

Presenter Symposium Proposal for the 2005 Academy of Management Meeting

**Emotional Intelligence in Groups:
Benefits and Costs for the Management of Groups in the 21st Century**

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Abstract

Since the early 1990's the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has had such intuitive appeal and face validity that in a short period of time it captured the attention of social scientists and organizational practitioners around the world. Most of these researchers studied the influence of emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness and on individual performance. More recently, scholars with interests in small groups have also begun to theorize and study EI and its role in groups -- the results of that recent thinking will be presented in this symposium. Our objective is to show how applying research and theory on emotional intelligence to the study of team effectiveness can advance theory, research, and practice with work teams in the 21st century. Toward that end, the presentations in this symposium present theory and research that examines emotional intelligence at the individual and group level in teams. Three of our presentations suggest that emotional intelligence in teams leads to team effectiveness. One presentation finds that emotional intelligence in teams does not go far enough in helping a team recognize the influence of its situation on its effectiveness. We end with a discussion that examines how our ideas and research advance thinking about emotion in groups, group effectiveness, and emotional intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence in Groups: Benefits and Costs for the Management of Groups in the 21st Century

Symposium Overview

In a period of about fifteen years, participation in work teams has become a standard in most U.S. organizations (Lawler, 1998). In fact, the Wall Street Journal's rank of the criteria used by recruiters seeking to hire MBAs placed "the ability to work well within a team" second; it was right behind "communication and interpersonal skills" (Alsop, 2003 -- Wall Street Journal, Wednesday, September 16, 2003). If trends continue, the use of work teams in organizations throughout the world will continue to grow in the 21st century.

The speed with which the "team revolution" took over the workplace is one way to explain the results of a recent survey that asked the leaders of 100 of the most innovative companies in the United States (as defined by the *Work In America Institute*) to name the workplace challenges they most wanted researchers to address. Ninety-five percent of the respondents identified "creating and sustaining effective work teams" as their #1 challenge (Farren, 1999). Clearly, there is a need for new ways of thinking about building effective teams.

Recently, a number of scholars have argued that researchers and theorists could increase their understanding of group effectiveness by examining the influences of emotion and social relationships on team effectiveness (Edmondson, 1999; George, 2002; Keyton, 1999). Several scholars have also suggested that a potentially fruitful way of advancing theory on group effectiveness would be to examine the role of emotional intelligence in work teams (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Kelly & Barsade, 2000). Thus, in this symposium, we offer four presentations that examine theoretically and empirically the influence of emotional intelligence on team effectiveness. Our symposium will also include, as Discussants, Sigal Barsade and Richard Boyatzis, two of the theorists who originally suggested that researchers examine the role

of emotional intelligence in teams. In their role as Discussants, we ask them to reflect on how the presentations advance theory on emotion and group effectiveness in teams and on theory on emotional intelligence, in general.

In this overview, we begin with a definition of emotional intelligence and then discuss how each of the presentations in this symposium work together to present the various ways that emotional intelligence in teams can add or detract from team effectiveness. Our objective is to show how applying research and theory on emotional intelligence to the study of team effectiveness can advance theory, research, and practice with work teams in the 21st century.

Emotional Intelligence

The suggestion that individuals differ in their ability to perceive, understand, and use emotion as a source of information was first proposed by psychologists Peter Salovey and Jack Mayer (1990). They labeled this ability *emotional intelligence* (EI) and formally defined it as involving: (1) the ability to perceive, appraise, and express emotion accurately, (2) the ability to access and generate feelings when they facilitate cognition, (3) the ability to understand affect-laden information and make use of emotional knowledge, and (4) the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth and well-being (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Since the early 1990's the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) had had such intuitive appeal and face validity that in a short period of time it captured the attention of social scientists and organizational practitioners around the world. Most of these researchers studied the influence of emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness and on individual performance (Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Zerbe, 2000; Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). More recently, scholars with interests in small groups have also begun to theorize and

study EI and its role in groups -- the results that recent thinking will be presented in this symposium.

Emotional Intelligence in Groups and the Flow of Our Symposium

Our symposium will begin with a theoretical presentation by Hillary Anger Elfenbein. Hillary uses ideas from her research on emotion recognition in groups and its influence on group effectiveness (Elfenbein, Marsh, & Ambady, 2002; Elfenbein, Polzer, & Wooley, 2004) to lay out the possible ways that emotional intelligence can influence team effectiveness. Specifically, she discusses two complimentary ways that the influence emotional intelligence can be studied in the team context: first, by examining the EI of the individual members in a team, and second, by examining how much EI team members display in their interactions with each other. The first way examines EI as an individual resource that team members bring to a team. The second way examines EI as patterns of interaction in the team. She will proceed to discuss benefits of examining EI in groups from both perspectives and will review research she and her colleagues have conducted that supports the relevance of both forms of EI to team performance.

Hillary Elfenbein's theoretical ideas will set the stage for the two papers that follow her. The first, by Murray and Jordan, studies the influence of individual emotional intelligence on team performance. The second, by Wolff and Druskat, examines what the authors refer to as a group-level emotional intelligence they refer to as group emotional competence and its influence on team effectiveness.

In the second presentation, Murray and Jordan will present the results of a field study in which they put teams through training to increase team member emotional intelligence and in which they determine whether teams perform better after emotional intelligence training. They measure the emotional intelligence of these member pre-and post the training and also measure

the emotional intelligence of control groups at two times to determine whether the training can, in fact, increase the emotional intelligence of team members. Also, the pre-training and post-training performance of the experimental groups was assessed to examine changes due to the training intervention. This presentation has clear implications for how to develop the emotional intelligence of group members, which will be discussed by the authors.

In the third presentation by Steven Wolff and Vanessa Druskat, the authors argue that because work groups exist to enable social interaction, debate, and innovation -- groups are hotbeds for emotion. However, because groups are greater than the sum of their parts, individual team member EI, cannot by itself manage emotion in teams. Specifically, they argue that groups are social systems in which *interactions* among members are the basic building blocks (Morgeson & Hofmann, 1999). This means that group outcomes are influenced not only by the competence of individual group members, but also by the competence evident in the patterns of interactions among all members

Thus, the authors develop a “group emotional competence theory,” which proposes that when the group as a whole is aware of emotion and effectively manages that emotion, it has a positive influence on team social capital. Their presentation will include the results of three unpublished studies using multiple methods (qualitative and quantitative) and multiple research sites that show that emotional competence can be measured at the group level – and that group-level emotional competence is linked to group effectiveness through its link to social capital (operationalized in their theory as psychological safety, group efficacy, and networks).

The fourth and final paper takes an entirely different perspective and argues that emotional intelligence in groups can actually harm group performance. Here, Alex Michel and Karen Jehn will present theory and research suggesting that emotional intelligence is not a fully

social approach to social intelligence (defined as effective adaptation to the social context), and thus, falls short of fully predicting individual and team effectiveness. Specifically, the authors argue that when emotion is activated (i.e., emotion is experienced), the self-concept including its cognitive and motivational processes are also activated. As such, the person experiences the social context in relation to self-relevant information – which disconnects the person from unique and dynamic aspects of the social context. Thus, “thinking about emotion,” unintentionally impedes social intelligence by diverting or drawing attention away from the social context and situation-specific information. The authors argue that because emotional intelligence is self-focused, it can unwittingly decrease rather than increase social intelligence. Social intelligence, as defined by the authors, requires one to step out of oneself and become completely involved in the situation.

The author’s came to their conclusions through their two-year ethnographic study of two comparable Wall Street Investment Banks which they refer to as “People Bank” and “Organization Bank.” During this research, the author’s came to recognize two distinct approaches to the work with clients. Employees at People Bank relied on their own cognitive, motivational, and emotional resources and the regulation of those resources to be effective. Employees at Organization Bank relied less on regulating their own resources and more on utilizing resources available in the social situation. Rich examples of how these differences played out in the two banks are provided. For example, the authors describe a situation in which both banks were competing for the same client. The researchers were privy to the preparations for the client meetings. The People Bank team anticipated client needs, showed up with a 90 page report, and presented themselves as fully competent at the meeting. The Organization Bank team showed up with a 12 page spreadsheet, weren’t sure how their resources would apply, and

chose to focus on the situation in the meeting for guidance. Thus, during the meeting they worked with the client to determine client needs. This example is used to illustrate the point that activation of the person's self with its abstract concepts (cognition, motivation, and emotion) gets in the way of sensitivity to the situation and thereby impedes social intelligence. The authors refer to engagement with concrete aspects of the situation as "direct involvement," and compare it to their term "identity induced involvement," which is used to describe engagement when the "self" is involved. The term "direct" indicates that the involvement is not mediated by constant reference to the self-concept. They argue that direct involvement expands the cognitive resources the individual uses from a primary reliance on mental resources to a flexible use of both mental and social resources including task-structures, other people, and objects. The greater effectiveness of Organization Bank and their in-depth analyses lead the authors to present an alternative model for social intelligence that combines current conceptions of EI with the author's conception of direct involvement in the situation.

The Role of the Discussants

As mentioned above, our two discussants Sigal Barsade and Richard Boyatzis are well-known experts in the fields of group emotion, group effectiveness, and emotional intelligence. They will comment on how the theory and research presented advances theory and research, and practice. Given the theme of the AOM conference this year – we will ask them to pay particular attention to discussing how these papers can lead to new ways of developing effective groups in the 21st century.

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Presenter Symposium Proposal

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Proposed Format

(100 minutes)

1. Opening Remarks and Introductions

(5 minutes)

2. Research Overviews from Each Presenter

(60 minutes total: 12 minute presentations with 3 minutes for audience Q & A)

- Hillary Elfenbein, University of California, Berkely
- Peter Jordan & Jane Murray, Griffith University
- Steve Wolff, Bentley College & Vanessa Druskat, University of New Hampshire
- Alex Michel, U

3. Comments by Discussants

(20 minutes total: 8 minutes each with one question from the audience for each Discussant)

- Sigal Barsade, University of Pennsylvania
- Richard Boyatzis, Case Western Reserve University

4. Moderated Discussion with the Audience

(15 minutes)

Experience indicates that audiences enjoy discussing the topic of emotional intelligence. As the presentation focuses on the relatively uncharted idea of emotional intelligence in groups – there are likely to be lots of comments and questions. The Chairs of the symposium will moderate the discussion around how our research advances theory on emotion in groups, group effectiveness, and emotional intelligence. They will also seek discussion around the practical implications of our ideas for managing groups in the 21st century.

Signed Agreements

I certify that I have received signed notes from all chairs, presenters, and discussants in this symposium indicating that they will be present at the symposium.

Vanessa Druskat

How our Symposium fits in with the Organizational Behavior Division and the Organization Development and Change Division

Organizational Behavior

We fit in with your mission of studying individuals and groups within an organizational context.

Organizational Development and Change

Our deep interest in this symposium is increasing team effectiveness in the 21st century. This fits within your mission involved in organizational success and constructive organizational change.

**Team Emotional Intelligence:
What It Can Mean and How It Can Impact Performance**

Hillary Anger Elfenbein
University of California, Berkeley

We are only just beginning to understand the consequences of emotional intelligence (EI) for workgroups in organizational settings. High among the benefits emphasized for emotionally intelligent individuals has been greater effectiveness in working together with colleagues. Thus, EI could be a crucial component of high-functioning teamwork. However, little academic research has examined the impact that EI can make for teams. In this presentation, I review evidence documenting that the emotional intelligence of teams is a substantial predictor of effective team performance.

Two models of “Team Emotional Intelligence”. What does it mean for a workgroup to be emotionally intelligent? There are two very different ways of thinking about the EI of teams: first, by examining the EI of the individual members on the team, and second, by examining how much emotional intelligence team members display in their interactions with each other. First, we can consider the emotional intelligence of the individual members of the team. A team may be more effective if its members have greater emotional intelligence, which is an *individual resource* that each person can use in their work. Second, we can consider the degree of emotional intelligence that team members appear to use when they interact with each other. It is reasonable to expect an emotionally intelligent team to have healthy and effective emotional dynamics, and to use emotion productively in order to conduct their work with each other. Instead of being an individual resource that members can use, the second method looks at emotional intelligence as a set of norms or patterns about the way people behave with each other. These perspectives, summarized in Figure 1, do not compete with each other. Rather, both are

valuable, and each provides different insights and opportunities for both researchers and practitioners.

Although these two perspectives may at first seem very similar, there can be important differences. I now review the literature demonstrating that the initial evidence is very promising for each of the two perspectives, suggesting strongly that greater emotional intelligence benefits work groups in organizational settings.

Emotional intelligence of individual group members

Because we know that emotional intelligence has important consequences for individuals in the workplace, we suspect—but do not necessarily know—that the emotional intelligence of individual members should also have consequences for teams. Indeed, researchers often find it valuable to think about workgroups in terms of the individuals who are in the group. Emotional tendencies can be considered as individual traits, and these traits of individuals combine and create the emotional composition of a group (Kelly & Barsade, 2001). The emotional composition of a team involves not only the average value for each team member, but also includes the maximum value, the minimum value, and the diversity in values across teammates.

Group-level Average of Emotional Intelligence. The most common method of thinking about a psychological phenomenon at the team level is to take an average value, which “aggregates” individual-level scores into a single score for the group. The underlying assumption is that emotional intelligence can be viewed a *resource* that team members draw upon, and that members of the team can pool their abilities to share and compensate for one another. Thus, a higher average level of EI among the individuals in a team provides a benefit to the team’s performance. It is worth addressing debate about whether it is meaningful to use an average value across individuals in order to describe a team as a whole. Scholars have debated

extensively about whether it is necessary first to demonstrate that there is a high degree of similarity among team members before calculating an average value (e.g., Chan, 1998; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994; Rousseau, 1985). In the case of emotional intelligence, I argue that this requirement does not apply. Demonstrating similarity can be a worthwhile safeguard when examining psychological phenomena such as attitudes or group culture, because it is difficult to say that group attitudes or cultures exist if colleagues cannot agree upon them. However, emotional intelligence is different in the sense that it can be viewed as a kind of individual *resource*. This analogy makes it clear that it is meaningful to compare teams with high versus low average values, whether or not individual team members are similar to each other in EI.

Group-level Minimum and Maximum Emotional Intelligence. Although a group average is valuable as a single measure to summarize the overall emotional intelligence of a group, the average value is not the only worthwhile number. Depending on the type of group task, other values may be more appropriate to describe important features of the group. Closely related to the average value are several other mathematical functions, such as the maximum and the minimum value in a team (Barsade & Gibson, 1998).

In 1972, Steiner outlined a typology of group tasks that is helpful to consider for this purpose. The group average is most useful for examining “additive” tasks, in which each group member’s contribution is added together into a common pool of output. Emotional intelligence serves as a resource for teams, and for many types of tasks it may not matter how that resource is distributed across individuals—as long as it is available for use. By contrast, a group’s maximum level of EI among individuals is useful for exploring what Steiner called “conjunctive” tasks, in which a group output represents the performance of its strongest member. For some types of work, having one teammate with exceptionally high emotional intelligence

may be sufficient to assist the entire team. For example, in a negotiation setting with multiple representatives from each party, one person who is particularly adept at sensing the interests and tone of the other party can share this information with teammates, so that the entire group can act appropriately. In other settings, it is possible for a “good-cop-bad-cop” routine to develop in which the teammate acting as a “good cop” can undo any tension caused in the process of productive work by the “bad cop.” In other cases, one colleague with very high EI can serve as a lightning rod to detect and dissipate tensions that can arise during a team’s work. The minimum level of EI among individuals in a group is most useful for exploring what Steiner called “disjunctive” tasks, in which a group performance is only as strong as its weakest link. In the case of emotional intelligence, this may be true for certain types of teams, for example those that represent their organization to outside stakeholders, such as a sales team with a goal of 100% customer satisfaction. In these teams, individual behavior that is emotionally inappropriate and lacking can reflect poorly on the entire group. Barsade and Gibson (1998) also note that the lowest value can be important if individuals may be able to infect their colleagues with their negativity.

Group-level Diversity in Emotional Intelligence. An additional way to examine EI at the team level is to consider the amount of diversity, or variability, across individual scores in a group. The underlying assumption is that emotional intelligence can also be viewed as a *trait*, and that members of the team who are similar may fit together more smoothly and may be better able to coordinate their activities. This perspective draws on research examining diversity in terms of personality traits, workplace goals and values, demographic characteristics and functional background and training—which shows that diversity provides helpful perspectives, but unfortunately can be accompanied by greater challenges as well. Whether team diversity

helps or hinders team performance depends on the type of diversity as well as the context and environment of the workgroup. Although diversity along dimensions such as personality and technical skills can be beneficial, diversity along demographic characteristics such as ethnicity and gender is often associated with poorer group functioning and performance (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998).

In general, one would expect that greater similarity in emotional intelligence among team members could provide a benefit to team performance. Psychologists frequently find that people show favoritism towards others they believe are similar to themselves (Byrne, 1971). Barsade and Gibson (1998) applied this finding specifically to similarity along emotional characteristics. Thus, they argue that individuals may work better with colleagues who share their own emotional styles. Barsade and colleagues (2000) recently documented evidence that emotional diversity does present a challenge for the effective functioning of top management teams. In their study of Fortune 500 companies, top management teams benefited both from higher levels of positive affect as well as from greater similarity in their emotional tendencies. Emotional similarity was associated with better financial performance of the company as well as more effective group processes. Further, these two effects interacted with each other, so that the very worst performers in their study were those teams with both low average positive affect and high affective diversity.

Although emotional diversity might generally pose a challenge to effective team functioning, there may also be some contexts and environments in which emotional diversity could be valuable. Emotional diversity could help teams to succeed if it provides differences in perspective that are helpful for the team's work, and if the diversity is accompanied by a supportive organizational climate that respects the differences among individuals. Particularly

for personality and other social traits, teams can benefit from a mix of styles. Sometimes, having a group that is homogeneous can be “too much of a good thing.” As early as the 1950s and 60s, researchers found that participants preferred working with colleagues with complementary—rather than similar—personality traits (Haythorn, 1968; Hoffman & Maier, 1961; Rychlak, 1965). More recently, researchers have found that this is particularly true for extraversion, so that individuals benefit from having colleagues who differ from themselves (Barry & Stewart, 1997; Kristof-Brown, Barrick, & Steven, 2001). Although some similarity can be helpful, researchers found that it was overload to have colleagues who were all exceptionally outgoing and gregarious.

These findings, taken together, argue for the importance of examining the impact of diversity in emotional intelligence among individuals in a team. Emotion can serve as a language. When expressing important messages, people use nonverbal methods of communicating just as much—or more—than verbal methods. Thus, the way that we use emotions in the workplace can function like a language that we speak simultaneously with our spoken language. Using this metaphor, diversity in the levels of emotional intelligence among teammates can serve as a language barrier. If some members are skilled with—and, consequently, accustomed to—using their emotions as a channel for communicating and coordinating with others, then it may be challenging for them to work with others who prefer a different method. In this case, diversity can imply that some colleagues speak one language, and other colleagues speak another language. This suggests that diversity in emotional intelligence is likely to serve as a hindrance to team effectiveness.

“Team EI”: Using emotional skills when working in a team

The second main perspective for examining EI at the team level is to examine the emotional savvy exhibited when the team members interact with each other. I refer to this second perspective as “team EI.” The underlying assumption of the second perspective is that emotional intelligence can be viewed as a *process*, and that this process can differ across interaction partners. That is, one person may display more emotionally intelligent behavior when interacting with colleague A than with colleague B. A person may display more emotionally intelligent behavior in situation A than in situation B. We each have a unique emotional style, and the style we use fits better with certain people and with certain contexts than it does with others—even after accounting for the individual’s general level of emotional intelligence. Thus, it can be worthwhile to examine the team-specific emotional intelligence—that is, the emotional quality of interactions in the team context. Researchers have often used this perspective by administering surveys that tap into the use of effective interpersonal processes among teammates. Researchers can also engage in participant observation, and can conduct controlled exercises with intact teams. The core distinction between this perspective and the perspective used in the work with results described above is the focus on how much emotional intelligence is *displayed* and actually *used* in the interactions among teammates—rather than the fixed individual attributes of teammates—as a predictor of team performance.

This approach to examining team EI is a natural extension to the definition of “intelligence.” Psychologist Robert Sternberg (1984) defines intelligence as “adaptation to, selection of, and shaping of real-world environments relevant to one’s life” (p. 285). This suggests that the intelligence of a group should be the ability of that group to collaborate and work interdependently. This is the “functional intelligence of a group of people working as a unit” (Williams & Sternberg, 1988, p. 356). By examining the group as a whole, rather than the

individuals who are in it, we can gain an important perspective on what it means to be emotionally intelligent. Previous research has validated the importance of thinking about the emotional intelligence of groups in terms of effective functioning. Vanessa Druskat and colleagues (e.g., Druskat & Kayes, 1999; Druskat & Wolff, 2001) have investigated “team EI” in a variety of contexts. They found that many of the elements of effective emotional functioning in teams came from norms that team members developed with each other, rather than from the intelligence of the particular individuals. That is, team emotional intelligence was often a matter of effective interpersonal behaviors, rather than unchangeable traits. The “whole” was more than just an average of the parts, because teams tend to take on their own unique character. Teams acted in the most emotionally intelligent manner when they had mutual trust among members, a sense of group identity, and a sense of group efficacy. Note that these norms do not focus on soft areas such as being happy and friendly, but rather they focus on the conditions for communicating openly even under difficult circumstances. Although individuals can contribute towards building or destroying the necessary factors, it is the group as a whole that shapes norms. Druskat and Wolff did find that individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence tended to be more effective at fostering healthy norms for teamwork. However, once in place these norms took on a life of their own, and no longer depended on the individual group members.

Implications for Research and Practice.

The first perspective—examining the EI of individual members—offers the chance to make predictions about team performance before a team is formed. For this reason, it is the only practical method that can be useful for *choosing* team members. By contrast, you cannot examine the team EI displayed in interactions among team members until the team is formed.

Thus, the second perspective on team EI would be prohibitively expensive for choosing team members because team EI is more than the combination of its parts. And, in many cases, team membership must be driven by specific needs for the functional backgrounds and availability of individual members, and cannot be adjusted based on emotional capabilities.

However, Druskat and Wolff's work shows us that the second perspective on team emotional intelligence should still be crucial at the time of team formation: rather than using EI as a *selection* tool to choose team members, managers can use it as a *development* tool to help foster emotionally effective norms from the first meeting onwards. Creating the conditions for teams to communicate openly can help to build trust, a group spirit, and a can-do attitude. Thus, emotionally intelligent behavior can develop in teams, regardless of the test scores achieved by individuals.

Figure 1
Perspectives on Emotional Intelligence in Teams

Perspective	Insights
I. EI of individuals in the team:	<i>Examining the individuals who make up the team</i>
Team-level average EI	Does this team generally have the emotional resources to be productive?
Team-level minimum EI	Does this team have anyone left behind?
Team-level maximum EI	Does this team have a member who could jumpstart emotional effectiveness?
Team-level diversity of EI	Does this team have members who speak the same "emotional language"?
II. "Team EI": A team as more than the sum of its parts	
Observational and self-report measures of the emotional savvy in interactions among team members	Does this team use emotion effectively in its work?

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Does Training Increase Emotional Intelligence in Groups and Group Performance?

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In this presentation we will discuss the results of a study examining the efficacy of training emotional intelligence skills and abilities in groups. While performance differences have been found between groups with members that average high in emotional intelligence and groups with members with average low in emotional intelligence (Jordan & Troth, 2004), other longitudinal research suggests that these performance differences were minimized the longer the groups worked together (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Hooper, 2002). Thus, we present a field study that examines this question at a greater level of depth.

Utilizing Mayer and Salovey's (1997) Four-Branch Model of emotional intelligence (awareness, understanding, facilitation and management of own and others' emotions), we first identified a series of emotional intelligence (EI) skills and abilities that link to each individual branch of the Mayer and Salovey model (Murray & Jordan, 2004). These included: awareness of verbal and non-verbal cues, building emotion through organizational stories, perspective taking, and reframing emotions.

We then designed a two day training program that incorporated specific emotion-focused interventions to develop these EI skills and abilities in group members. Specifically, the training interventions included activities to: increase awareness of subtle and micro-facial expressions (Ekman, 1993, 1999); learn to facilitate emotions through organizational stories (Van Buskirk & McGrath, 1992) and emotional contagion (Barsade, 2002), increase understanding of emotions through knowledge of emotional progressions and transitions (George, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001), and build skills in managing emotions and engaging and

disengaging from emotions (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Details of the emotional intelligence training interventions will be outlined during the presentation.

We used experimental methodology to test the broad research question of whether training in specific emotional skills raises the level of emotional intelligence and performance in both individuals and groups. During the study, experimental groups were requested to complete a measure of emotional intelligence both before and after the completion of a two-day emotions skills training intervention. Experimental groups were also given a number of individual and group tasks to complete both pre and post training as individuals to allow us to test performance changes due to the training. Also, randomly assigned control groups from the same organization had their emotional intelligence measured at two points in time. The results of the experimental and control groups are then compared to determine the extent to which the training interventions increase the experimental group's emotional intelligence. Finally, the pre-training and post-training performance of the experimental groups was assessed to examine changes due to the training intervention.

Emotional intelligence was measured using the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP) (Jordan et al., 2002). The WEIP is a self-report measure, which contains 36 items. Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, correlations and Cronbach's Alpha reliabilities for the experimental group WEIP scales. As expected, positive correlations were found between individual Ability to Deal with Own Emotions (Scale 1), Ability to Deal with Others' Emotions (Scale 2), and the total WEIP scale in the experimental group. This was also replicated in the control group. These results mirror previous research using the WEIP (Jordan et al., 2002).

Insert Table 1 about here

Additional data collection and training interventions are currently underway with the experimental group. To date, 24 individuals have completed the training interventions and the WEIP measure both pre and post training. By August 2005 it is expected that the experimental group will comprise of approximately of 200 individuals. Once the sample size does increase, the individual data will be grouped according to the team structure that was utilized during the training. It is expected that we will reach 40 teams by August 2005.

The preliminary results obtained from the 24 individuals within the experimental group are presented in Table 2. As can be seen, there are currently significant changes in the group's Ability to Recognize the Emotions of Others and their Ability to Manage Others Emotional States however the other abilities seem to be stable. Preliminary investigation of the performance changes from pre to post training indicates that process skills have improved following the training. Despite the small sample size, these results are indicative of results that provide a significant contribution to the field. In addition to the experimental group data collection, a control group of 161 respondents completed the WEIP in July 2004 and again in November 2004. Analysis of the control group data showed no significant changes in emotional intelligence of the control group from time 1 to time 2 in any of the WEIP scales or subscales.

Insert Table 2 about here

The results obtained from the additional experimental group data collection and the control group comparison will be fully presented during the symposium. In addition, performance data collected from the experimental group will also be presented. Implications and contributions that this research will create for both theory and practice will also be discussed within our presentation, along with any limitations that have been identified during the research.

Table 1

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for WEIP-6 scales Experimental Group (Time 2 Post-Test) n=24

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3
1. Dealing with Own Emotions	101.17	10.63	0.87		
2. Dealing with Others' Emotions	86.60	10.19	0.49*	0.89	
3. WEIP Total	187.77	19.70	0.85**	0.87**	0.90

Figures on the diagonal are Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients.
 ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 2

Results of paired samples t-test, means, standard deviations for Pre-test, Post-test, and Mean difference for WEIP Scales and Subscales – Experimental Group (n=24)

	Mean Post-test	Mean Pre-test	Mean Diff.	t	ρ
WEIP TOTAL	187.77	182.06	5.70	1.41	0.169
Dealing with Own Emotions	101.17	99.36	1.81	0.84	0.413
Awareness of Own Emotions	28.15	27.04	1.11	1.15	0.261
Ability to Discuss Emotions	23.50	22.41	1.09	1.43	0.167
Use Emotions to Facilitate Thought	49.52	49.91	-0.39	-0.47	0.641
Dealing with Others' Emotions	86.60	82.71	3.89	1.87	0.740
Recognize the Emotions of Others	20.87	19.67	1.20	2.25	0.034*
Detect False Displays in Others	23.78	23.38	0.39	0.44	0.663
Managing Others' Emotions	41.96	39.67	2.29	2.43	0.023*

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Group Emotional Competence and its Link to Group Performance

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Group scholars began systematically documenting the role of emotions and relationships in small groups over half a century ago (e.g., Redl, 1942; Fearing, 1950; Festinger, 1950; Bales, 1950; Homans, 1950). For example, Homans (1950) reasoned that group dynamics are the result of three mutually dependent elements: sentiment, interaction, and activity. It wasn't long before group researchers began focusing on defining rational problem solving and decision-making procedures that could mitigate the disruptive effect of emotions and relationships on effective task accomplishment (e.g., the nominal group technique) (e.g., Janis, 1982; Steiner, 1972).

In the last decade, research across disciplines has revealed that that emotion and relationships are, instead, group resources that often go unrecognized (Coleman, 1988; Fineman, 1993; Putnam, 1993). These scholars have argued that: (1) long term task group effectiveness is difficult to achieve if relational issues are ignored (Keyton, 1999), (2) groups are rife with emotion (Barsade & Gibson, 1998; Fineman, 1993), and (3) emotion is a vital part of normal reasoning, prioritization, and decision-making (Salovey & Bedell, 2000), and is critical to learning and memory (Damasio, 1999). Pertinent to this presentation are findings on showing that individuals differ in their *emotional intelligence*, which is their ability to perceive and understand emotion in themselves and others and in their ability to use emotion to help them to effectively reason, prioritize and make decisions (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

We present a theory that emphasizes the importance of emotion and relationships to group effectiveness. We argue that, like individuals, groups differ in their ability to understand and use emotion as information that can help them reason and act – and that differences in this ability affect a group’s level of effectiveness. We refer to this ability as group emotional competence and define it as: The group’s ability to develop emotionally competent norms that promote understanding, acknowledging, monitoring, and attending to emotion, and to responding constructively to emotional threat or challenge (see Druskat & Wolff, 2001, Wolff & Druskat, 2004). In this presentation, we will discuss our theory of group emotional competence and present the results of three studies examining the link between group emotional competence and team effectiveness.

Emotionally Competent Group Norms

Our theory contributes to group effectiveness theory by clarifying how awareness and management of emotion and team member relationships underlie the team’s ability to engage in effective task-focused processes (e.g., cooperation, effort, boundary management). As shown in Figure 1, we specifically argue that effective task-focused group processes are boosted by constructive group member relationships (i.e., social capital: trust and safety, efficacy, networks), which grow out of emotionally competent group norms (ECG norms, e.g., interpersonal understanding, team self-evaluation, organizational understanding).

 Insert Figure 1 here

Emotionally competent group norms are rules and expectations that have beneficial emotional consequences through their positive influence on the development of group emotional competence and social capital (see Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). To define specific ECG norms we drew from two relevant theories. The first is the cognitive appraisal theory of emotion, which

delineates the process through which emotion influences behavior (referred to as the emotional process) (Lazarus, 1991). This emotional process has two phases: (1) awareness and interpretation of the emotion and (2) regulation of one's behavioral reaction to the emotion. This leads us to propose that ECG norms must involve creating awareness of emotion and regulation of one's behavioral reaction to emotion. The second theory we used to define our ECG norms is the complex systems theory of small group dynamics, which suggests that norms within groups focus at multiple levels including the individual member-level, the group-level, and the cross-boundary level because groups are open systems (Arrow, McGrath, & Berdahl, 2000).

These two theories led us to six ECG norms. Figure 2 shows how each norm focuses on (1) awareness of emotion or (2) response to emotion --at each of three levels: (a) individual (awareness: *interpersonal understanding*, regulation: *confronting members who break norms*), (b) group (awareness: *team self-evaluation*, regulation: *proactive problem solving*), or (c) cross-boundary (awareness: *organizational awareness*, regulation: *building external relationships*).

 Insert Figure 2 here

Social Capital

As discussed above, we propose that these ECG norms are linked to group effectiveness through their positive influence on the development of social capital. Social capital represents the value added by the structure and quality of social relationship. Nahapiet and Goshal (1998) organize the elements of social capital into three dimensions: (1) structural, (2), relational, and (3) cognitive. The structural dimension represents networks of connections; for example, network ties and the configuration of those ties. The relational dimension represents factors related to the quality of relationships (e.g., group psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999),

defined as the degree to which the social climate in the group is conducive to interpersonal risk). The cognitive dimension refers to resources providing shared interpretations and systems of meaning (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), e.g., group efficacy, defined as the collective belief that a group can be effective (Lindsley, Brass, & Thomas, 1995). Two features are common across all three dimensions: (1) each constitutes an aspect of the social structure and (2) each facilitates interactions that lead to desirable outcomes (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

Testing our Theory

We will present the results of three studies that have each tested aspects of our theory with different populations. The first study was conducted using 382 full-time MBA students, comprising 48 groups. This study tested the relationship between team effectiveness and the six ECG norms discussed above. The norms were measured with a questionnaire we developed, piloted, and revised with two previous classes of MBA students. For this and all the studies we report, we aggregated individually completed questions to the group level because our theory and intra-class correlations ($p < .05$) indicated it was appropriate to do so, and items were all worded at the group-level. Team effectiveness was rated by the instructor one month after the norm data was collected and again six months after the norm data was collected.

The results revealed that all ECG norms except confronting members who break norms were correlated with team effectiveness ratings at Time 1 (one month after the norm measurements were taken). Correlations between ECG norms and team effectiveness ratings ranged from .36 for team self-evaluation to .56 for organizational awareness. Correlations between ECG norms and team effectiveness ratings at Time 2 (six months after the norm measurements were taken) showed similar results except that team self-evaluation was no longer significantly correlated with performance at Time 2.

In the second study we examined the influence of ECG norms in 119 teams in six organizations located in the Midwestern United States, including four Fortune 1000 firms. The sample represented diverse industries including industrial and consumer goods manufacturers, financial services, transportation, and product design and development. The average number of teams per organization was 20.7 with a range of 8-40. Teams had a mean of 11.95 team members (Range = 4-29; Median = 8).

In this study, we examined the second step of our theory. That is, we examined whether group social capital would mediate the relationship between the ECG norms and team effectiveness. Specifically, we examined a structural equation model that included 5 ECG norms (the same as study 1, but building relationships was not included) leading to a latent variable of social capital, that predicts the observed social capital components (trust/safety, group efficacy, and networks) and team effectiveness. The norms were measured using the same scales used in Study 1 and team effectiveness was measured using two measures: 1) the subjective performance rating scale used in Study 1 was completed by team managers two levels above the teams, and 2) objective performance scores (e.g., percentages of team goals met). The model was a good fit. All ECG norms predicted social capital, except confronting members who break norms had a negative relation to social capital. Social capital predicted team effectiveness. The squared multiple correlation for performance was .25, indicating that a quarter of the variance in performance was explained by the model.

We are still analyzing results from our third study which was conducted with members of cross-functional drug development teams at a *Fortune 100* Pharmaceutical company. The goal of this study was to compare the relevance of our ECG Norms to social capital, task processes and team effectiveness and to compare the variance accounted for by our ECG Norms compared to

other types of group norms and characteristics (e.g., goal setting, clear roles and responsibilities), and to examine the influence of team leadership on the development of ECG Norms. Methods in this study involved on-line surveys completed by 80% of the members of 45 teams (a 75% response rate), and 57 critical incident interviews lasting 90-120 minutes with a sub-sample of team members and team leaders. The results of this study will be presented at the symposium.

Conclusion

In sum, in our presentation we argue that groups take on norms and characteristics that influence member behavior. Thus, to influence group performance, emotional intelligence must be manifest at the group level through what we refer to as group emotional competence. We will present the results of three studies that support our theory.

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Figure 1: A Simplified Model of How Group Emotional Competence Leads to Group Effectiveness

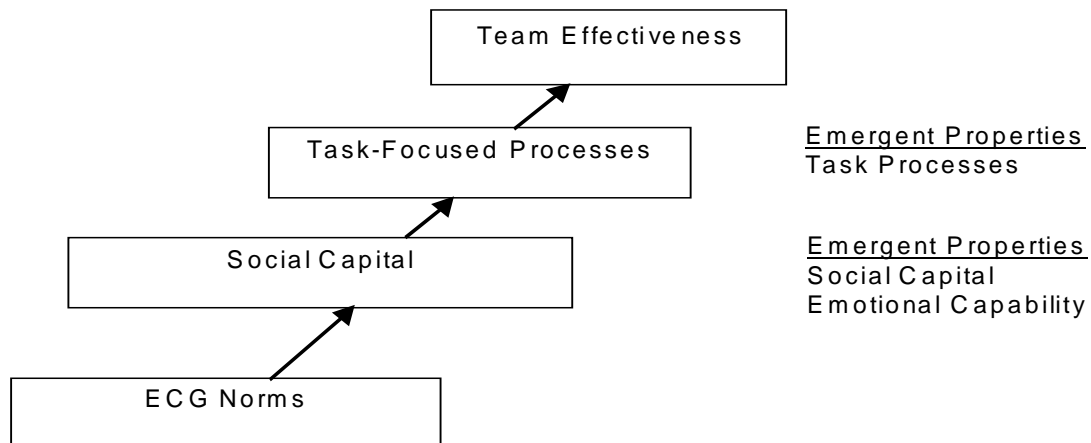
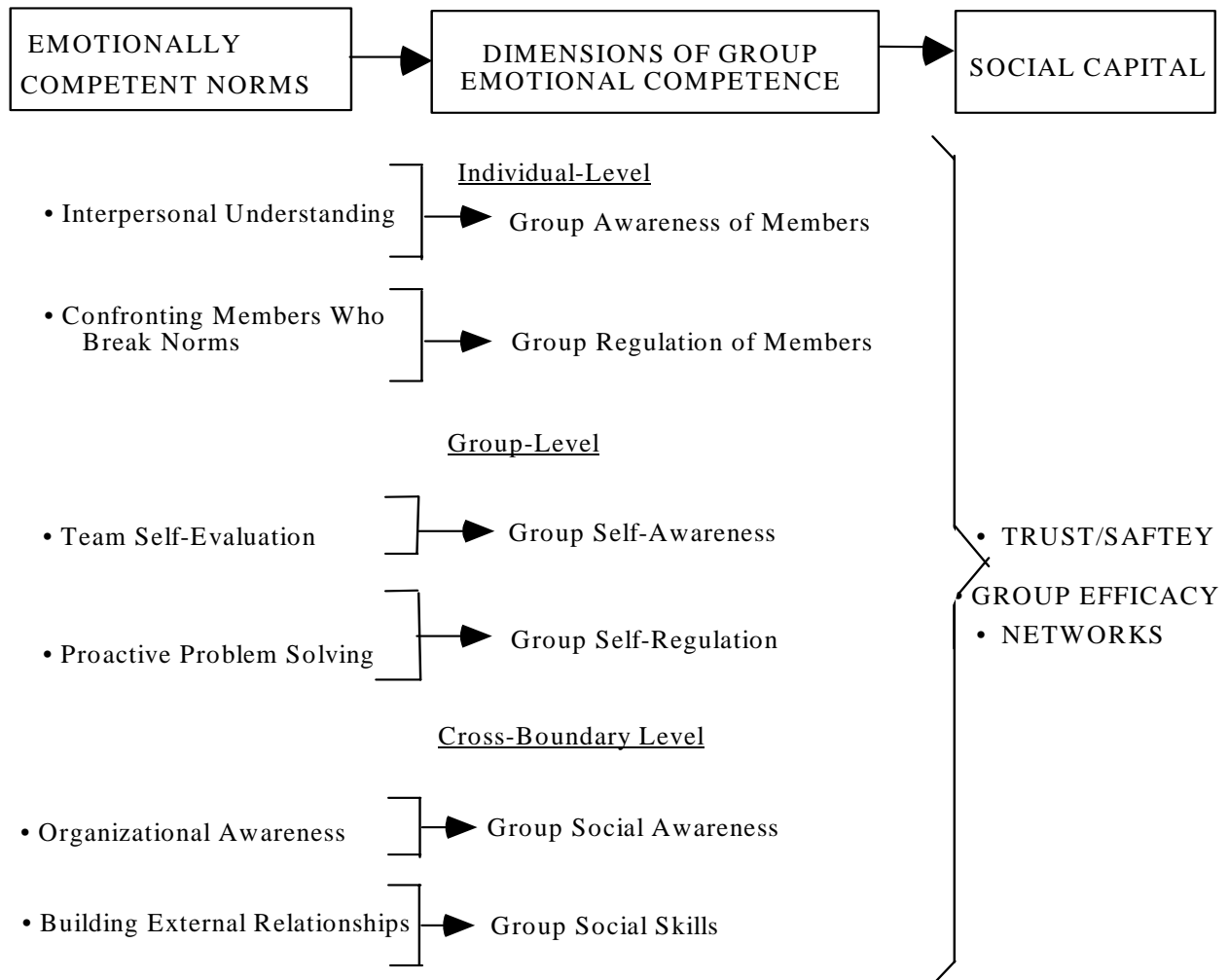


FIGURE 2: Dimensions of Group Emotional Competence



About the “I” in the EI Construct: A More Social Approach to Intelligence and its Performance Implications

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The emotional intelligence approach investigates how people can use their emotional resources effectively from the theoretical perspective of intelligence; our presentation complements emotional intelligence research by studying the effective use of emotional resources from the theoretical perspective of the self. An emotional intelligence perspective entails studying how people can respond more appropriately to their social context when they apply abstract reasoning to their emotions; when they “think about feeling” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The self-perspective studies how emotions work together with cognition and motivation to help the person act appropriately or *self-regulate* (Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1990; Higgins, 1996a). It suggests that responding effectively is not necessarily a matter of managing emotions through abstract thought – an “outside-in” process in that it is self-reflexive or about the self – but a matter of facilitating the natural functioning of the self-system – an “inside-out” process. This inside-out approach we advocate involves clearing away a reflexive preoccupation with the self to re-orient emotion, cognition, and motivation towards the social situation (Michel & Jehn, 2003).

A Self-Based Perspective

Emotions are part of an abstract standpoint the individual takes towards the social context to assess consequences for the self (cf., Ben-Ze’ev, 2000; Nussbaum, 2001). The self refers to abstract-cognitive knowledge that an individual stores about his or her relation to the social context (Andersen, Resnick, & Chen, 1997; Higgins, 1996b). On the basis of this knowledge,

the individual *regulates* interactions to promote self-relevant goals. Emotional and cognitive processes participate in this self-regulation through homeostatic mechanisms that compare the current situations to the self-relevant goals (e.g., Carver & Scheier, 1990, 1981; Higgins, 1989b). Unpleasant emotions, for example, inform the individual of discrepancies between the current situation and self-relevant goals and compel the person to eliminate this discrepancy. Whenever people experience emotion, they also experience other processes of the self, including personal goals (*motivation*) and *cognitive* processes that monitor the context in relation to these goals. Therefore, when emotions are activated – that is, when people experience emotions – the entire self with its cognitive and motivational processes is activated. With “activation” we mean that these concepts and processes are made ready for use; they then mediate the individual’s interactions with the social context (Andersen & Berk, 1998; McCall & Simmons, 1978).

We present data from a two year ethnographic study of two Wall Street investment banks which indicates that the activation of the self can decrease social intelligence because it interferes with the processing of relevant situational information. In addition, our argument relates to emotional intelligence because emotional intelligence is itself an abstract reasoning process (cf., Mayer & Salovey, 2002) that distracts the individual from unique aspects of the social situation and, therefore, potentially diminishes the person’s ability to act effectively. Emotional intelligence also is an operation that the person performs on a self-process – namely emotions – and that is, therefore, likely to activate the self. Bargh, Bond, Lombardi, and Tota (1986) have demonstrated that different sources that influence the activation of the self and its concept have independent effects (cf., Andersen et al., 1995). We propose that emotional intelligence is an independent source of activating the self – in the form of “thinking about feeling” – and, therefore, potentially an additional cause of distortions and distractions. We believe that

researchers should study the undisputed positive effects of emotional intelligence together with these unintended negative effects to better predict individual and group performance consequences.

Committed to an abstract-cognitive approach to thinking, the social psychological literature, including EI research, currently has no framework for how people can regulate themselves without constant reference to an abstract self-concept and without the abstract-cognitive processing of information (Berkowitz & Devine, 1995). We inductively develop such a framework, which affords explicit comparison between more and less abstract ways of self-regulation and their differential consequences for social intelligence. Consistent with other research on intelligence, we define social intelligence as effective adaptation. In contrast to this other research, we do not include “abstract reasoning” as part of our definition of intelligence but as an independent variable. We compare the effectiveness of a mode of relating that places a *primacy* on abstract reasoning, including “thinking about feeling”, to a mode of relating that places a primacy on concrete perception, which we refer to as *direct involvement*. Cognitive social psychology, including the EI approach, only studies ways of relating that place a primacy on abstract cognition. In these ways people approach the social context with abstract concepts (Fiske & Taylor, 1991), such as the abstract-cognitive aspects of emotion (Ben-Ze’ev, 2000).

Our data shows that when people approached the context in these relatively abstract ways, individual and group social intelligence suffered because the concepts that the individuals supplied to the situation were often not relevant. In contrast, we show that the people who exhibited direct involvement performed better because they first used concrete-perceptual processes and then, if at all, drew on the relevant abstract concepts. Consequently, their behavior was directed relatively more by the concrete constraints of the objective social situation (versus

by their psychological situation). This observation provides the basis for what we argue is a more social approach to social intelligence. It is more social in that it takes account of how the social context can effectively substitute for a person's mind in accomplishing cognitive activity. We argue that when people are aware of how social resources can complement mental resources they harness both types of resources more effectively. Therefore, individual performance and group performance benefit. Our self-based perspective proposes that practitioners can enhance social intelligence when they avoid the activation of the self and, thereby, remove its mediating influence in social interactions. But in contrast to this strategy that we recommend, we argue that EI adds even more structure to this abstract self-concept – the person's "I" – in the form of an abstract reasoning process that monitors emotions – the "I" in the EI construct. The ambiguous referent of the "I" in our title alludes to the intimate but neglected connection between these two "I's" ("i"ntelligence and the self's "I") and to the obfuscation that this connection can cause.

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