams, & Horvath, 1995), self-esteem (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991), and subjective well-being

(Andrews & Robinson, 1991). To what degree mixed models of EI overlap with these related constructs remains in question.

Another issue in the development of appropriate measures of EI is that of how the information is collected. EI has been measured using self-report scales, peer reports, and ability tests. The three best-known EI tests are the MSCEIT, the EQ-I, and the SREIT (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). There is controversy about what these tests actually measure, what they predict, and whether the tests demonstrate discriminant validity from other abilities and personality dimensions (Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000; McCrae, 2000). The EQ-I (Bar-On, 1997) is a self report based on a "mixed model". Other self-report scales have been developed based on the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso EI model including the SREIT, EIS and WLEIS (i.e., Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004; Schutte et al., 1998). The Law and Wong (2004) scale in particular (WLEIS) consists of 16 items and the items appear to more cleanly load onto the 4 dimensions outlined by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) than other comparable measures.

The SREIT, EIS and WLEIS may also be used to assess EI through peer assessment along with other scales designed for organizational settings (Boyatzsis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000). For example, Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel and Hooper (2002) developed the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP) to study the role of EI in work teams as peer reports of EI. In a meta-analysis, other ratings (peers, supervisors) of EI were found to have mean operational validity slightly higher than that of self-reports (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). While potentially more valid than self-

reports, the peer report method presents a different set of measurement issues. At best, what is measured seems to tap peer impressions of EI, not their peers' actual ability.

Ability-based EI appears to demonstrate construct validity (MacCann, Roberts, Matthews, & Zeidner, 2004). Also, ability-based measures of EI are less susceptible to faking than other measures that are more transparent (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). However, mixed models of EI have problems with virtually all forms of validity (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). In particular, the EQ-I and SREIT rely on self-report techniques based on people's endorsements of descriptive statements about themselves, and therefore assess self-perceptions of intelligence. Most people are inaccurate reporters of their own abilities. Therefore, self-report EI relates weakly to actual intelligence levels (Derksen, Kramer, & Katzko, 2002; Mabe & West, 1982). The correlation between EI scores and measures of "g" was .22 in a meta-analysis including studies with both ability and peer reports (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). However, the correlation of the ability-based EI and "g" was .33 versus a .09 correlation between self-report EI and "g".

Many self-report measures lack divergent validity in their relation with established personality traits (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998). For example, the EIS correlates about (.50) with openness to experience (Schutte et al., 1998), while the EQ-I correlates close to (.50) with all of the Big-5 personality factors, and particularly high with neuroticism (Dawda & Hart, 2000). MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2003) highlight a variety of studies which demonstrate significant correlations with multiple self-report measures of EI and all 5 dimensions of the Big-5 personality traits. Given the overlap between self-report EI scales and the Big-5 factor model, it is entirely

likely that most of this validity derives from personality, especially neuroticism and extroversion, rather than from unique EI variance. In fact, most mixed-model studies do not control for intelligence or personality, and may also contain common method variance issues.

Some evidence also exists regarding the discriminant validity of ability-based EI from mixed model self-reports. Warwick and Nettelbeck (2004) note differing performance of ability-based EI and trait meta mood scale (TMMS), which supports the proposition of distinct types of EI; trait EI and ability EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2000). In a factor analysis including the 4 factors from ability-based EI, the 5 factors from the EQ-I, the SREIT, the 5 dimensions of personality, subjective well-being, 4 dimensions of psychological well-being, and verbal SAT, a clean 3 factor solution emerged and was analyzed (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Ability-based EI dimensions loaded onto one factor, but included verbal SAT and agreeableness. The EQ-I dimensions loaded with subjective well-being, neuroticism and conscientiousness. The SREIT loaded with psychological well-being, extraversion, and openness to experience. It should be no surprise, then, that correlations between ability and self-report measures of emotional intelligence are generally low (Paulhus, Lysy, & Yik, 1998), suggesting that self-report measures of emotional intelligence cannot legitimately constitute a form of intelligence (Bowman, Markham, & Roberts, 2002).

With respect to criterion-related validity, while several studies claim that this has been established (VanDerZee, Bakker, & Bakker, 2002), the fact remains that there are significant problems in the criterion variables used. These variables often share conceptual overlap with the predictor (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004). The

criterion-related validity of mixed model EI has been quite controversial. Proponents of EI claim it can predict various work related outcomes such as job performance (Bachman, Stein, Campbell, & Sitarenios, 2000) and turnover (Goleman, 1998). Publishers of EI tests advocate the use of EI tests for personnel selection, claiming that research has demonstrated a strong correlation between EI and job performance (Bar-On, 1997). Unfortunately, many of these claims are based on unpublished studies and misinterpreted data (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Hooper, 2002). Critics of EI are quick to point to the absence of published studies or scientific evidence to support the claims (Barrett, Miguel, Tan, & Hurd, 2001).

Mayer, Salovey, Caruso's Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence

Salovey et al. (1990) originally 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 action". Mayer and colleagues (1997) conclude that this definition appears vague in places in the sense that they talk only about perceiving and regulating emotion, and omit thinking about feelings. The authors go on to clarify by stating that "emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and / or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10).

Emotions reflect relationships between a person and a friend, a family, the situation, a society, or more internally, between a person and a reflection of memory. Emotional intelligence refers in part to an ability to recognize the meanings of such emotional patterns and to reason and solve problems on the basis of them (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The theory predicts that EI is, in fact, an intelligence like other intelligences in that it will meet three empirical criteria (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). First, mental problems have right or wrong answers, as assessed by the convergence of alternative scoring methods. Second, the measured skills correlate with other measures of mental ability (because mental abilities tend to intercorrelate) as well as with self-reported empathy (Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990). Third, the absolute ability level rises with age.

Currently, the academic concept of ability-based emotional intelligence has been developed over several theoretical articles (e.g. Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and is based on a growing body of relevant research (e.g. Averill & Nunley, 1992; Buck, 1984; Lane et al., 1996; Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990; Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer & Stevens, 1994; Rosenthal, Hall, DiMatteo, Rogers, & Archer, 1979; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995; Salovey & Sluyter, 1997). There exist a variety of concepts related to EI including psychological well-being and occupational stress (Law, Wong, & Song, 2004), emotional competence, emotional creativity, and empathetic accuracy (Averill & Nunley, 1992; Lane, Quinlan, Schwartz, Walker, & Zeitlin, 1990; Saarni, 1999), nonverbal perception (Buck, 1984; Rosenthal, Hall, DiMatteo, Rogers, & Archer, 1979) empathetic accuracy (Ickes, 1997), emotional competence (Saarni, 1999), emotional creativity (Averill & Nunley, 1992), personal

intelligence (Gardner, 1983), social intelligence (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1987; Sternberg, 1988; Sternberg & Smith, 1985; Thorndike & Stein, 1937), and Jung's feeling function (Jung, 1971). Although considerable theoretical and conceptual arguments have begun to be made, as with "mixed models" of EI, ability-based EI must continue to demonstrate how it is different from the concepts listed above.

Ability-based EI criterion-related validity

Despite assertions that ability-based EI predicts success at work and an increasing number of organizations are using EI tests (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Hooper, 2002), few published studies have demonstrated these relationships empirically (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). Empirical tests of ability-based EI began recently with the development of the MEIS, and are currently being conducted using the newly developed MSCEIT and MSCEIT v2.

Ability-based EI has been shown to correlate with self-report empathy ($r = .33$ and .43); parental warmth ($r = .23$ and .15); life satisfaction ($r = .11$ and .28) (Ciarriochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000) and lack of tobacco and alcohol usage (Trinidad & Johnson, 2002), demonstrating the predictive validity if ability-based EI. `Also, it remains to be established whether or not these results hold for the MSCEIT (MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2003). A few preliminary results using ability-based EI are beginning to appear in the literature.

Additional preliminary findings using ability-based EI suggest that lower levels of EI is related to self-destructive behaviors such as deviancy and smoking (Brackett &

Mayer, 2003; Rubin, 1999; Trinidad & Johnson, 2002), while high levels of EI are related to positive outcomes such as prosocial behavior, parental warmth, and positive peer and family relations (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Rice, 1999; Salovey, Mayer, Caruso, & Lopes, 2001). EI has been shown to be negatively correlated with illegal drug use, alcohol consumption, deviant behavior, and negative relations with friends (r's = -.28 to -.45), but only with the male subsample (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004) after controlling for intelligence and personality. Ability-based EI correlated with social deviance (-.27), high school rank (.21), and college GPA (.16), and generated incremental validity by correlating with social deviance after controlling for verbal SAT and the Big-5 personality dimensions (Brackett & Mayer, 2003).

Ability-based EI also correlated significantly with psychological well being (.28) (Brackett & Mayer, 2003), school related task performance (Lyons & Schneider, 2005) as well as school related contextual performance (civic virtue r = .14 and sportsmanship r = .32) (Day & Carrol, 2004). Based on these findings, ability-based EI as measured by the MEIS and MSCEIT, has been shown to predict self-destructive behaviors and social deviance, psychological states, cognitive performance, as well as task and contextual performance in non-work settings.

Lam and Kirby (2002) examined the relationships between emotional intelligence (using the MEIS), general intelligence (using the Shipley Institute of Living IQ Scale) and individual cognitive-based performance (8 problems selected from Burney (1974) logical reasoning test). Results indicate that overall emotional intelligence contributed 3.4% to individual cognitive-based performance over and above the level attributable to general intelligence. This finding of incremental validity provides support for the EI

construct, yet cognitive-based performance provides little basis for predicting actual job performance.

Ability-based EI discriminant / convergent validity with "g"

Emotional intelligence appears to be distinct from, but positively related to, other intelligences (Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Daus, 2002). It is an individual difference, where some people are more endowed than others; it develops over a person's life span and can be enhanced through training; and it involves, at least in part, a person's abilities to identify and to perceive emotion, as well as possession of the skills to understand and manage those emotions successfully (Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Daus, 2002).

Performance based EI tends to correlate differently with disparate factors of intelligence (MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2003). The MEIS correlates moderately with measures of crystallized intelligence (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999), placing cognitive EI closer to crystallized (rather that fluid) intelligence within Gf / Gc theory (Carrol, 1993; Horn & Cattell, 1966). General emotional intelligence correlated with measures of verbal intelligence (r = .36) (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). Ability-based EI scores correlated with verbal SAT scores (r = .35 and .32, respectively) (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004) and to a much lesser extent with college GPA (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004). Also, Shulte, Ree and Caretta (2004) report a correlation between composite EI and "g" (r = .45) measured using the Wonderlic Personnel Test. The magnitude of correlations with other intelligence constructs (but not personality constructs), therefore somewhat discriminate EI as a

distinct form of ability (MacCann, Roberts, Matthews, & Zeidner, 2004), yet related enough to be a form of intelligence.

Ability-based EI discriminant / convergent validity regarding Big-5 personality traits

Ability-based EI scores have been shown to range from no relationship to high correlation with the Big-5 dimensions of personality: extraversion ranged from .03 to .18, agreeableness ranged from .24 to .30, conscientiousness ranged from .03 to .23, neuroticism ranged from .02 to –.28, and openness ranged from .17 to .27, with openness to experience most consistently demonstrating significance, followed by agreeableness (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004; Lopes et al., 2004; Schulte, Ree, & Carette, 2004; Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004).

It is not surprising to find that openness to experience is related to EI as openness is characterized as intellect, intellectual curiosity and aesthetic sensitivity (Costa & McCrae, 1992). One facet of openness is openness to feeling, which is characterized by an awareness of one's own feelings and emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Moreover, although openness is distinct from intelligence, it has shown moderate relationships with education and those components of intelligence that are related to creativity, such as divergent thinking.

Day et al. (2004) also found openness to experience was the only personality scale that was related to all four ability-based EI sub-dimensions (correlations ranged from .13 to .23). Extraversion was related to emotional understanding and integration (r= -.15 and -.11, respectively) and agreeableness was related to emotional management (r = .16).

Neuroticism was only related to emotional perception (r = -.11). Conscientiousness was unrelated to all four ability-based EI sub-scales.

Various authors have concluded that the four-branch model of EI is reasonably distinct from personality (Ciarriochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2003; MacCann, Roberts, Matthews, & Zeidner, 2004; Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001; Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004), indicating divergent validity.

Incremental validity rationale over "g" and Big-5

Most personality psychologists would agree that for a new construct to be welcomed into the field, it must explain variance that is not accounted for by well established constructs (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). A variety of theorists have proposed evaluating the relationship between EI and different aspects of job performance, after accounting for either personality or intelligence. Law et al. (2004) propose the predictive power of EI on job performance as compared with general mental ability could be an interesting research direction. Shulte, Ree and Caretta (2004) suggest measuring EI in relation to various dimensions of job performance. This would involve residualizing the "g" and personality portions out of EI and testing to see if the non-"g" and non-personality portions of EI offer any incremental validity (Olea & Ree, 1994).

In fact, empirical work evaluating incremental validity has begun. According to Lam and Kirby (2002), emotional intelligence accounts for individual personal performance gains over and above those attributable to general intelligence (Cooper &

Sawar, 1997; Salovey & Sluyter, 1997; Weisinger, 1997). Ability-based EI, therefore, has the potential for incremental validity over and above the predictions that can be made from the Big-5 and "g" (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004) as related to a variety of organizational variables. Therefore, statistically controlling for the established measures of "g" and the Big-5 is essential in determining of the value of EI. If EI fails to demonstrate incremental validity after controlling for "g" and the Big-5, it will fail to provide a unique contribution to the organizational literature beyond what has been supported through well-studied concepts.

Emotional Intelligence in the employment interview

Based on recent progress made by the development and utilization of ability-based measures of EI, research should begin to examine the predictive validity of the MSCEIT for other job tasks (Day & Carrol, 2004). Goleman (1998) identifies the workplace as an important context for EI due to the prevalence of social situations and where getting along with others is critical to success. EI can have important implications for the selection and performance management of employees in organizations (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000). Practitioners are seeking to maximize potential employee performance through identification, selection, and training of critical competencies involving the emotional abilities of their employees (Goleman, 1998). The employment interview, therefore, seems to represent a relevant avenue for research.

As discussed earlier, much work has focused on developing different types of structured interviews in attempts to increase predictive validity. What might be more

important now is to search for specific variables involved in the structured interview that effect the favorableness of interview ratings and ultimately, predictive validity of job performance. Accurate measurement of EI would appear to be especially useful for organizations in the contexts of personnel selection, promotion, and division transfer (MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2003). The interview process can be a highly emotionally charged situation, for both the interviewer and interviewee (Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Daus, 2002) in which emotional relationships and contingent interactions all may effect the outcomes (Baron, 1993). Interviewees are, at best, energized and aroused to present an image of an effective potential employee. At worst, they are crippled by anxiety and the fear they might not be able to answer the interview questions "correctly", or that they will otherwise be seen to behave inappropriately in the interview. People with emotional intelligence might be more socially effective than others in certain respects (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This concept has the potential to be particularly appropriate in the context of the employment interview.

The employee selection literature (Arvey, 1979; Arvey & Campion, 1982; Baron, 1993; Dipboye & Gaugler, 1993; Forbes & Jackson, 1980; Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Howard & Ferris, 1996; Isen & Baron, 1991; Keenan, 1977; Parsons & Liden, 1984) provides ample evidence that employment interview outcomes can depend on both candidate and interviewer effective experience and manipulation. Successful interviewees may make the interviewers or observers like them and feel good about them, perhaps involving competencies of empathy, self-presentation, and tactical use of non-verbal expression (Fox & Spector, 2000). A separate consideration in the job interview is the candidate's ability to recognize and regulate his or her own moods and feelings. In a

job interview, a candidate in a positive mood may be more likely to recall, construe, and describe incidents of past work performance in a self-enhancing way, may be more likely to project a confident and competent self, and may be more adept at dealing creatively with unexpected questions (Fox & Spector, 2000).

Baron's (1993) work has shown in particular that emotional competence is important in the interview. More recent research (Fox & Spector, 2000; Kingsbury & Daus, 2001) has found that interviewees who express positive affect and are empathetic are likely to be more successful in generating positive impressions in the interviewer. Similarly, interviewers can be biased by their own mood states, as well as susceptible to having their moods influenced by the candidate (Baron, 1993; Fox & Spector, 2000), possibly leading to an unfair evaluation of the candidate. The ability of the interviewee to, for example, perceive and manage emotions in the interviewer may provide insight into the mechanisms by which interviewees potentially alter the mood of the interviewer. Since knowledge beyond these findings is limited, it would prove beneficial to further investigate the effect of the interviewer's specific emotional intelligence on the conduct in the interview, and consequentially, the quality of the interviewer evaluations and decisions regarding applicant's suitability.

Recent work by Sue-Chan and Latham (2005) found that peer-reported emotional intelligence completely mediated the relationship between situational interview ratings and peer-rated team-playing behavior. Although the method in which the authors measure EI is dramatically different from ability-based EI, this work makes the conceptual argument that emotional intelligence should be related to situational interview ratings.

It may also prove valuable to assess the degree to which EI affects interview ratings with different interview question types. As stated earlier, situational interviews have been shown to be less effective for higher level positions (Huffcutt, Weekley, Wiesner, DeGroot, & Jones, 2001). After ruling out a variety of other potential causes for the difference, the authors posit the possibility that BDI validity for upper-level positions is a result of incidental measurement of a general characteristic that is somehow related to job performance. In fact, SI and BDI ratings may capture different constructs (Huffcutt, Weekley, Wiesner, DeGroot, & Jones, 2001). Therefore, it might be appropriate to view SI and BDI questions as separate testing devices. If SI and BDI questions are not capturing the same construct, what are they measuring?

Differences in validity between SI and BDI may, in part, depend on BDI's more verbally intensive nature (Huffcutt, Weekley, Wiesner, DeGroot, & Jones, 2001). With situational questions the context and dynamics are already provided and the candidates respond how they would react. In contrast, with BDI questions the candidates are required to provide information on the context and dynamics of each experience before describing how they responded. Due to this key difference, it is possible that candidates who have higher levels of EI could have an advantage on most BDI questions regardless of what specific job characteristics they were written to assess. What makes this issue especially attractive is that it is expected that there is an effect of emotional intelligence on higher-level positions. Higher level positions typically have a strong social component, including leading, persuading, advising, presenting information to and obtaining information from others in the workplace (Huffcutt, Weekley, Wiesner, DeGroot, & Jones, 2001). Therefore, people with higher levels of emotional intelligence

should be more effective at these aspects, which in turn should contribute to higher performance appraisals. The effect of EI on interview ratings, then, may depend on the type of interview question format (BDI vs. SI). Therefore, this first set of hypotheses proposes that EI, and its dimensions, provide incremental validity in its relationship to three types of performance after controlling for "g", and the Big-5 dimensions of personality. This will be a much more stringent test of EI on interview and job performance, since many of the control variables have been shown to predict interview and job performance while correlating with EI. It should be noted that some of the variables included in the model have demonstrated little ability to predict interview or job performance in prior studies or have demonstrated little correlation with EI in past studies. They are included in the model due to calls in recent literature (cited earlier) to control for the effects of intelligence, personality, and gender when dealing with emotional intelligence and even argue that EI may provide no predictive ability beyond its correlates.

The first set of hypotheses to test the model in Figure 1 is:

H1a) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the composite of emotional intelligence will positively predict ratings of interview ratings based on situational interview questions.

H2a) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the composite of emotional intelligence will positively predict ratings of interview ratings based on behavioral descriptive interview questions.

H3a) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the composite of emotional intelligence will be a stronger predictor of interview ratings in BDI versus SI interview question formats.

Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance

Janovics and Christiansen (2001) report some evidence of predictive validity for ability-based EI, which was found to relate to performance among a sample of 69 undergraduates (r = .21), with relations accounted for mainly by the understanding emotions branch (r = .26) which shows the highest correlations with crystallized intelligence. Overall, the results of this study did indicate some (yet non-significant) incremental validity for ability-based EI, explaining 3% more variance in job performance above intelligence and conscientiousness alone. One issue, which the authors speak of, is that a full realization of EI as a predictor of job performance will probably not be understood until we better understand different types of jobs. In their study of psychology undergraduates, the potential for a wide range of job types generated in the sample seems quite high. The absence of some type of job type moderation variable seems to limit what we can learn from the findings.

In a recent sub-group meta-analysis of 8 studies using ability-based EI, Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) found an average correlation of .19 with performance (employment, academic, other). The four sub-dimensions were found to correlate generally higher with performance than overall EI; perception .13, assimilation, .24,

understand .23, and management, .19. It should be noted that of 8 studies used, few of the studies were published in peer-reviewed outlets and some are tangentially related to job performance, if at all (Janovics & Christiansen, Unpublished manuscript). These authors also state that (besides their own 2001 SIOP conference presentation) neither the MEIS nor either version of the MSCEIT have been used in any of the studies examining the criterion-related validity of emotional intelligence in predicting job performance (Janovics & Christiansen, Unpublished manuscript).

The best new variables typically increase prediction beyond established measures, for instance, the effect of conscientiousness beyond intelligence on job performance (Hunter & Hunter, 1984). That incremental prediction can mean great savings when scientific methods of selection are employed for thousands of people. Can emotion-related abilities, independent from existing intelligence and personality constructs, further account for aspects of workplace performance (MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2003)?

The next hypothesis to test the model in Figure 1 is:

H4a) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the composite of emotional intelligence will positively predict job performance

Emotional Intelligence and Gender

Several studies have found that women score higher men in at least some areas of EI (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Ciarriochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Day & Carrol, 2004;

Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Schulte, Ree, & Carette, 2004). A variety of issues may lead to this outcome. For example, women typically excel at correctly classifying facial emotions and distinguishing among various emotions (Thayer & Johnson, 2000). Therefore, it has been established that gender correlates with EI and that women on average perform better than men.

However, although women on average score higher than men on EI tests, more research needs to address potential group differences in EI in order to ascertain that no adverse impact exists (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). An unanswered question relating to EI and gender is whether or not women utilize emotional intelligence to a greater degree than their male counterparts. Although there is little theoretical development related to gender interactions in emotional intelligence, some related theory and empirical findings support such a claim. For example, Day et al. (2004) conclude that women tend to be more empathetic and emotional than men and were found to be more verbally explicit about feelings than men (Mehrabian, Young, & Sato, 1988). People generally self-disclose more to women than to men (Thayer & Johnson, 2000). Women also tend to self-disclose more and are considered more responsive conversation partners than men (Andersen & Bem, 1981). Finally, women may be more likely than men to provide emotional appraisal social support (Shumaker & Hill, 1991). In fact, it would be difficult to argue that males and females do not differ in how they react to emotions. Janz (2000) argues that men tend to supress most of their feelings, a phenomenon known as "restrictive emotionality." Although these gender differences may be tangential to EI, they help to bolster the argument that the relationship between EI and

certain outcomes may depend on the gender of the subject. More specifically related to EI, as stated earlier, there are gender differences in the relationships between EI and illegal drug use, alcohol consumption, deviant behavior, and negative relations with friends. Therefore, gender is evaluated as a moderator of the relationships between EI and SI interview ratings, BDI interview ratings and job performance.

The final set of hypotheses to test the model in Figure 1 is:

H5a) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the composite of emotional intelligence and SI interview ratings

H6a) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the composite of emotional intelligence and BDI interview ratings

H7a) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the composite of emotional intelligence and job performance

EI dimensions

It would be beneficial to match different facets of EI to different kinds of occupations (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004), or in this case, the job related task of

the employment interview. Research is currently in the midst of empirical and theoretical debate about the dimensions and competencies comprising emotional intelligence (Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Daus, 2002; Ciarriochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998). However, the widely accepted dimensions of the ability-based model of EI include perceiving emotions, facilitating emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Roberts and colleagues (2001) describe the four dimensions in detail:

1. The verbal and nonverbal appraisal and expression of emotion in the self and others. The most fundamental level of EI includes the perception, appraisal, and expression of emotions (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999). In other words, implicit in this aspect of EI is the awareness of both emotions and thoughts concerning emotions, the ability to monitor and differentiate among emotions, and the ability to adequately express emotions (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001).
2. The utilization of emotion to facilitate thought and action. This component of EI involves assimilating basic emotional experiences into mental life (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). This includes weighing emotions against one another and against other sensations and thoughts and allowing emotions to direct attention (e.g., holding an emotional state in consciousness long enough to compare its correspondence with similar sensations in sound, color, and taste). Marshaling emotions in the service of a goal is essential for selective attention, self-monitoring, self-motivation, and so forth (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001).

3. Understanding and reasoning about emotions. This aspect of EI involves perceiving the "lawfulness" underlying specific emotions (e.g., to understand that anger arises when justice is denied or when an injustice is performed against oneself or one's loved ones). This process also involves the understanding of emotional problems, such as knowing what emotions are similar and what relation they convey (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001).
4. The regulation of emotion in self and others. According to Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey (1999), the highest level in the hierarchy of EI skills is the management and regulation of emotions. This facet of EI involves knowing how to calm down after feeling stressed out or alleviating the stress and emotion of others. This facet facilitates social adaptation and problem solving (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001).

The four branches of EI are arranged from more basic psychological processes to higher, more psychologically integrated processes. For example, the lowest level branch concerns the relatively simple abilities of perceiving and expressing emotion. In contrast, the highest-level branch concerns the conscious, reflective regulation of emotion (Salovey & Sluyter, 1997). Each branch contains four abilities that develop in a progression from early skills to later developing ones and could be thought of as a causal progression of development through the dimension (although each dimension itself is considered independent and therefore not causal). Although these four factors form ability-based EI, they are independent from one another and have demonstrated the ability to react differently from one another in differing contexts (see Day & Carrol,

2004). For example, they load separately in factor analysis and differ in their respective relationships with personality and intelligence.

Due to the relatively new development of an adequate measure of the four sub-dimensions of EI, few studies have evaluated their effect as independent factors. This study attempts to determine the effect of the sub-dimensions of EI on interview ratings. The limited literature relating to each of the four sub-dimensions will be reviewed, followed by an explanation of the proposed hypotheses relating to SI and BDI interview question formats, job performance, and gender interactions.

The Perception and Appraisal dimension of Emotional Intelligence

This dimension has been linked to individual performance. Lam and Kirby (2002) found that perceiving emotions explained over 7% of the variance in individual cognitive-based performance over and above the level attributable to "g". Also, the emotion perception dimension of ability-based EI correlated with individual task performance ($r = .17$) (Day & Carrol, 2004), potentially extending this dimension as an antecedent to interview and job performance.

The ability to appraise emotions is likely to influence the emotional valence of social interactions (Lopes et al., 2004), because we infer other people's intentions from their emotional cues, use others' emotions as guides for our own behavior, or simply catch others' emotions through emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). Therefore, the perception appraisal dimension should lead to interview ratings, but only through interviewer cues. This relationship depends on the level of structure in

the interview related to interviewer interaction with the interviewee. This dimension should, in fact, affect unstructured interviews. In highly structured interviews, however, the cues given by the interviewer should be minimized, thus reducing the effect of emotional appraisal. Since this study includes a highly structured interview the effect of emotional appraisal on both SI and BDI interview ratings may be smaller than that of the other dimensions of EI.

Davies, Stankov, and Roberts (1998) report that emotional perception showed nonsignificant positive correlations with measures of crystallized intelligence ($r = .05$) fluid intelligence ($r = .15$), while McCann et al. (2004) related EI to crystallized intelligence, but not fluid or visual intelligence. Consequently, the perceiving subscale was not related to any personality traits (Lopes et al., 2004).

The next set of hypotheses, then, proposes the relationship of the perception dimension of EI to two types of interview ratings and job performance and gender interactions.

H1b) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the perception of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict ratings of interview ratings based on situational interview questions.

H2b) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the perception of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict ratings of interview ratings based on behavioral descriptive interview questions.

H3b) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the perception of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence will be a stronger predictor of interview ratings in BDI versus SI interview question formats.

H4b) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the perception of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict job performance

H5b) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the perception of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence and SI interview ratings

H6b) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the perception of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence and BDI interview ratings

H7b) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the perception of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence and job performance

The Facilitation of Emotion dimension of Emotional Intelligence

Lam and Kirby (2002) state that once emotions occur and are recognized by the cognitive system of the brain, the ability to guard against distracting emotions and to build on enhancing emotions facilitates individual task performance as well as team performance. The negative effects of fear, negative emotions, and anxiety are minimized with well-developed emotional intelligence. Day et al. (2004) suggest that individuals who are high in the assimilation of emotion dimension of ability-based EI are able to harness their emotions and use them to facilitate reasoning, creative thinking, and decision making (Sosik & Megerian, 1999). Also, the ability to assimilate emotions may facilitate a flexible focus of attention, which is important for smooth communication and social interaction (Lopes et al., 2004). Therefore, the assimilation of emotion dimension of EI will relate to the frame of mind of the interviewee through their ability to assimilate mood in thought processes.

More specifically, BDI interview formats require candidates to provide information on the context and dynamics of each experience before describing how they responded. These additional tasks require a greater level of focused attention, potentially giving an advantage to those high on the assimilation of emotion dimension of EI. It stands to reason then that individuals with higher assimilation of emotion will perform better in the structured interview and that the effect on performance will be stronger in the behavioral descriptive interview than in the situational interview. Although the assimilation of emotion dimension of EI has been related to the openness to experience

dimension of personality (.23) (Lopes et al., 2004), little empirical evidence of the incremental validity of this dimension has been published.

The next set of hypotheses, then, proposes the relationship of the assimilation dimension of EI to the two types of interview ratings, job performance, and gender interactions.

H1c) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the assimilation of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict ratings of interview ratings based on situational interview questions.

H2c) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the assimilation of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict ratings of interview ratings based on behavioral descriptive interview questions.

H3c) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the assimilation of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence will be a stronger predictor of interview ratings in BDI versus SI interview question formats.

H4c) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the assimilation of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict job performance

H5c) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the assimilation of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence and SI interview ratings

H6c) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the assimilation of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence and BDI interview ratings

H7c) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the assimilation of emotion dimension of emotional intelligence and job performance

The Understanding Emotions dimension of Emotional Intelligence

The understanding emotions dimension of EI will be utilized in the context of determining the "correct" answer to the interview question. For example, using the example situational interview question given by Pulakos and Schmitt (1995): "Suppose you were working with an employee who you knew greatly disliked performing a particular job task. You were in a situation where you needed this task completed, and this employee was the only one available to assist you. What would you do to motivate the employee to perform this task?" The interviewee must understand how emotions combine and change if they are to be able to determine how to motivate the employee based on the information given. The ability to understand emotions should lead to

improved answers to interview questions where emotional situations are a component of the scenario. The mechanism of combining emotions seems to be similar for SI and BDI questions.

Although not related to any personality traits (Lopes et al., 2004), emotional understanding is the most allied with cognitive processing and abstract reasoning and therefore is the most cognitively saturated (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). Correlations of EI to crystallized intelligence were highest for this dimension of EI (MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2003).

The next set of hypotheses, then, proposes the relationship of the understanding emotions dimension of EI to the two types of interview ratings, job performance, and gender interactions.

H1d) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the understanding emotions dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict ratings of interview ratings based on situational interview questions.

H2d) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the understanding emotions dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict ratings of interview ratings based on behavioral descriptive interview questions.

H3d) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the understanding emotions dimension of emotional intelligence will be a stronger predictor of interview ratings in BDI versus SI interview question formats.

H4d) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the understanding emotions dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict job performance

H5d) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the understanding emotions dimension of emotional intelligence and SI interview ratings.

H6d) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the understanding emotions dimension of emotional intelligence and BDI interview ratings

H7d) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the understanding emotions dimension of emotional intelligence and job performance

The Managing Emotions dimension of Emotional Intelligence

The ability to manage emotions may influence people's motivation and expectations for social interactions (Cunningham, 1988) as well as their use of effective interaction strategies (Furr & Funder, 1998; Langston & Cantor, 1989). It may facilitate functions associated with the coordination of numerous skills required for social behavior (Lopes et al., 2004). Also, it seems to be linked to a broader capacity for self-control (Lopes et al., 2004), including the control of impulsive behavior (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994).

Two studies found positive relationships between the ability to manage emotions and the quality of social interactions (Lopes et al., 2004). Therefore, the managing emotions dimension of EI will relate to the interview question through the interviewee's ability to problem solve and adapt socially. Along a similar vein, managing emotions will also affect actual interviewee behavior through the process of impression management. Based on the reasoning established by Huffcutt et al. (2001), behavioral description allows for a greater effect of impression management, which directly related to the managing emotions of others dimension of EI.

Emotion management, although the highest branch, creates an interface between the cognitive system and the more general personality system (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). As such, emotion management is actually less cognitive than emotional understanding, because it must balance many factors including the motivational, emotional, and cognitive (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). As expected, the managing emotion subscale has been related to personality; specifically,

extraversion (.20), agreeableness (.27), neuroticism (-.22), and openness (.24) (Lopes et al., 2004). Lam and Kirby (2002), found that the regulating emotions dimension of EI contributed to cognitive-based performance over and above the level attributable to general intelligence, providing evidence for the incremental validity of this dimension of EI.

The next set of hypotheses, then, proposes the relationship of the managing emotions dimension of EI to two types of interview ratings, job performance, and gender interactions.

H1e) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the managing emotions dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict ratings of interview ratings based on situational interview questions.

H2e) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the managing emotions dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict ratings of interview ratings based on behavioral descriptive interview questions.

H3e) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the managing emotions dimension of emotional intelligence will be a stronger predictor of interview ratings in BDI versus SI interview question formats.

H4e) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, the managing emotions dimension of emotional intelligence will positively predict job performance

H5e) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the managing emotions dimension of emotional intelligence and SI interview ratings

H6e) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the managing emotions dimension of emotional intelligence and BDI interview ratings

H7e) After controlling for intelligence and the Big-5 dimensions of personality, gender will moderate the relationship between the managing emotions dimension of emotional intelligence and job performance.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the methods used to examine the effect of ability-based emotional intelligence and its dimensions on interview ratings and job performance as well as the incremental validity of emotional intelligence and its dimensions after accounting for intelligence and the Big-5 personality dimensions. This section begins with a description of the pilot and main sample, followed by the research design and context in which the study was conducted. There is a detailed focus on conducting the employment interviews, including the development of interview questions, conducting the interviews, and the use of judges to rate interview ratings. Also, data collection procedures, operationalization of the independent and dependent constructs, and data analysis techniques are presented.

Pilot Study

Sample

This study consists of 35 undergraduate students from a southwestern university. These students were participating in a job strategies seminar through career services. The sample consists of 24 females and 11 males and consisted of 22 Caucasians and 13 non-

Caucasians. The participants range from 19 to 30 years of age, with an average age of 22 years. Their average full time work experience is approximately 4 years. Of the 35 participants, 34 completed all surveys, 30 completed video recorded situational and behavioral descriptive interviews, and job performance data was collected for 28 of the participants. The participants completed mock interviews as if they were interviewing for a junior consultant. The position description is included in appendix A. The situational and behavioral descriptive questions were designed based on this job description. The interview questions are included in appendix A. The mock interviews were scheduled and held in the career services department. The interviewees were asked to dress professionally in order to increase the sense of realism of the employment interview. The interviewees had reviewed the junior consultant position description prior to the interview in order to better understand the context of the position in which they were interviewing for.

Interview ratings

60 undergraduate students from a large southwest university were asked to participate as trained raters for extra credit in a human resource management course. After approximately 2 hours of training, each of the raters independently viewed 2 SI interview segments and 2 BDI interview segments in a researcher controlled computer lab. In order to eliminate potential carryover effects, the raters viewed interview segments from 4 different interviews. This yielded 4 raters per interview segment. These raters did not discuss candidate responses during the evaluation process.

Main Study

Sample

Participants include 83 individuals employed as treatment staff at a large juvenile treatment center in the Mid-west. Of the 83 participants, 81 completed all of the assessments and the interview. The position of "youth treatment worker" should conceptually represent an ideal job context in which to study emotional intelligence. The position description is included in Appendix B. The gender of the sample consists of 37 females and 44 males. The race of the participants consists of 64 Caucasians and 17 non-Caucasians. The participants range from 21 to 51 years of age, with an average age of 25.4 years. Their average full time work experience is approximately 5 years. In order to minimize experience effects, only employees hired within the last year are used as participants. Average tenure at the facility at the time of the video recorded interviews was 74 days and ranged from 0 to 336 days. Fifty-nine of the employees were employed with the facility for under 3-months. This caused a reduction in supervisor rated job performance data, since some of these employees had separated from the organization when their job performance would have been assessed at 3-months of employment. Of the 81 participants, 15 separated from the organization prior to 3-months of employment, yielding 66 job performance ratings.

Interview ratings

For the main study, 6 MBA graduate assistants from a large southwest university were asked to participate as trained raters as part of their graduate assistant responsibilities. After a 2 hour training session, the GA's were divided into 2 groups of 3. Each group met once per week for 10 weeks at approximately 2 hours per session. The 3 raters in each group rated segments for all 81 interviews. The first group began with a SI interview and then alternated between BDI and SI interviews. The second group began with a BDI interview and then alternated between SI and BDI interviews. Ratings were attained in this way in order to eliminate potential carryover effects from a rater providing ratings for an interview after having previously rated the same interview's alternative interview segment. Upon the completion of the rating sessions, each of the 162 interview segments were rated by 3 trained raters.

Data Collection Procedures for Pilot Study and Main Study

Participants were asked to complete a variety of paper and pencil tests, which took approximately 30 minutes to complete. These tests include the Wonderlic Personnel Test, the NEO-FFI, and a survey including gender, and other demographics such as age, race, and job experience. At a later date, they were asked to complete the online version of the MSCEIT and to conduct a video recorded job interview. The interviews averaged 16 minutes, ranging from 10 to 26 minutes.

Due to the need for a well-developed structured interview method, a detailed evaluation of the structured interview development will be conducted next. The foundation of this detailed analysis will be through the critical evaluation of the research method in relation to 15 components of the structured interview described by Campion et al. (1997).

Research Design and Context

Campion et al. (1997) conducted a comprehensive review of these 15 components of structured interviews and describe categorization for several of them. The dimensions provide insight into the important aspects of the employment interview to be incorporated into the development of an interview process. Each of the dimensions is discussed as well as how that component is incorporated into the design of the interviews conducted for this research project. The first set of components relates to the development of the interview questions. The second set relates to the method in which the interviews will be conducted and recorded. The third set of structural components relates to how the interviews will be rated by judges.

Development of the structured interview questions and rating scale

Base questions on job analysis

When conducting an employment interview, the questions should be job related and the job related questions should adequately predict job success. This is accomplished through a thorough job analysis. A job analysis should enhance the amount of job information brought into the interview, thus increasing the validity of the structured interview. Similarly, by focusing the interview on job-related content, it should reduce measurement error. Without a job analysis to provide a common frame of reference, interviewers might base the interview on idiosyncratic beliefs about job requirements (Dipboye, 1994). The job relatedness generated through this procedure should enhance all forms of validity of the interview questions (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997).

Prior to the development of the employment interview in this study, a job requirements job analysis was conducted for the position of "Youth Treatment Worker". The researcher (a former incumbent and supervisor) developed a thorough list of 18 task statements. These task statements were derived from internal (organizational specific documentation such as the job description, performance evaluation, and training documentation) and external (O-net and related external job descriptions) analysis. This list of task statements was then evaluated and rank ordered by approximately 20 incumbents and supervisors. The performance criteria found to be consistently identified as important for job success were grouped and then formed into questions (Latham, Saari, Pursell, & Campion, 1980), thus enhancing content validity.

Ask exact same question of each candidate

The most basic component of structure is standardization of questioning. It may increase interrater and test-retest reliability (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). It may reduce contamination by preventing discussion of unrelated topics and other biasing influences (Dipboye & Gaugler, 1993) and reduce mental overload of the interviewer by focusing attention on specific questions (Dipboye & Gaugler, 1993; Maurer & Fay, 1988).

For this study, the interview questions are consistent in that the predetermined format of the interview is uniform across all interviews and each employee was given the exact same questions.

Use longer interview or larger number of questions

38 studies reporting time range from 3 to 120 minutes, with a mean of 39. The 14 reporting the number of questions range from 4 to 34, with a mean of 16.5 (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). Structured questions may, in fact, require more time per question than unstructured methods. This may actually result in fewer questions in structured interviews.

For the purpose of this study, the interview consisted of 10 interview questions (5 situational and 5 behavioral descriptive questions). The length of the interviews averaged approximately 16 minutes.

Better types of questions

Better questions may improve user reactions. The appropriate use of situational vs. behavioral descriptive interview questions is yet unresolved in academic literature, yet they show the most promise of all question types. Based on the work of Huffcutt and his colleagues (2001), BDI's demonstrate higher criterion-related validity coefficients in all job types, while SI's demonstrate high criterion-related validity coefficients only in lower level jobs.

This issue is one of central focus to this study, in that the antecedents of the SI versus BDI question types need to be explored further in order to better understand what drives the different validity coefficients in different contexts. The interviews consist of 5 matching SI and BDI questions. The matching questions each relate to a different performance dimensions based on job analysis, and include leadership, initiative, persuasiveness, thoroughness, and oral communication (The interview questions are included in Appendix A). The 5 SI questions were asked first in half the interviews and the BDI questions were asked first in the other half. This was done in order to minimize ordering effects between question types. Upon the completion of the interviews, the video recordings were edited to include either the 5 SI questions or the 5 BDI questions.

Use detailed anchored rating scales

Anchored rating scales use behavioral examples to illustrate scale points in order to reduce ambiguity and semantic differences possible with adjective anchors (Smith & Kendall, 1963). At least four types of anchors have been used. First, anchors can be example answers or illustrations. Second, anchors can be descriptions or definitions of answers. Third, anchors can contain evaluations of the answers (e.g., excellent, good, poor). Fourth, anchors contain relative comparisons (e.g., answer given by the top 20% of candidates).

There are four levels of structure (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). The highest level uses multiple types of anchors. The second highest level uses primarily a single type of anchor. The third level uses unanchored scales, or numbers or adjectives as anchors. The fourth level does not require quantitative judgments. Anchored rating scales are presumed to enhance objectivity. Thus, they are expected to increase validity, test-retest reliability, interrater reliability and interrrater agreement.

In order to increase the level of structure and reliability, multiple types of anchors are used in this study to measure the interview responses. The questions contain well-developed and detailed anchored scales. A scoring guide for the SI and BDI questions includes behavioral benchmarks that illustrate a 7 (high), a 4 (moderate), and a 1 (low) answer for each question. An example follows for leadership:

(7) Gravitates naturally to leadership positions. Actively alert for opportunities to direct others. Looks for opportunities to direct and motivate others to accomplish group goals.

(4) Accepts leadership roles when opportunities arise. Directs and motivates others to accomplish group goals. Delegates and follows up.

(1) Little or no effort to seek out opportunities for leadership. Reluctant to accept leadership roles when offered. Does not delegate or follow up.

Detailed anchored rating scales were developed for each of the 5 performance dimensions assessed in this study based on the procedure discussed above. Therefore, a separate detailed anchored rating scale was developed independently for each performance dimension (leadership, initiative, persuasiveness, thoroughness, and oral communication skill).

Conducting the interview

Use same interviewers across all candidates

Using the same interviewer is very important in increasing structure because different interviewers may ask different questions and ask the questions differently (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). Variance due to interactions with candidates should be reduced due to less variation in interviews.

Therefore, the same interviewer (the male researcher) conducted all job interviews.

Limiting prompting, follow-up questioning, and elaboration on questions

The use of prompts and follow-up questions is a primary means by which interviewers might bias information gathering (Dipboye, 1994). Structuring this dimension may increase interrater reliability by decreasing variation between interviewers. Test-retest reliability may increase, and interviewer-candidate interactions decrease (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). Candidate consistency might increase because questions will be less spontaneous.

Therefore, prompting, follow-up questions and elaboration on questions was minimized. Prompting was used when the interviewee's response was too brief, when the interviewee was not answering the question given, or when the interviewee needed clarification on a question.

Do not allow questions from candidates until after the interview

Uncontrolled questions from candidates reduce standardization by changing the interview content in unpredictable ways. Instead, time can be allowed outside the interview. Not allowing questions from candidates should standardize the content, thus increasing test-retest and interrater reliability (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). It prevents interviewers from using candidate questions to judge candidates, and it prevents

candidates asking questions and using the information to shape their answers (Beatty, 1986).

Therefore, as is commonly done in structured interview formats, interviewees will have an opportunity to ask questions at the end of the interview, allowing the opportunity to omit that segment from the video recordings given to the raters.

Control ancillary information

A threat to structure is the uncontrolled use of ancillary information including application forms, resumes, test scores, recommendations, previous interviews, transcripts, and so forth. It confounds the interpretation of the value of the interview. Withholding this information should increase test-retest and interrater reliability (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997) and validity.

Therefore, neither the interviewer nor the raters were given access to ancillary information including resumes, ability tests, personality assessments, the emotional intelligence test scores, etc.

Interview ratings

The SI or BDI interview segments were then evaluated by trained raters. Each of the trained raters evaluated each interview on the 5 performance dimensions identified above.

Rate each answer or use multiple scales

Ratings can be made on each answer or on the entire interview. Rating each answer is more structured because judgments are more linked to specific responses. The first and highest level is to rate each answer, typically during the interview with scales tailored to each question. The second level is to make multiple ratings at the end. Ratings are made on dimensions, ranging from 2 to 12 or more, based on answers to multiple questions or the entire interview (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). The third level is to make one overall judgment at the end. Many interviews that make dimensional ratings will also make an overall rating or rank the candidates (Carlson, Schwab, & Heneman, 1970; Schwab & Heneman, 1969). Rating each answer should increase test-retest and interrater reliability because ratings are based on responses to the same questions. With ratings of the entire interview, ratings of different candidates (or different interviewers) may be based on different criteria of focus for the rater. With more structure, the internal consistency may increase. With specific scales, contamination may be reduced because only relevant behaviors are evaluated, therefore improving the validity of the interview.

In this study, the raters watched a series of video recorded interviews while taking notes. Immediately following the viewing of each interview, the raters completed an assessment of the 5 performance dimensions. Although this method falls within the second category of structure, the potential for memory decay in this context is dramatically reduced, particularly when coupled with notetaking.

Use statistical rather than clinical prediction

A statistical approach would combine ratings using a formula, such as differential weights for each rating based on judgment or relationships with criteria (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997). This method, however, requires subjectivity in determining differential weights.

Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the individual question ratings were combined into a composite score (one score for SI questions and one score for BDI questions).

Provide extensive interview training

Training is probably the most common way to improve interviews (Dipboye, 1992). However, training is less of a component itself than a way to ensure other components are implemented correctly (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997).

In this study, the raters were provided with detailed 2 hour structured interview training prior to rating interviews. This training included familiarization with the job description in which the interviews were based, familiarization with the interview questions, emphasis on notetaking, familiarization with the behaviorally anchored rating scale, and 2 practice interviews.

Take detailed notes

Notetaking may enhance structure because it reduces memory decay (Campion, Pursell, & Brown, 1988) and avoids recency and primacy effects (Schmidt & Ostroff, 1986). These benefits may be most apparent when ratings are made at the end or based on multiple questions. Notetaking requires justifying the ratings. This encourages interviewers to attend to answers and to organize their thoughts, thus possibly increasing accuracy.

The highest level of structure is extensive, requiring notetaking of answers during the interview (Campion, Campion, & Hudson, 1994; Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997; Campion, Pursell, & Brown, 1988). The next level is optional notes or brief notes, often at the end (Tarico, Altmaier, Smith, Franken, & Berbaum, 1986). The lowest is no notetaking. Notetaking should make evaluations more consistent, thus increasing validity, test-retest and interrater reliability (Burnett, Fan, Motowidlo, & DeGroot, 1998).

In this study, the raters were asked to take detailed notes throughout the entire interview.

Use multiple raters

Multiple raters may be beneficial for several reasons. Multiple raters may reduce the effect of idiosyncratic biases among raters (Campion, Pursell, & Brown, 1988; Hakel, 1982), and aggregating multiple judgments cancels out random errors (Dipboye, 1992;

Hakel, 1982). The range of information and judgments from different perspectives may increase criterion validity with job performance (Dipboye, 1992). Finally, using more raters is akin to a longer test, thus, the combined scores should be more reliable (Hakel, 1982). Internal consistency should be higher because more judgments make up the total scores (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997).

Using a highly structured interview, Campion et al. (1994) found an interrater reliability of .97, indicating that a large number of raters are not needed in the current study. However, in order to determine rater agreement, multiple raters are necessary. The pilot study used 4 raters for each interview segment, while the field study used 3 raters per segment.

Do not discuss candidates or answers between interviews

Discussing candidates may lead to irrelevant information entering the evaluation process, thereby decreasing the validity of the interview (Campion, Palmer, & Campion, 1997).

Therefore, raters did not communicate with one another throughout the rating process.

Operationalization of Dependent Constructs

Interview ratings

As outlined above, five dimensions of interview ratings were obtained based on job analysis. Trained raters viewed the either the SI or the BDI segments of the video recorded interviews and made assessments based on the structured response formats provided. Both SI and BDI question formats are included in Appendix A. Each of the rater scores was averaged to form a composite for each interview dimension. These rating dimensions were then averaged to form composite to produce the SI and BDI interview ratings.

Job Performance

Job performance was measured with a scale based on the same job analysis dimensions as formed the interview questions. This assessment was completed by the current supervisor of the interviewee at the time the interviewee attained 3-months of tenure at the company. The job performance survey given to the supervisors is included in Appendix A.

Operationalization of Independent Constructs

Emotional Intelligence and its 4 dimensions

Emotional intelligence and its dimensions was measured using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, Version 2.0 (MSCEIT, Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). The MSCEIT is an ability-based measure of EI designed to measure one's ability to recognize the meaning and relationships of emotion, and for reasoning and problem solving using emotional information (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). A variety of tasks are employed to assess an individual's capability to perceive, facilitate, understand, and manage emotion. The MSCEIT measures the ability to perceive emotions by showing people faces and designs and asking them to identify emotions in them. The use of emotion to facilitate thought is measured by assessing people's ability to describe emotional sensations and their parallels to other sensory modalities, and through an individual's ability to assimilate pre-determined mood in their thought processes. Understanding emotions is measured by asking test takers how emotions combine to form other emotions, and how emotional reactions change over time. Finally, emotion management is measured by having test takers choose from among more or less effective means of emotional management in private and interpersonal emotional situations.

The MSCEIT is conducted on-line and has 141 items. It is scored automatically and requires approximately 30-45 minutes to complete. The internal consistency reliability of the MSCEIT is .93 and the four branches range from .76 - .91. The

MSCEIT manual reports a test-retest reliability of r = .86 (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) factor analyzed the MSCEIT subscales, forcing a four-factor solution with oblique rotation. The subscales loaded highly on their respective MSCEIT factors, and the four factors were significantly correlated (correlations ranged from .26 to .60). Day and Carrol (2004) also factor analyzed the factor structure of the MSCEIT and found support for the 4-factor model.

Intelligence

Intelligence was measured using the Wonderlic Personnel Test (WPT, Wonderlic & Associates, 1992). The WPT is a short measure of general cognitive ability ("g"). The WPT has 50 verbal, quantitative, and spatial questions that begin at moderate difficulty and gradually increase in their level of difficulty. The test is timed and takes 12 minutes to complete. Test content includes word problems requiring mathematical or logical solutions, number series, analysis of geometric figures, word comparison, disarranging sentences, sentence parallelism, and number comparison. WPT alternate form reliability coefficients range from .73 to .95 with test-retest reliability coefficients ranging from .82 to .94 (Wonderlic & Associates, 1992).

Big-5 personality dimensions

Personality was measured using the NEO-Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI). The NEO-FFI is a shortened version of the Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO PI-R)

and provides a measure of the five domains of adult personality: Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The instrument consists of 60 items (12 per dimension) and is rated on a 5-point scale. The inventory takes approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. The five NEO-FFI factors show correlations, ranging from .87 for agreeableness and conscientiousness to .92 for neuroticism, with the factors of the full scale NEO-PI. Interrater reliability coefficients for the NEO-FFI range from .68 for agreeableness to .86 for neuroticism. Test-retest reliability coefficients range from .79 for extroversion and openness to experience to .89 for neuroticism (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Neuroticism is a general tendency to experience negative effects such as anxiety, hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsivity, and vulnerability. High levels of this dimension indicate the presence of neuroses, while low scores associate with the ability to handle stress. This is the only dimension in which high scores are undesirable. Therefore, this dimension is often referred to as emotional stability. Extraversion is associated with activity, assertiveness, excitement seeking, sociability, and positive emotions. Extraverts are generally optimistic, energetic, and upbeat. Introverts prefer to be alone yet are not necessarily unhappy or pessimistic. Openness to experience is associated with imagination, intellectual curiosity, and independent judgment and is therefore modestly associated with education and intelligence. The dimension of agreeableness relates to interpersonal tendencies. Highly agreeable individuals tend to be altruistic, compliant, modest, and trusting, while disagreeable individuals tend to be egocentric, skeptical of others' intentions, and very competitive. Conscientiousness is associated with striving for achievement, competence, dutifulness, and self-discipline.

High scores have been positively related to academic performance and constitutes the personality dimension most consistently related to job performance (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Demographics

Gender was dichotomously scored where males = 0 and females = 1.

Race was dichotomously scored where Caucasians = 0 and minorities = 1.

Data Analysis Techniques

A correlation table was computed which contains the MSCEIT full scale score, a score for each of the four dimensions of EI, the WPT raw score, the five personality dimensions of neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness, gender, SI interview ratings composite, BDI interview ratings composite, and job performance composite.

For hypotheses 1-8 (a-e), various multiple-stage regressions were analyzed with the SI and BDI interview ratings dimensions and job performance as the dependent variables. First, intelligence, the personality dimensions, and gender were added (stage 1). Second, EI (and individually, each of its dimensions) were added to the model (stage 2), determining its incremental validity. Finally, the interaction between gender and EI (and each of its dimensions) on job performance and both SI and BDI interview ratings (stage 3) was tested. This consisted of 15 independent multiple stage regressions, 5 for

each dependent variable. The values obtained for the SI and BDI to performance links were to be tested for significant differences, in order to test whether EI has a stronger link to BDI interview ratings than to SI interview ratings.

Due to the exploratory nature of the study and due to the relatively small sample size, significant relationships of ($p < .10$) were interpreted.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings of the study developed in Chapter III and shows the extent to which the hypotheses proposed in Chapter II were supported. The pilot study will be analyzed first, followed by the field study. Each study contains two sections: preliminary data analyses and results of the hypothesis tests.

Pilot Study: Preliminary Data Analyses

The preliminary analyses include reliability coefficients and summary statistics for the measurement scales and an examination of the correlations between scales. The means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and reliability coefficients for the pilot study variables are reported in Table 1.

Although the sample size of the pilot study is small, there were significant correlations between EI and some of the dependent measures. Overall emotional intelligence was correlated with job performance ($r = .33$, $p < .10$). Also, the managing emotions dimension relates to job performance ($r = .47$, $p < .05$) and behavioral descriptive ratings ($r = .33$, $p < .10$).

TABLE 1

Descriptives and Correlations Among Pilot Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Task Performance	**.89**														
2. Situational Ratings	.29	**.95**													
3. Behavioral Ratings	.34*	.64*	**.93**												
4. EI – Total	.34*	.07	.19	**.95**											
5. EI – Dimension 1	.28	-.27	-.07	.75*	**.82**										
6. EI – Dimension 2	.23	.04	-.07	.82*	.49*	**.85**									
7. EI – Dimension 3	.17	.22	.27	.81*	.39*	.59*	**.93**								
8. EI – Dimension 4	.47*	.23	.33*	.81*	.43*	.73*	.57*	**.83**							
9. GMA	.12	.40*	.45*	.48*	.16	.30	.68*	.31							
10. Neuroticism	-.51*	-.15	-.32	-.39*	-.43*	-.34*	-.12	-.38*	.01	**.81**					
11. Extroversion	.41*	.20	.41*	.41*	.23	.27	.40*	.40*	.07	-.47*	**.85**				
12. Openness	.09	.54*	.54*	.11	-.04	.04	.17	.05	.14	-.28	.47*	**.74**			
13. Agreeableness	.35*	.20	.14	.31	.20	.28	.21	.29	.21	-.18	.11	.07	**.78**		
14. Conscientiousness	.35*	.16	.31	.58*	.52*	.54*	.39*	.49*	.23	-.58*	.30	.19	.13	**.90**	
15. Gender	.34*	.32	.38*	.47*	.14	.50*	.50*	.41*	.36*	-.29	.39*	.38*	.49*	.49*	
Mean	4.1	4.4	4.4	89.9	90.9	94.1	94.2	94.9	24.5	2.6	3.7	3.1	3.7	3.8	1.7
SD	.78	1.1	1.0	19.8	16.4	19.7	17.8	20.4	6.4	.59	.58	.53	.51	.70	.47

N = 30 for all correlations except job performance: N = 28 for correlations related to job performance
*p < .05
Alpha coefficients appear on the diagonal in bold.

Several control variables were found to be related to the outcome variables of task performance, situational interview ratings, and behavioral descriptive interview ratings. Specifically, the following variables were significantly related to task performance: neuroticism ($r = -.51$, $p < 01$) and extroversion ($r = .41$, $p < .05$). The following variables were related to situational interview ratings: behavioral descriptive interview ratings ($r = .64$, $p < .001$), general mental ability ($r = .40$, $p < .05$) and openness to experience ($r = .54$, $p < 01$). Finally, the following variables were related to behavioral descriptive interview ratings: situational interview ratings ($r = .64$, $p < .001$), general mental ability ($r = .45$, $p < .05$), extroversion ($r = .41$, $p < .05$), openness to experience ($r = .54$, $p < .01$), and gender ($r = .38$, $p < .05$).

Overall emotional intelligence also relates to general mental ability ($r = .48$, $p < .01$), neuroticism ($r = -.39$, $p < .05$), extroversion ($r = .41$, $p < .05$), conscientiousness ($r = .58$, $p < .001$), and gender ($r = .47$, $p < .01$). The perceiving emotions dimension of emotional intelligence relates to neuroticism ($r = -.43$, $p < .05$) and conscientiousness ($r = .52$, $p < .01$). The facilitating thought dimension relates to neuroticism ($r = -.34$, $p < .05$), conscientiousness ($r = .54$, $p < .001$), and gender ($r = .50$, $p < .01$). The understanding emotions dimension relates to general mental ability ($r = .68$, $p < .001$), extroversion ($r = .40$, $p < .05$), conscientiousness ($r = .39$, $p < .05$), and gender ($r = .50$, $p < .01$). Finally, the managing emotions dimension of emotional intelligence related to neuroticism ($r = -.38$, $p < .05$), extroversion ($r = .40$, $p < .05$), conscientiousness ($r = .49$, $p < .01$), and gender ($r = .41$, $p < .05$).

Interrater reliability coefficients for the study variables were satisfactory. As shown in Table 1, the dependent measures ranged from .89 to .95. Emotional intelligence

and its dimensions ranged from .82 to .95. The Big-5 personality dimensions ranged from .74 to .90.

Intraclass correlation coefficients for the interview ratings were satisfactory. As described in the methods section, the pilot study situational and behavioral descriptive variables used multiple raters to evaluate each video recorded interview. The total ratings yielded 4 raters for each interview. The situational interview ratings yielded an intraclass correlation coefficient of .77. The behavioral descriptive interview ratings yielded an intraclass correlation coefficient of .77.

Pilot Study: Results of Hypothesis Tests

Situational Interview

Regression results for the hypothesized control variables, main effects, and interaction effects on situational interview ratings are presented in Table 2.

Hypotheses 1 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) is positively related to situational interview ratings, even after controlling for important correlates. Hypotheses 5 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) will interact with gender to predict situational interview ratings. These hypotheses are examined with the data found in Table 2. Five independent three step hierarchical regression analyses were undertaken to examine the incremental validity of ability-based emotional intelligence (or one of its dimensions). Interactions are examined in Step 3. (For all interaction analyses, interaction models were analyzed with and then without

mean centering the interaction terms. Results were consistent with both statistical procedures. Therefore, in order to better interpret the data, results are presented without mean centering the interaction variables.)

TABLE 2

Pilot Study Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Situational Interview Ratings

Independent Variables	Beta	R Squared	Change in R Squared
Step 1		.38	--
GMA	.31		
Neuroticism	-.02		
Extroversion	-.08		
Openness to Experience	-.51*		
Conscientiousness	-.02		
Agreeableness	.10		
Gender	-.06		
Step 2			
EI Total	-.28	.42	.04
EI D1	-.48	.53	.14*
EI D2	-.09	.39	.00
EI D3	-.18	.39	.01
EI D4	.17	.40	.02
Step 3			
EI Total X Gender	.20	.42	.00
EI D1 X Gender	1.69	.57	.04
EI D2 X Gender	1.07	.39	.01
EI D3 X Gender	-1.00	.40	.01
EI D4 X Gender	-.89	.41	.01

Each variable in Step 2 and Step 3 consists of an independent analysis using the same Step 1 control variables.
Standardized regression coefficients are reported
*p < .05

In the first step, multiple control variables are included. They include general mental ability and Big-5 personality. Gender is also included as a control variable, as it must be included in the regression analyses in order to analyze the interaction hypotheses. When included together, openness to experience is a statistically significant predictor of situational interview ratings. In step 2, emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions) is added to the prediction equation. The perceiving emotion dimension of emotional intelligence was statistically significant ($p < .05$). This relationship is in the negative direction. Emotional intelligence nor any of the other 3 dimensions indicate significant variance beyond the control variables, indicating a lack of support for hypotheses 1 (a-e). Hypotheses 5 (a-e) are tested by including interaction terms in Step 3 of the regression analysis. As Table 2 shows, the interaction terms failed to demonstrate statistical significance. These results indicate a lack of support for Hypotheses 5 a-e.

Behavioral Descriptive Interview

Regression results for the hypothesized control variables, main effects, and interaction effects on behavioral descriptive interviews are presented in Table 3.

Hypothesis 2 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) is positively related to behavioral descriptive interview ratings, even after controlling for important correlates. Hypotheses 6 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) will interact with gender to predict job performance. These hypotheses are examined with the data found in Table 3. Five independent, three step hierarchical

regression analyses were undertaken to examine the incremental validity of ability-based emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions). Interactions are examined in Step 3.

TABLE 3

Pilot Study Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Behavioral Descriptive Interview Ratings

Independent Variables	Beta	R Squared	Change in R Squared
Step 1		.48*	--
GMA	.34		
Neuroticism	-.12		
Extroversion	.18		
Openness to Experience	.37		
Conscientiousness	.07		
Agreeableness	-.13		
Gender	.00		
Step 2			
EI Total	-.30	.51	.04
EI D1	-.30	.52	.06
EI D2	-.39	.55	.09†
EI D3	-.46	.53	.07†
EI D4	.15	.48	.01
Step 3			
EI Total X Gender	2.00	.55	.04
EI D1 X Gender	2.38	.61	.09*
EI D2 X Gender	5.20	.70	.14*
EI D3 X Gender	1.00	.55	.01
EI D4 X Gender	-.34	.48	.00

Each variable in Step 2 and Step 3 consists of an independent analysis using the same Step 1 control variables.
Standardized regression coefficients are reported
*p < .05, †p < .10

In the first step, multiple control variables are included. They include "g", Big-5 personality, and gender. When included together "g" ($p < .10$) and openness to experience ($p < .10$) are statistically significant predictors of behavioral descriptive interview ratings. In step 2, emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions) is added to the prediction equation. Two dimensions of EI predicted incremental variance in behavioral descriptive interviews: the facilitation dimension ($p < .10$) and the understanding emotions dimension ($p < .10$). However, these relationships are in the negative direction. Emotional intelligence nor the other 2 dimensions provide significant variance beyond the control variables, indicating a lack of support for hypotheses 1 (a-e).

Hypotheses 5 (a-e) are tested by including interaction terms in Step 3 of the regression analysis. As Table 3 shows, overall interactions between gender and emotional intelligence and dimension 3 and 4 of EI were not significant. However, 2 of the interaction terms were statistically significant. The perceiving emotions and facilitating thought dimensions of EI significantly interact with gender ($p < .05$). These results indicate a lack of support for Hypotheses 5 a, 5d and 5e and indicate support for Hypotheses 5 b and 5c. These interactions are depicted graphically in Figures 3 and 4.

Behavioral Descriptive vs. Situational Interview

Since Hypotheses 2 (a-e) were not supported, emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) will not be a stronger predictor for behavioral descriptive interview ratings than for situational interview ratings. Therefore, Hypotheses 3 (a-e) were not supported.

FIGURE 3

Pilot Study Interaction

Interaction between Perceiving Emotions and Gender
in the Behavioral Descriptive Interview

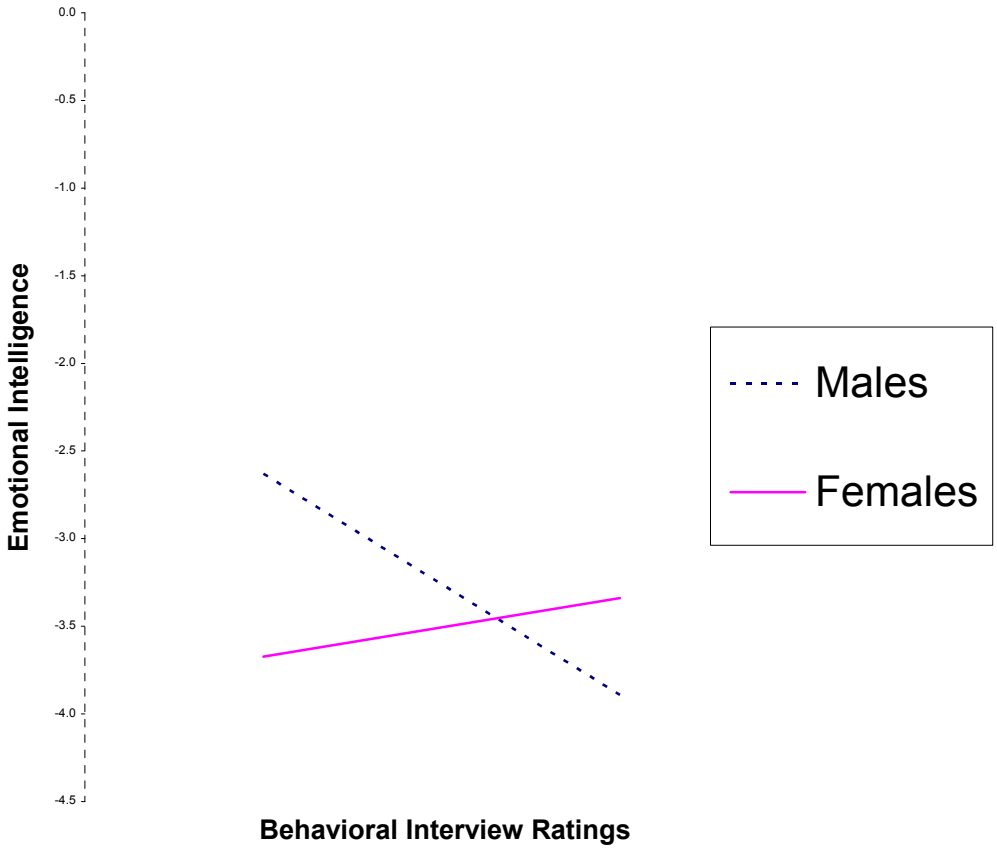
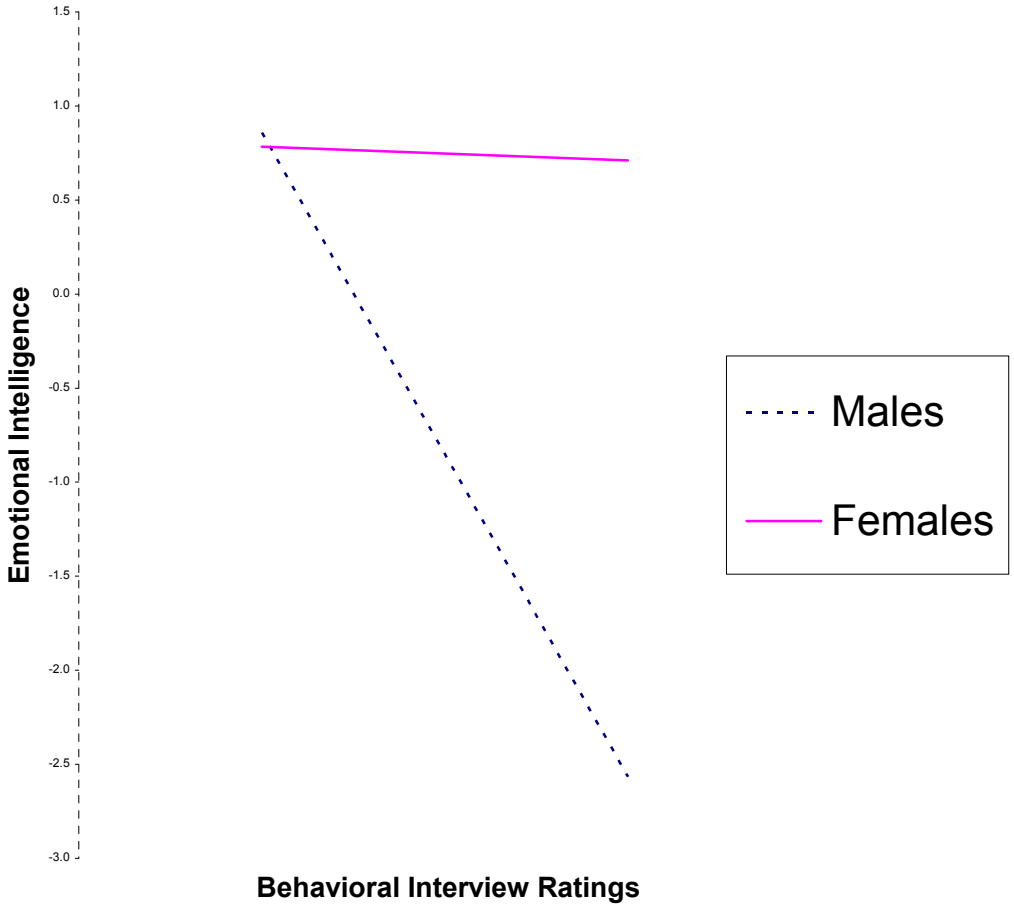


FIGURE 4

Pilot Study Interaction

Interaction between Facilitating Thought and Gender
in the Behavioral Descriptive Interview



Job Performance

Regression results for the hypothesized control variables, main effects, and interaction effects on job performance are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4

Pilot Study Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Job Performance

Independent Variables	Beta	R Squared	Change in R Squared
Step 1		.35	--
GMA	.05		
Neuroticism	-.38		
Extroversion	.22		
Openness to Experience	-.15		
Conscientiousness	-.03		
Agreeableness	.18		
Gender	.05		
Step 2			
EI Total	-.01	.35	.00
EI D1	-.02	.35	.00
EI D2	-.05	.35	.00
EI D3	-.16	.36	.01
EI D4	.27	.39	.04
Step 3			
EI Total X Gender	.16	.35	.00
EI D1 X Gender	1.11	.36	.01
EI D2 X Gender	.80	.35	.00
EI D3 X Gender	.67	.36	.01
EI D4 X Gender	-2.72	.48	.09†

Each variable in Step 2 and Step 3 consists of an independent analysis using the same Step 1 control variables.
Standardized regression coefficients are reported
*p < .05; †p < .10

Hypothesis 4 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) is positively related to job performance, even after controlling for important correlates. Hypotheses 7 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence will interact with gender to predict job performance. These hypotheses are examined with the results found in Table 4. Five independent three step hierarchical regression analysis was undertaken to examine the incremental validity of ability-based emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions). Interactions are examined in Step 3.

In the first step, multiple control variables are included. They include "g", Big-5 personality, and gender. When included together, none of these control variables are statistically significant. In step 2, emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions) is added to the prediction equation. Emotional intelligence, nor any of its 4 dimensions provide significant variance beyond the control variables, indicating a lack of support for hypotheses 4 (a-e). It should be noted however that the managing emotions dimension predicts 4% of the variance in job performance. Hypotheses 7 (a-e) are tested by including interaction terms in Step 3 of the regression analysis. As Table 4 shows, the product term between gender and the managing emotions dimension of emotional intelligence was statistically significant ($p < .10$) , yet not significant for overall emotional intelligence or the other 3 EI dimensions. These results provide support for Hypothesis 7e and indicate a lack of support for Hypotheses 7 a-d. The interaction is depicted graphically in Figure 5.

FIGURE 5

Pilot Study Interaction

Interaction between Managing Emotions and Gender
on Job Performance

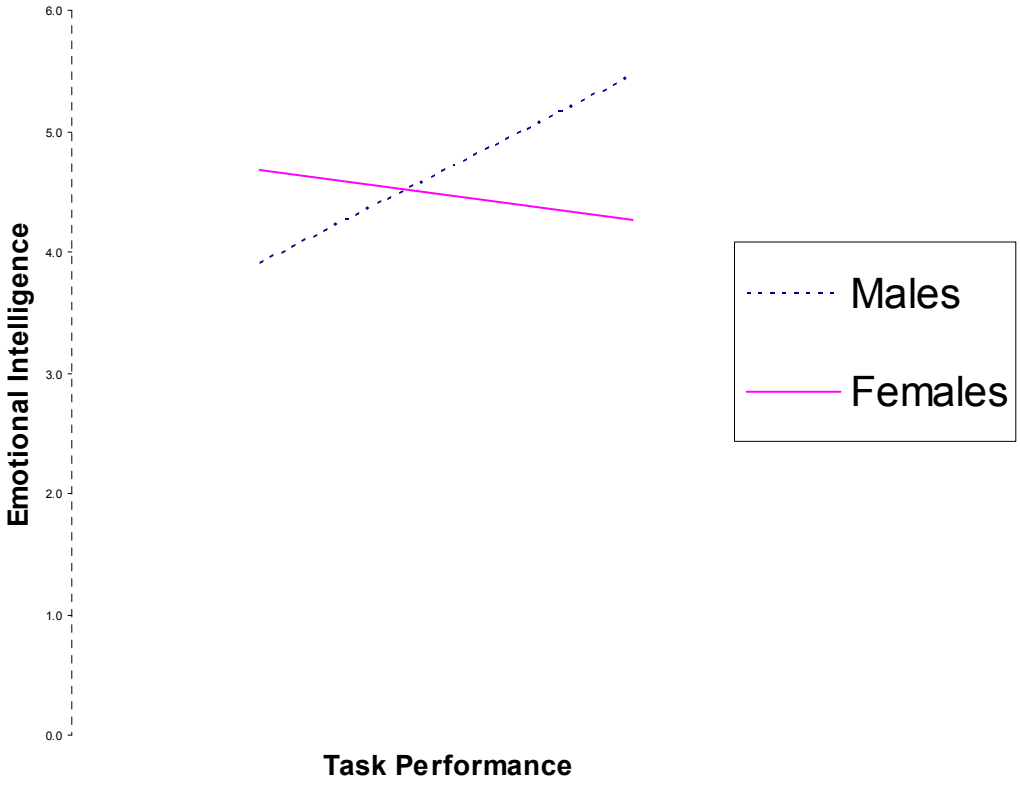


TABLE 5

Descriptives and Correlations among Field Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Task Performance	**.90**														
2. Situational Ratings	.25*	**.92**													
3. Behavioral Ratings	.17	.41*	**.92**												
4. EI – Total	.25*	.16	.11	**.77**											
5. EI – Dimension 1	.15	.06	.06	.74*	**.77**										
6. EI – Dimension 2	.09	.11	.03	.77*	.49*	**.81**									
7. EI – Dimension 3	.18	.21†	.14	.73*	.32*	.44*	**.93**								
8. EI – Dimension 4	.29*	.15	.01	.74*	.31*	.54*	.45*	**.73**							
9. GMA	.22†	.15	.17	.54*	.39*	.34*	.50*	.36*							
10. Neuroticism	-.02	-.32*	-.14	.00	-.02	.07	-.02	-.01	-.16	**.72**					
11. Extroversion	.09	.38*	.20	.06	.10	-.03	-.09	.16	.12	-.29*	**.76**				
12. Openness	.05	.33*	.05	.34*	.23*	.19†	.38*	.19†	.34*	-.09	.39*	**.67**			
13. Agreeableness	.08	.25*	.06	.14	.05	.13	.07	.15	.10	-.12	.48*	.37*	**.65**		
14. Conscientiousness	.00	.07	-.02	-.07	.00	-.14	-.29*	.19†	.02	-.33*	.45*	.02	.21	**.85**	
15. Gender	.08	-.12	.01	.27*	.15	.16	.12	.36*	-.10	.05	.22*	.16	.32*	.11	
Mean	4.0	4.0	3.8	91.3	96.8	97.5	90.6	94.2	20.7	2.3	3.6	3.3	3.8	4.0	1.5
SD	.74	.82	.88	17.1	14.9	18.2	14.6	16.8	6.1	.46	.44	.44	.39	.48	.50

N = 81 for all correlations except job performance: N = 66 for correlations related to job performance
*p < .05 ; † < .10
Alpha coefficients appear on the diagonal in bold.

Field Study: Preliminary Data Analyses

The preliminary analyses include reliability and summary statistics for the measurement scales and an examination of the correlations between scales. The means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and reliability coefficients for the pilot study variables are reported in Table 5.

Overall emotional intelligence was correlated with job performance ($r = .27$, $p < .05$). The managing emotions dimension of EI also related to job performance ($r = .29$, $p < .05$). The understanding emotions dimension of EI related to situational interview ratings ($r = .21$, $p < .10$).

As can be seen, situational interview ratings ($r = .24$, $p < .05$) and, of the control variables, only "g" ($r = .22$, $p < .10$) relate to the outcome variable of task performance. Situational and behavioral descriptive interview ratings were significantly correlated ($r = .41$, $p < .001$). The following control variables were related to situational interview ratings: neuroticism ($r = -.31$, $p < .01$), extroversion ($r = .38$, $p < .001$), openness to experience ($r = .34$, $p < .01$), and agreeableness ($r = .24$, $p < .05$). Finally, only extroversion was related to behavioral descriptive interview ratings ($r = .20$, $p < .10$).

Overall emotional intelligence did relate to "g" ($r = .54$, $p < .001$), openness to experience ($r = .34$, $p < .01$), and gender ($r = .27$, $p < .05$). The perceiving emotions dimension of emotional intelligence related to "g" ($r = .39$, $p < .001$) and openness to experience ($r = .23$, $p < .05$). The facilitating thought dimension related to general mental ability ($r = .34$, $p < .05$) and openness to experience ($r = .19$, $p < .10$). The understanding emotions dimension related to "g" ($r = .50$, $p < .001$), openness to experience ($r = .38$, $p <$

.001), and conscientiousness ($r = -.29$, $p < .01$). Finally, the managing emotions dimension of emotional intelligence related to general mental ability ($r = .36$, $p < .001$), openness to experience ($r = .19$, $p < .10$), conscientiousness ($r = .19$, $p < .10$) and gender ($r = .36$, $p < .001$).

Interrater reliability coefficients for the study variables were satisfactory. As shown in Table 5, the dependent measures ranged from .90 to .92. Emotional intelligence and its dimensions ranged from .77 to .93. The Big-5 personality dimensions ranged from .67 to .85.

The intraclass correlation coefficients for the interview ratings were satisfactory. As described in the methods section, the field study situational and behavioral descriptive variables used multiple raters to evaluate each video recorded interview. The total ratings yielded 3 raters for each interview. The situational interview ratings yielded intraclass correlation coefficients of .83. The behavioral descriptive interview ratings yielded intraclass correlation coefficients of .82.

Field Study: Results of Hypothesis Tests

Situational Interview

Regression results for the hypothesized control variables, main effects, and interaction effects on job performance are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6

Field Study Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Situational Interview Ratings

Independent Variables	Beta	R Squared	Change in R Squared
Step 1		.30	--
GMA	-.01		
Neuroticism	-.24*		
Extroversion	.31*		
Openness to Experience	.21†		
Conscientiousness	-.16		
Agreeableness	.09		
Gender	-.23*		
Step 2			
EI Total	.19	.32	.02
EI D1	.02	.30	.00
EI D2	.13	.31	.01
EI D3	.24	.33	.03†
EI D4	.23	.34	.04*
Step 3			
EI Total X Gender	.47	.33	.00
EI D1 X Gender	1.60	.34	.05*
EI D2 X Gender	.24	.32	.00
EI D3 X Gender	-.13	.33	.00
EI D4 X Gender	-.54	.34	.00

Each variable in Step 2 and Step 3 consists of an independent analysis using the same Step 1 control variables.
Standardized regression coefficients are reported
*p < .05: †p < .10

Hypothesis 1 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) is positively related to situational interview ratings, even after controlling for important correlates. Hypotheses 5 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) will interact with gender to predict situational interview ratings. These hypotheses are

examined with the data found in Table 6. Five independent three step hierarchical regression analysis was undertaken to examine the incremental validity of ability-based emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions). Interactions are examined in Step 3.

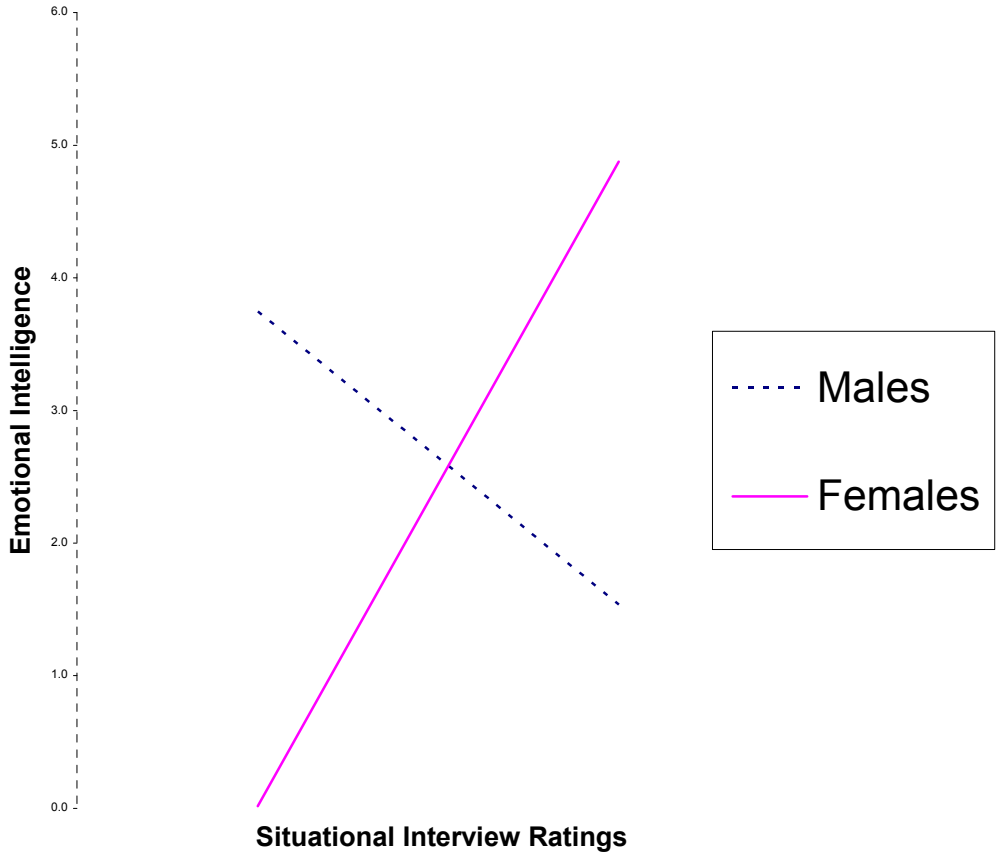
In the first step, multiple control variables are included. They include general mental ability, Big-5 personality, and gender. When included together, neuroticism ($p < .05$), extroversion ($p < .05$), openness to experience ($p < .10$), and gender ($p < .05$) were statistically significant predictors of situational interview ratings. In step 2, emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions) is added to the prediction equation. Overall EI and the first 2 dimensions of EI were not statistically significant predictors of situational interview ratings, indicating a lack of support for hypotheses 1 (a-c). The understanding emotions ($p < .10$) and managing emotions dimensions ($p < .05$) of EI significantly predicted situational interview ratings, after the control variables were included. In independent analyses, understanding emotions predicts an additional 3% of the variance in situational interview ratings, while the managing emotions dimension predicts 4% of the variance. These findings provide support for Hypotheses 1d and 1e.

Hypotheses 5 (a-e) are tested by including interaction terms in Step 3 of the regression analysis. As Table 6 shows, the gender interaction terms for overall EI and the second, third, and fourth dimension of EI are not statistically significant. These results indicate a lack of support for Hypotheses 5a, 5c, 5d, and 5e. The interaction between gender and the perceiving emotions dimension of EI is statistically significant ($p < .05$), indicating support for Hypothesis 5b. This interaction is depicted graphically in Figure 6.

FIGURE 6

Field Study Interaction

Interaction between Perceiving Emotions and Gender
in the Situational Interview



Behavioral Descriptive Interview

Regression results for the hypothesized control variables, main effects, and interaction effects on behavioral descriptive interview ratings are presented in Table 7.

TABLE 7

Field Study Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Behavioral Descriptive Interview Ratings

Independent Variables	Beta	R Squared	Change in R Squared
Step 1		.10	--
GMA	.16		
Neuroticism	-.10		
Extroversion	.30*		
Openness to Experience	-.12		
Conscientiousness	-.19		
Agreeableness	-.04		
Gender	-.01		
Step 2			
EI Total	.06	.10	.00
EI D1	-.01	.10	.00
EI D2	-.01	.10	.00
EI D3	.13	.11	.01
EI D4	-.06	.10	.00
Step 3			
EI Total X Gender	.75	.11	.01
EI D1 X Gender	.76	.11	.01
EI D2 X Gender	.65	.11	.01
EI D3 X Gender	.52	.11	.00
EI D4 X Gender	.28	.10	.00

Each variable in Step 2 and Step 3 consists of an independent analysis using the same Step 1 control variables.
Standardized regression coefficients are reported
*p < .05

Hypothesis 2 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) is positively related to behavioral descriptive interview ratings, even after controlling for important correlates. Hypotheses 6 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) will interact with gender to predict behavioral descriptive interview ratings. These hypotheses are examined with the data found in Table 7. Five independent three step hierarchical regression analyses were undertaken to examine the incremental validity of ability-based emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions). Interactions are examined in Step 3.

In the first step, multiple control variables are included. They include general mental ability, Big-5 personality, and gender. When included together, extroversion predicts behavioral descriptive interview ratings ($p < .05$). In step 2, emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions) is added to the prediction equation. Emotional intelligence nor any of the other 4 dimensions provide significant variance beyond the control variables, indicating a lack of support for hypotheses 1 (a-e). Hypotheses 5 (a-e) are tested by including interaction terms in Step 3 of the regression analysis. As Table 7 shows, interactions between gender and emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) were not significant. These results indicate a lack of support for Hypotheses 5 (a-e).

Behavioral Descriptive vs. Situational Interview

Since Hypotheses 2 (a-e) were not supported, emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) will not be a stronger predictor for behavioral descriptive interview ratings than for situational interview ratings. Therefore, Hypotheses 3 (a-e) were not supported.

Job Performance

Regression results for the hypothesized control variables, main effects, and interaction effects on job performance are presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8

Field Study Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Job Performance

Independent Variables	Beta	R Squared	Change in R Squared
Step 1		.07	--
GMA	.27†		
Neuroticism	.03		
Extroversion	.04		
Openness to Experience	-.10		
Conscientiousness	-.04		
Agreeableness	.05		
Gender	.12		
Step 2			
EI Total	.17	.09	.02
EI D1	.05	.08	.00
EI D2	-.01	.07	.00
EI D3	.12	.08	.01
EI D4	.24	.11	.04
Step 3			
EI Total X Gender	.14	.09	.00
EI D1 X Gender	.89	.09	.01
EI D2 X Gender	-.19	.07	.00
EI D3 X Gender	.03	.08	.00
EI D4 X Gender	-.91	.13	.01

Each variable in Step 2 and Step 3 consists of an independent analysis using the same Step 1 control variables.
Standardized regression coefficients are reported
*p < .05: †p < .10

Hypothesis 4 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) is positively related to job performance, even after controlling for important correlates. Hypotheses 7 (a-e) predicts that emotional intelligence will interact with gender to predict job performance. These hypotheses are examined with the data found in Table 8. Five independent three step hierarchical regression analysis were undertaken to examine the incremental validity of ability-based emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions). Interactions are examined in Step 3.

In the first step, multiple control variables are included. They include general mental ability, Big-5 personality, and gender. When the control variables are included together, "g" predicts job performance ($p < .10$). In step 2, emotional intelligence (and each of its dimensions) is added to the prediction equation. Overall emotional intelligence, nor any of its 4 dimensions, explain significant variance beyond the control variables, indicating a lack of support for hypotheses 4 (a-e), though managing emotions predicts 4% incremental variance in job performance. Hypotheses 7 (a-e) are tested by including interaction terms in Step 3 of the regression analysis. As Table 8 shows, interactions between gender and emotional intelligence (and its dimensions) were not significant. These results demonstrate a lack of support for Hypotheses 7 a-e.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to interpret the results of the data analysis and to draw conclusions about the findings. Based on these findings, a discussion of the limitations of this study and suggestions for future research on emotional intelligence will be presented.

Discussion

Due to the recent development of the first ability-based measure of emotional intelligence, calls have been made for studies to analyze the criterion-related validity of EI. In particular, the evaluation of incremental validity of EI beyond "g" and personality needs to be assessed. This study is one of the first to evaluate the criterion-related validity of ability-based EI with job performance. Furthermore, ability-based EI in the structured employment interview has not yet been empirically tested in the academic literature. This study is also aimed at informing the structured interview literature by evaluating the impact of EI in both the situational and the behavioral descriptive interview independently. Also, a more fine-grained approach is taken by analyzing each of the 4 dimensions of EI independently. Finally, the impact of gender in the EI relationships is evaluated.

As with past studies of ability-based EI, "g", openness to experience, and gender have been shown to correlate with EI. Relationships found in this study between the independent dimensions of EI and established correlates have also been consistent with past findings.

An important aspect of this study is the analysis of correlations between EI and the dependent measures, though no formal hypotheses were presented. In the pilot study, the Managing Emotions dimension of EI predicts behavior descriptive interview ratings. In the field study, the Understanding Emotions dimension of EI predicts situational interview ratings. These results highlight inconsistent findings between the pilot study and field study. An observation that may shed some light on these findings is the interview validity coefficient. It appears that when the interview is more valid (higher correlations with job performance), the relationship between EI and its dimensions is generally higher. When the interview is less valid the relationship between EI and its dimensions is generally lower. Specifically, in the pilot study, the highest validity coefficient is with the behavioral descriptive interview (.34). In this instance, the Managing Emotions dimension of EI correlates .33 with interview ratings. The validity coefficient of the situational interview (.29) is lower than the validity coefficient of the behavioral descriptive interview. Here the Managing Emotions dimension of EI correlates .23 with interview ratings. Conversely, in the field study, the situational interview yielded a validity coefficient of .25 while the behavioral descriptive interview validity coefficient reached only .17. With the validity coefficients reversed from the pilot study, the highest correlation in the situational interview is .21 (with the Understanding Emotions dimension of EI) while the highest correlation in the behavioral

descriptive interview is .14 (with the Understanding Emotions dimension of EI). Therefore, it appears that as the validity of the interview increases, so does the relationship between EI and the interview. In fact, if the relationship between interview ratings and job performance is evaluated after controlling for EI, the impact of interview ratings on job performance is greatly reduced in both the pilot and the field sample as well as both the situational and behavioral descriptive interview ratings. The implication is that emotional intelligence may help to explain an underlying mechanism of structured interviews that enable them to predict job performance.

The relationship between EI and job performance appears to be consistent in both the pilot and field study. Overall emotional intelligence is a statistically significant ($p < .05$) predictor of job performance in both the pilot study (correlation = .34) and the field study (correlation = .25). While the Perceiving, Facilitation, and Understanding Emotions dimensions of EI were not related to job performance in either study, the Managing Emotions dimension of EI was. The Managing Emotions dimension of EI correlated .47 with job performance in the pilot study and .29 in the field study. These consistent findings provide strong support for the direct relationship of overall EI as well as the Managing Emotions dimension of EI with job performance.

Now that the direct relationships between EI (and some of its dimensions) and the dependent variables have been established, the next step is to assess these relationships after the well-established correlates of "g" and the Big-5 are controlled. Situational interview results reveal that the understanding emotions and managing emotions dimensions of EI predict additional variance in situational interview ratings beyond that explained by "g", the Big-5 personality dimensions, and gender.

The understanding emotions dimension of EI involves an improved understanding of and reasoning about emotional information. An individual high in understanding emotions perceives the "lawfulness" underlying specific emotions. This improved emotional understanding may provide important information helpful in crafting an improved response to a future oriented question. In the situational interview question, the interviewee must consider a variety of options and quickly choose a response. Understanding emotions may improve the quality of that response. For example, consider an interview question in which the interviewee must decide how to motivate an employee in a particular situation. When deciding upon an appropriate response to the interview question, the interviewee may be able to assess the potential emotional responses of that employee to a variety of motivational alternatives. The alternative with the best anticipated emotional response from the employee may receive a higher interview rating than other alternatives that were considered. This would lead to an individual high on the EI dimension of understanding emotions to attain higher situational interview ratings.

Managing emotions relates to the quality of social interactions, influencing others motivation, and numerous skills required for social behavior. An interviewee high in managing emotions may improve interview ratings through impression management, improved problem solving, and the ability to adapt socially. Therefore, the ability of an interviewee to understand and manage emotions may be beneficial to the interviewee in the situational interview. Since the processes of impression management, problem solving, and the ability to adapt socially are also argued to improve job performance, EI may partially explain the link between structured interview ratings and job performance.

The perceiving emotions dimension of EI interacts with gender to predict situational interview ratings. More specifically, for males, as emotion perception increases the situational interview ratings decrease. For females, as emotion perception increases the situational interview ratings increase. As discussed earlier, the situational interview may provide more opportunity for impression management than in the behavioral descriptive interview. However, why would men and women differ in the relationship between perceiving emotions and situational interview ratings? The perceiving emotions dimension includes the components of perceiving emotion in self and others as well as accurately expressing emotions. As discussed in the EI and gender section, men tend to suppress most of their feelings. This gender difference of suppression of emotions may conflict with the EI ability to express emotions, leading to a negative relationship between perceiving emotions and situational interview ratings for men. However, women do not have this conflict between emotional expression and emotional suppression, leading to a positive relationship between perceiving emotions and situational interview ratings.

EI (and each of its dimensions) does not predict behavioral descriptive interview ratings beyond that explained by "g", the Big-5 personality dimensions, and gender. Also, although the pilot study indicated that the perception of emotions dimension and the facilitating thought dimension of EI interact with gender, the field study did not find an interaction between EI (or its dimensions) and gender.

The impact of EI in the situational interview, yet not present in the behavioral descriptive interview, is in contrast to what was proposed in the hypotheses. Perhaps when describing past behaviors, there is little opportunity to utilize EI in the behavior

descriptive interview. On the other hand, situational interviews are criticized for allowing the interviewee to give socially desirable responses to potential future behavior. This social desirability bias may be the opportunity through which interviewees utilize EI in crafting superior responses to interview questions. The theoretical reason to hypothesize that behavioral descriptive interviews would relate more strongly with EI than would situational interviews was based in part on the more verbally intense nature of behavioral descriptive interviews. The additional processes in the behavioral descriptive interview of elaborating on the context and dynamics of each experience were thought to provide opportunity for those high in EI to improve interview ratings. However, since the interviewee must recall past events, there is less opportunity to give socially desirable responses. Consequently, elaboration on the context and dynamics of the experience in the behavioral descriptive interview may fail to facilitate the role of EI in the behavioral descriptive interview.

Overall, the findings between EI and the structured employment interview are limited. One possible explanation is that structured interviews are designed to prevent the interviewee from obtaining information in the interview that might be beneficial in framing a response. They are also designed to limit the interviewee from biasing the interviewer. Individuals high in emotional intelligence may be accustomed to gaining beneficial information through the use their emotional ability and using that information to influence the perception of the interviewer. However, the structured interview could be an occasion where mental energy is expended by the interviewee in an effort to gain beneficial interview information but no beneficial information is attained from the

interviewer, thus minimizing the interviewee's ability to influence the outcome of the interview.

As discussed above, task performance results reveal that overall EI and the managing emotions dimension of EI significantly predict job performance in both the pilot and field samples. In both samples, the managing emotions dimension of EI correlates more strongly with job performance than overall EI. Also, each of the other 3 dimensions of EI demonstrates weaker correlations with job performance than overall EI. This indicates that the managing emotions dimension of EI shows promise in the job performance context. In fact, the managing emotions dimension of EI is the best predictor of job performance in this study, and is more strongly correlated to job performance than "g". Despite the significant correlations, EI (and each of its dimensions) does not predict job performance beyond that explained by "g", the Big-5 personality dimensions, and gender. The small sample size with job performance may be an issue, given the finding that the managing emotions dimension of EI predicts 4% of additional variance beyond "g" and the Big-5 in both the pilot and field samples.

A closer analysis of the significant predictors of job performance may be informative. In the field study, managing emotions is correlated at .29 with job performance while "g" is correlated at .22. It is noted that "g" and the managing emotions dimension of EI share a moderate portion of variance (managing emotions is correlated at .36 with "g"). If only "g" is controlled (instead of "g" and the Big-5) managing emotions significantly ($p < .10$) predicts 5% incremental variance in job performance.

Next, it may be provide valuable information to analyze the data in hierarchical regression with EI entered first. This will compliment the hypotheses in which "g" and personality were entered first to determine the incremental validity of EI. If managing emotions is controlled first, the managing emotions dimension of EI significantly predicts ($p < .05$) 8% of the variance in job performance. If only "g" is entered next into the model, it predicts less than 2% of the incremental variance in job performance and that relationship is not significant. If "g" and the Big-5 personality traits are added to the model after controlling for the Managing Emotions dimension of EI, "g" and the Big-5 predict less than 3% of the incremental variance in job performance and that relationship is not statistically significant. This indicates that managing emotions is a better predictor of job performance than "g" and the Big-5 in this sample and that managing emotions has unique variance that predicts job performance beyond "g". If these findings are replicated the implication for EI may be dramatic, thereby elevating the importance of emotional intelligence to rival that of the well-established constructs of general mental ability and personality.

Limitations

The primary limitation of this study concerns the sample size available (N = 81 for the structured interviews and N = 66 for job performance), particularly given the number of control variables used in the analyses. With all control variables, the multiple stage regression analyses contained 7 variables in stage 1, 8 in stage 2 and 9 in stage 3. Therefore, 7 to 9 variables were included to test each hypothesis, which violates the

sample size rule of thumb of 10 cases for each variable entered. Limited sample size also creates a lack of power in detecting significant relationships.

A potential concern is the use of only a male interviewer. Interviewees may respond differently to male and female interviewers. The use of one male interviewer was selected in this study as a way to increase the consistency of the structured interviews.

Because this study was conducted in a field setting with a working population, control by randomization was not utilized. Another issue with this field study is the issue of external validity. It is unknown if the results from a population of juvenile treatment employees would replicate in other settings. This specific type of job, however, should provide an ideal context in which to study the impact of emotional intelligence.

Finally, the method of conducting the interviews was with a concurrent validity study. Any criticisms of concurrent validity studies could therefore be used to criticize this study.

Directions for Future Research

The independent dimensions of EI have demonstrated unique relationships with a variety of variables in this study. Future research should continue to explore the more fine-grained approach of evaluating each dimension independently. In fact, these dimensions may interact with one another or with other variables to predict important outcomes. Further evaluation of the dimensions of EI in relation to other relevant organizational variables should be considered.

The managing emotions dimension of EI was shown to predict situational interview ratings, even after controlling for "g" and the Big-5. In addition, the managing emotions dimension of EI was significantly correlated with job performance in both the pilot and the field study and these correlations were stronger than the relationship between "g" and job performance. Although not significant, the managing emotions dimension predicted 4% of additional variance beyond "g" and the Big-5 in predicting job performance. Based on these findings, the managing emotions dimension of EI appears to demonstrate the greatest promise for organizational research in the interview and job performance context. Future research may benefit from further evaluation of the managing emotions dimension of EI, perhaps supporting the use of managing emotions over composite EI.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Junior Consultant Job Description

Position Summary: A Junior Consultant is responsible to assist the Senior Consultant in providing consulting services to clients. The Junior Consultant provides support on the consulting team in a specific area of specialization. Specialization areas include: finance, accounting, marketing, management, MIS, international business, and other specialty areas.

Job Responsibilities:

- Consults with client to define need or problem utilizing knowledge of theory, principles, or technology of specific discipline or field of specialization:
- Conducts study or survey on need or problem to obtain data required for solution.
- Analyzes data to determine solution, such as installation of alternate methods and procedures, changes in processing methods and practices, modification of machines or equipment, or redesign of products or services.
- Advises client on alternate methods of solving need or problem, or recommends specific solution.
- May negotiate contract for consulting service.
- May be designated according to field of specialization such as marketing, accounting, finance, management, or management of information systems.

Skills needed:

- Ability to deal with complex situations and collaborate effectively with personnel in order to provide fast and effective problem resolutions.
- Excellent oral, presentation, and written communication skills.
- Ability to work in a fast-paced environment.
- Must be team-oriented
- Must demonstrate the ability to work well with clients.
- Must demonstrate strong problem-solving and analytical skills.
- Self-directed individuals who can function well in ambiguous environments.

Education and Experience Required:

- Bachelors degree in Marketing, Management, Finance, Accounting, MIS, or other specified specialty degree.
- Relevant work experience is preferred.

Benefits:

- Competitive salary.
- Standard benefits: health, dental, disability and 401k.
- Aggressive bonus structure and profit sharing.

Pilot Study Interview Questions

Behavioral Descriptive Interview Questions

1. Tell me about a time when you were challenged to get somebody to do something they really did not want to do.
2. Please describe a time when you had to work with someone who was difficult to get along with.
3. At times we are put in situations where we find ourselves correcting someone's behavior because it is inappropriate, offensive, or just plain wrong for other reasons. Tell me about a situation where you had to confront someone who was doing something wrong.
4. Please explain something you've done in a work situation that shows how creative or innovative you can be.
5. Think about a project assigned to you that took at least a week to complete. How did you decide how you would go about it?

Situational Interview Questions

1. Suppose you were working with a co-worker whom you knew greatly disliked performing a particular job task. You were in a situation where you needed this task completed, and this employee was the only one available to assist you. What would you do to motivate the employee to perform this task?
2. Imagine that, as part of a consulting project, you are dealing with a mid-level supervisor in a firm who is difficult to deal with. They explain to you that using consultants is a "pointless waste of time". You suspect that they may feel threatened by your potential recommendations. How would you go about dealing with the client?
3. Imagine being in a meeting with both a peer and a client in which the client is making unreasonable demands. Your co-worker appears frustrated and begins to make comments that may be construed as sarcastic and offensive. How do you handle this situation?
4. Suppose you are working on an important report and become increasingly uncertain whether or not you will complete the project by the stated deadline in the project proposal. How would you deal with this situation?
5. Imagine that your boss is sick and you are asked to fill in for her for a few weeks. One particular task requiring attention is to plan an upcoming initial meeting between your team of 5 consultants and the client. What would you do to prepare for this meeting?

JD#550 -Youth Treatment Worker Job Description (Revised - April, 2003)

Position Summary: The Youth Treatment Workers are responsible for the direct supervision of the clients placed at Gibault, Inc. in the living units and related areas. The Youth Treatment Workers interface with Therapists, Residential Services Supervisors, Educational staff members, and others to provide for a structured and nurturing living environment for the clients.
Reports To: A Residential Services Supervisor or designee
FLSA Classification: Non-Exempt

Requirements

- **Knowledge** – High School Diploma or GED required.
- **Written Communication Skills** - Writing skills are considered to be basic in nature. Job duties require knowledge and applications of spelling, punctuation, sentence structure, and grammar. Use of such skills would be evident in assignments such as proofreading and preparation of routine memos or correspondence.
- **Research, Processing and Handling of Information** - Information is handled by collecting readily available related data, or by reacting in a prescribed manner, such as copying, taking prescribed action, or matching data and figures.
- **Communication Skills** - Job duties and responsibilities periodically require interpreting and translating facts and information, explaining situations and issues to people and advising them of alternative or appropriate courses of action; and/or interviewing and acquiring information from others.
- **Judgment and Independence of Action -** effects Incumbent's Own Position but Affecting Client Groups
- **Job Complexity** - Uses data and information which are mostly factual. No significant variables, uncertainties, or ambiguities to consider. Steps, methods, or processes used are normally well established or pre-defined. Data and information are readily available or obtainable.
- **Impact on Clients, Community and Staff Relations** - The job performance impacts the overall community or staff relations and image of the organization to a minor degree. Positive or negative consequences are relatively short-term in nature and restricted to only a few clients, employees, visitors or members of the public.
- **Impact on Programs, Operations and Services** - The job impacts the overall efficiency of the organization's programs, operations and services to a minor degree. The structure or design of the job permits or encourages actions which can improve individual or group performance. Errors or deficiencies in performance are more difficult to correct. Correction requires definite amounts of time, effort, and/or financial resources.
- **Supervisory or Managerial Responsibility** – No supervisory or managerial authority
- **Demand for Mental and/or Visual Concentration** - Level of Visual Concentration: The amount and extent of task detail with which the person must work, e.g., figures, paperwork, data, etc are occasional. Interruptions and Distracting Influences: For example people, phone calls, noise, and so forth are periodic. Pressures related to

establishing priorities, meeting deadlines, or fulfilling scheduling requirements are occasional.

- **Working Environment** - The job requires periodic physical exertion characterized by activities such as repeated bending, reaching, climbing, running, moderate lifting or fine manual dexterity and eye/hand coordination. The tasks performed on the job produce exposure to injuries. Such as minor burns, cuts, abrasions, or falls. Little or no health hazard is involved. Work is carried out in mildly disagreeable conditions. Factors such as temperature, noise or ventilation yield a perceptible level of discomfort.
- Possession of valid drivers license and approved insurability status by Gibault's insurance carrier preferred

Youth Treatment Worker Performance Standards

Organization

1. Work harmoniously and effectively with co-workers.
2. Is faithful in reporting to work, staying on the job, attending required meetings and helping to meet institutional emergencies.
3. Communicate effectively, both verbally and in writing with both staff and clients.
4. Maintains a professional attitude towards the clients and other employees
5. Follows through on assigned tasks to completion

Treatment

6. Provide a positive role model for the clients at all times through appearance, attitude, and behavior.
7. Provide leadership, direction, encouragement, and coaching to the clients throughout campus and in particular to those in their assigned living unit.
8. Commitment to empowering others to solve their own problems
9. Ability to establish a respectful relationship with persons served to help them gain skills & confidence
10. Ability to maintain a helping role and to intervene appropriately to meet client goals
11. Teaches clients appropriate "life skills" when correcting inappropriate behaviors

Client Supervision

12. Develop a proactive approach to supervision designed to minimize client behavioral problems and prevent crisis situations.
13. Enforce organizational and group living policies, procedures, and rules through the use of various treatment tools in accordance with the client disciplinary action policy.
14. Ability to set appropriate limits with client's served
15. Uses appropriate, effective, and creative consequences when dealing with client behavioral problems

Living Unit

16. Provide programming for clients in your area of responsibility including recreation, leisure activities, and special events within their assigned living unit.
17. Supervise the daily cleaning and organization of their assigned living unit to maintain compliance with applicable regulatory standards.

Field Study Interview Questions

Behavior Descriptive Interview Questions

1. Tell me about a time when you were challenged to get somebody to do something they really did not want to do.

2. Please describe a time when you had to work with someone who was difficult to get along with.

3. At times we are put in situations where we find ourselves correcting someone's behavior because it is inappropriate, offensive, or just plain wrong for other reasons. Tell me about a situation where you had to confront someone who was doing something wrong.

4. Please explain something you've done in a work situation that shows how creative or innovative you can be.

5. Please explain a recent decision that you had to make that was particularly challenging or complicated.

Situational Interview Questions

1. Imagine you were working with a fellow worker whom you knew greatly disliked performing a particular job task. You were in a situation where you needed this task completed, and this employee was the only one available to assist you. What would you do to motivate the employee to perform this task?

2. Imagine being in a situation with both a peer and a client in which the client is being unreasonable. Your co-worker appears frustrated and begins to make comments that may be construed as sarcastic and offensive. How do you handle this situation?

3. Imagine that, as part of a living unit activity, you are dealing with client who is difficult to deal with. In front of all the other clients, they refuse to follow your directives. How would you go about dealing with the client?

4. Suppose you are working on an important report and become increasingly uncertain whether or not you will complete the project by the stated deadline set for you by your supervisor. How would you deal with this situation?

5. Imagine that your boss is sick and you are asked to fill in for him or her for a few weeks. One particular task requiring attention is to plan for an upcoming outing to a local park including yourself, two additional staff, and 12 clients. What would you do to prepare for this outing?

Supervisor Survey of YTW Performance

Jeremy Dix in Human Resources has authorized you to complete this survey and has requested your participation. This one page survey is part of a study conducted by faculty at Oklahoma State University. It is designed to examine Gibault's hiring, interviewing, and training procedures. The information you provide will enable us to better understand how certain factors impact job performance at Gibault. At the end of the study, we will use the collected information to improve Gibault's screening and hiring procedures and training programs in order to enhance working conditions of staff and the treatment of Gibault's clients.

Your answers are STRICTLY confidential. At no time will the information you provide be given to anyone at Gibault. Reports of the results of this study will be presented in such a way as to protect the confidentiality of you, your employees, and the organization. Please provide thoughtful and honest answers.

Specifically, this survey asks your opinion about the job performance of a new hire that you supervise.

If you have any questions, please inquire via e-mail. Your cooperation and help is sincerely appreciated.

Instructions: Below are several statements about the employee with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale to the right, indicate the level of your agreement or disagreement with each item by simply "bolding" the appropriate number. Once completed, simply forward it back to me via e-mail.

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neutral
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

Employee: John Doe:

---

1. Coaches, develops, and mentors clients in order to improve life skills.
   1 2 3 4 5
2. Engages responsibly in meetings and work-group activities.
   1 2 3 4 5
3. Endorses, supports, or defends organizational objectives.
   1 2 3 4 5
4. Enforces group living rules, regulations, and state laws.
   1 2 3 4 5
5. Maintains a professional attitude towards clients and staff.
   1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX B

IRB FORM

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date:	Friday, March 25, 2005
IRB Application No	BU0524
Proposal Title:	Pre-employment Screening and Mock Interview
Reviewed and Processed as:	Exempt

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved **Protocol Expires: 3/24/2006**

Principal Investigator(s

Donald Kluemper
401 W. 9th
Stillwater, OK 74074

Tim DeGroot
320 Business
Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

☑ The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Beth McTernan in 415 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, emct@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Sue C. Jacobs, Chair
Institutional Review Board

VITA

Candidate for the Degree of Business Administration

Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: AN EXAMINATION OF ABILITY-BASED EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE STRUCTURED EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW

Major Field: Business Administration

Biographical:

Education:

M.S. Indiana State University, August 2000
Major: Criminology

B.S. Indiana State University, December 1993
Major: Business Management

Completed the Requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 2006

Experience:

Visiting Assistant Professor - Oklahoma State University - Tulsa Campus
Department of Management (Fall 2005 – present).

Instructor - Oklahoma State University
Department of Management (Fall 2002 – Spring 2005)

Director of Human Resources / Business Operations
Gibault, Inc., Terre Haute, IN. (December 1996 – August 2001)

Academic Affiliations

Academy of Management, 2002 - present

Southern Management Association, 2004 - present

Name: Donald H. Kluemper Date of Degree: May 2006

Institution: Oklahoma State University Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: AN EXAMINATION OF ABILITY-BASED EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE STRUCTURED EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW

Pages in Study: 135 Candidate for the Degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Major Field: Business Administration

Purpose and Method of Study: Research on emotional intelligence (EI) is gaining momentum and becoming one of the most topical areas of organizational research. Of particular interest is the role of EI in the context of employment selection and job performance. Due to the degree of social interaction and emotional influence, the employment interview appears to be an ideal context in which to study the role of EI. The goal of this research is to determine the effect of ability-based EI in the situational interview (SI), the behavioral descriptive interview (BDI), and on the job. More specifically, does EI predict SI ratings, BDI ratings, and job performance after controlling for the established correlates of "g" and the Big-5? Furthermore, the four dimensions of EI are modeled for their prediction of the three dependent variables and to examine gender interactions. In both a pilot study and a field sample, participants were assessed with the MSCEIT, the Wonderlic Personnel Test, the NEO-FFI, and participated in a video recorded job interview. This interview consisted of a situational interview component and a behavioral descriptive interview component. The video recorded interview was later split into separate SI and BDI interview segments and was evaluated by trained raters. Job performance was assessed by the supervisor of the participant.

Findings and Conclusions: Results indicate that two EI dimensions, the understanding and managing emotions dimensions, predict situational interview ratings, even after controlling for "g" and the Big-5. Overall EI and the managing emotions dimension of EI significantly predict job performance in both the pilot study and the field sample. After controlling for "g" and the Big-5, the managing emotions dimension of EI predicts 4% of the variance in job performance in both samples. Gender did not interact with EI to the degree expected, though a few gender interactions were found. This study is one of the first to evaluate ability-based emotional intelligence in an actual field setting, one of the first to evaluate ability-based EI in relation to actual job performance, and is the first to evaluate ability-based EI in the structured employment interview.

ADVISOR'S APPROVAL: Dr. Mark Gavin