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New Perspectives on Local Government Leadership

# Managing Emotional Intelligence in U.S. Cities: A Study of Social Skills among Public Managers

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*This study assesses perceptions of managerial emotional intelligence in local government, as well as the practices and polices affecting it. Though few cities offer training programs for managers that are called "emotional intelligence," many cities engage in activities that target or address EI skills. This study finds improvement opportunities for managers to become better attuned to the feelings of others and themselves, to better know their own strengths and weaknesses, to better deal with their negative emotions and increase their adaptability, and to improve their communication and relationship skills. Feedback and mentoring processes are directly associated with increased perceptions of EI, while other practices such as training, selection and policy development are only indirectly associated with perceptions of EI. This study contributes to the knowledge base by increasing awareness about managerial EI skills, and providing specific examples of practices to further managerial EI.*

Emotions are a quintessential part of the human condition, and as such, they are relevant to the work of public managers; emotions affect managerial judgment, interpersonal relationships, and job performance (Goleman 1995, 1998b; Hughes 2005; Huy 1999). When managers and others feel accepted and understood, for example, commitment and enthusiasm increase in ways that promote performance (Goldsmith and Eggers 2004; Light 2005; Sosik and Megerian 1999). Emotions commonly arise in relating to others and dealing with work, and organizational practices and policies, many related to human resource (HR) management, have a role to play in norming and shaping how managers deal with situations that involve emotions. At issue is not only the selection of managers with adequate "people skills" (often a focus for these abilities) but also the development of these skills over time. Acknowledging the place of emotional content in administrative scholarship and practice is not new, but its significance has often been relegated to secondary status, if not ignored; recent writings (e.g., Goleman 2006), as well as events relating to workplace violence (e.g., post office and school shootings), have brought this aspect back to the fore.[1]

The purpose of this study is to examine how organizational policies and practices affect the emotional skills of managers in public organizations. This article presents a new theoretical framework for these relationships and, based on a national survey of senior managers in cities with populations over 50,000 in the United States, this study provides an empirical assessment of these strategies and policies, as well as an assessment of the perceived emotional skills of managers. Study methods and caveats are discussed in the methods section.

This study contributes to the knowledge base and practice by raising awareness about the importance of managerial emotional skills and by providing a new, broader understanding of how existing policies and practices shape the emotional abilities of managers. To date, many studies have focused narrowly on the impact of disparate emotional intelligence (EI) training programs. By contrast, this study posits that managerial emotional competencies are affected by a broad range of organizational policies and practices, such as recruitment, appraisal, and feedback processes, that provide opportunities for learning and skill development. Indeed, existing practices and policies have long targeted "people skills," though not always in the detail suggested by the EI literature. A broader perspective is also suggested by studies showing that the effectiveness of training is often indirect, supporting leadership initiatives and improving organizational practices such as recruitment and appraisal (Fox and Spector 2000; Laabs 1999; West and Berman 2004). This research further contributes to the knowledge base by providing an assessment of managerial emotional intelligence and specific examples of practices that increase managerial EI.

## Framework

Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to recognize emotions in oneself and others and to use this knowledge for improved self-management and relationships with others (Goleman 1995). Though definitions of EI vary, most authors define EI as a

multifaceted concept involving a broad range of skills and behaviors. At the heart of EI is a process of recognizing and bringing into awareness (consciousness) emotions that are experienced by oneself and others and then using this awareness (information) skillfully (indeed, intelligently) in subsequent decision making and action.[2] Typically, EI skills and behaviors involve the domains of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Cherniss and Goleman 2001; Hood and Lodge 2004; Urch Druskat and Wolff 2001).[3] Though not limited to the workplace, EI is relevant to workplace settings.

These EI skill domains extend the generally understood concept of "people skills," which typically include active listening, acknowledging others, and mindful speaking (Goleman 2001, 2006). Self-awareness, a cornerstone of EI, is the ability to recognize one's emotions and to have a strong sense of one's tendencies and abilities.[4] Specifically, self-awareness involves the ability to identify and express one's emotions and to know that one's tendencies are affected by emotions ("I often feel energized when . . ."). Self-awareness requires having a broad knowledge and awareness of emotions. Being attuned to one's feelings can also be a source of feedback that helps people become better aware of their strengths, weaknesses, and values; this, in turn, is associated with self-confidence (Gowing 2001; Jacobs 2001; Macaleer and Shannon 2002). Self-management is broadly defined as the ability to accomplish while working through one's emotions and perceptions as they arise and to maintain one's values (such as integrity) and standards in the process. Self-management includes the ability to keep disruptive emotions in check, as well as to think clearly under trying conditions, to be flexible and adaptable (rather than rigid) in one's responses, and to take tough stands, however unpopular (Caudron 1999; Dearborn 2002; Smigla and Pastoria 2000).

Social awareness is the ability to be aware of others' needs and feelings (i.e., to "read" others) and to anticipate and address others' needs. This includes verbalizing emotions that others are experiencing, showing sensitivity to and consideration for the perspectives of others (Cooper 1997; Goleman 1998a), and being attuned to others' feelings. Social awareness is fundamental to creating environments in which diverse people can thrive. Finally, relationship management is the ability to build bonds of alignment, appreciation, and support. Relationship management involves effective communication, teamwork, and conflict management skills, as well as the ability to help people work toward common objectives (Macaleer and Shannon 2002). These are often among key management skills and activities. The foregoing discussion highlights various behaviors and skills that are often mentioned in the literature and are used further on for assessment and measurement.

The concept of emotional intelligence acknowledges that although emotions are non-cognitive in nature, people can learn to recognize what they feel. People can have rational dialogue about their own feelings and those of others, and they can develop action plans that consider these. Indeed, studies show that EI increases with age (e.g., Bar-on, 2005) as a result of learning. EI workplace training programs show that managers can improve their EI skills (Cherniss and Goleman 2001; Sala 2000), for example, by recognizing a broader range of emotions in themselves and others and by distinguishing sincere from false smiles (Ekman 2004).[5] People vary in their ability to learn these skills, a fact that may reflect personality or predispositions.[6] Most research assesses EI skills among managers in the private sector (e.g., Urch Druskat, Sala, and Mount 2005). Carmeli (2003) has published one of few studies examining EI skills among public managers. He finds in a sample of chief financial officers in Israel that EI skills augment favorable outcomes and attitudes.[7] Matheson's (1999) study of upward mobility in the Australian public service also shows the relevance of EI-related competencies.[8]

The notion that managers can learn EI skills suggests that organizations can adapt strategies and policies to help them do so. Indeed, organizations have long aimed to ensure the emotional skills of their managers through selection and appraisal processes and informal feedback that managers receive. Thus, increasing managerial EI does not necessarily imply that organizations need new mechanisms for doing so. Rather, the topic of emotional intelligence needs to be mainstreamed within existing practices and knowledge. A broad-based framework is proposed, with hypotheses that build on existing practices and policies.

***Selection and promotion.*** Choosing the right person for the job has often been hailed as critical to performance (e.g., Hays and Sowa 2005). People are sensitive to the signals of selection criteria, and organizations can hope to further managerial EI skills by making them a criterion in hiring and promotion; it is quite common to demand demonstrated evidence of getting along with others and of leading work teams and developing networks. Because these abilities are difficult to gauge through job interviews alone—some people are highly skilled at articulation and self-promotion (Fox and Spector 2000; Jordan, Ashton-James, and Ashkanasy 2006)—it is commonly recommended that former or existing coworkers and supervisors also be interviewed about these aspects of job candidates (Fernandez-Araoz 2001). Selection processes can also obtain detailed information about people skills by examining employee performance appraisals, by assessing candidates' self-knowledge and

emotional literacy (i.e., recognizing emotions in themselves and others), and by asking questions or engaging in role-playing that demonstrates EI under trying circumstances (Higgs and Aitken 2003; Macaleer and Shannon 2002; Wong and Law 2002). The following hypothesis is formulated:

> **$H_1$:** Selection and promotion processes that involve self-knowledge and people skills increase managerial EI.

***Feedback, mentoring and modeling.*** Feedback and mentoring can increase accurate awareness about one's EI skills (Caudron 1999; Jacobs 2001; Tucker et al. 2000). Self-perceptions are often quite different from those made by others, and feedback helps people become aware of these differences, thereby strengthening skills in each of the EI domains. Social skills are often a focus of such feedback (providing behavioral information), and organizations can require top managers, other managers, or employees to provide it, sometimes as part of a 360-degree feedback process (Jacobs 2001). Asking managers to provide feedback to employees about their social skills may sharpen awareness of managers' own EI skills, too. In some organizations, the practice of managers counseling each other, thus providing feedback, is common. Mentoring also furthers EI skills by allowing managers to reflect and discuss their actions in situations that require a high degree of judgment, as "people issues" usually do. Finally, expecting managers to model appropriate behavior for employees increases awareness of EI skills, and top managers who do so may become models for lower-level managers (Albrecht 2005; Macaleer and Shannon 2002). Hence,

Self-perceptions are often quite different from those made by others, and feedback helps people become aware of these differences, thereby strengthening skills in each of the EI domains.

> **$H_2$:** Feedback, mentoring, and modeling practices increase managerial EI.

***Codes and standards.*** Senior managers commonly use policy statements as tools for strengthening expectations and legitimating their efforts (Walton 2000); many organizations now have a code of conduct or other statement of social norms and appropriate conduct. Such statements, in and of themselves, are not assumed to affect behavior or EI skills to any great degree; rather, they can help broaden and deepen dialogue about the work culture (Berman and West 2003b), efforts to increase EI skills, and ways in which these skills are part of selection and feedback processes. Codes and standards also support the development of EI by having a deterrent effect on inappropriate behavior and by sending cautionary signals to those whose actions are noncompliant. Thus, codes and policies, in conjunction with other efforts, can be a strategy in support of EI. Hence,

> **$H_3$:** Adopting a code of conduct increases managerial EI.

***Training and development.*** Training has long been used to set standards for behavior and to cultivate competencies for those seeking managerial and leadership positions (Van Wart, Cayer and Cook 1993). A variety of trainings are being offered that target EI (Caudron 1999), including emotional literacy (Cooper 1997). Evaluations show that participants increase their self-reported familiarity and competency in EI skill sets, though the long-term impacts are still unknown (e.g., Schmit 2006). However, other existing training topics, such as teamwork, change management, and anger management, also address EI competencies, as do personality assessments (e.g., Myers-Briggs). Thus, a broad range of training can be considered. Training is likely not only to affect managerial behaviors in dealing with others but also to influence feedback, recruitment, and other practices. For example, EI training can have a positive impact on shaping how recruitment and feedback occur, emphasizing elements of people skills and increasing discussion about them. Hence,

> **$H_4$:** Training that involves people skills increases managerial EI.

It is obvious that the impact of the foregoing practices on managerial EI skills will be larger when these practices occur in tandem and buttress one another; for example, recruitment is likely to have larger impact on managerial EI when training and feedback are also present. This study examines the impact of the these practices on managerial EI, considering a variety of direct and indirect effects.

## Methods

In 2006, a mail survey of city managers and chief administrative officers (CAOs) was undertaken in all 662 U.S. cities with populations over 50,000 (ICMA 2005). This was followed up by in-depth telephone interviews through spring 2007. The mail survey involved a pilot survey and three rounds of mailings. This extensive survey of 275 items resulted in 212 completed responses, for a response rate of 32.5 percent. This is a lower rate than the range of response rates reported in the literature (e.g., Hays and Kearney 2001), but still acceptable. We examine for possible response bias later.

Among respondents, 55.2 percent of surveys were completed by the addressee (city manager or CAO, as

appropriate). Among the remainder, about half were completed by an assistant city manager, and the other half by respondents with such titles as city clerk, director of human resources, director of administrative services, or chief of staff.[9] On average, respondents had worked 22.5 years in government and 11.7 years in their present jurisdiction. A total of 96.4 percent and 89.7 percent state that they are familiar or very familiar with workplace relations and managerial performance, respectively, in their jurisdiction. Reflecting this diversity and experience, the sample is referred to as "senior managers."

Validity is an important study concern. Survey items include policies, strategies, and actions that are likely to be familiar to respondents as a result of their job duties. Items regarding respondents' perceptions of other managers' EI skills are stated in ways that are either directly observable to them or about which they would likely form an opinion from their direct observation. We avoid asking about other managers' internal, psychological processes. Jargon is avoided in survey items, except where the purpose is to learn whether activities are referred to by such terms. Other surveys and assessment instruments were consulted and adapted. Triangulation is used to assess construct validity,[10] and sample bias is examined by comparing the responses of addressees (city managers and CAOs) with those of other respondents. While a few differences exist, they are relatively minor and do not significantly affect our results. This study develops four index measures of organizational strategies (items shown in tables 1 and 2) and four index measures of perceived managerial EI (table 3). The latter are combined in an aggregate index of perceived managerial EI, which is used to test the foregoing hypotheses.

Finally, all studies have caveats. We assess the opinions of top managers rather than those of lower-level managers, employees, or community leaders, who may have different views about the EI skills of public managers. Top managers are selected because they often are well informed about the training and other efforts of managers reporting to them and because their views influence organizational policies. Second, our measures of emotional skills and skill development among managers are necessarily subjective, as no "hard," objective data exist about the topics under discussion. Third, despite considerable precautions to identify and minimize measurement errors and reporting biases (see note 10), no subjective data are free from the possibility of distortion and measurement error. Measurement imperfections lie in the nature of the study phenomenon—emotions—as they do in the human and organizational experience with them.[11]

## Results

### *Practices and Policies*

***Selection and promotion.*** Table 1, part A, shows that more than two-thirds of respondents, 71.4 percent, agree or strongly agree—hereafter, "agree

**Table 1** Strategies to Promote Emotional Intelligence

| | Agree/Strongly Agree | Somewhat Agree | Disagree[1] | Don't Know |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *A. Through selection and promotion* | | | | |
| *"In our jurisdiction, when we hire or promote managers . . ."* | | | | |
| We ask candidates how they handle difficult teamwork situations ..... | 76.7 | 13.8 | 3.8 | 4.8 % |
| We make people skills a criterion in hiring and promotion ..... | 71.4 | 21.4 | 3.9 | 3.3 |
| We ask managers how they inspire and motivate others ..... | 66.2 | 22.4 | 7.2 | 4.3 |
| We ask managers how they know their own strengths and weaknesses | 66.0 | 18.7 | 8.7 | 6.7 |
| We ask candidates how they assess others' strengths and weaknesses | 51.9 | 24.3 | 16.2 | 7.6 |
| We ask candidates how they manage others' hostile emotions ..... | 42.9 | 34.3 | 12.9 | 10.0 |
| We interview former coworkers to assess candidates' people skills ..... | 30.0 | 26.2 | 29.1 | 14.8 |
| We ask candidates how they manage their own negative emotions such as anger or jealousy ..... | 13.9 | 23.4 | 47.9 | 14.8 |
| *B. Through feedback, mentoring, and modeling* | | | | |
| *"In our jurisdiction, managers . . ."* | | | | |
| Are aware that they model socially appropriate behaviors ..... | 68.6 | 21.4 | 5.7 | 4.3 |
| Talk with coworkers about the organization's work culture ..... | 56.2 | 30.5 | 7.7 | 5.7 |
| Act as mentors to others in the organization ..... | 50.5 | 31.4 | 10.0 | 7.6 |
| Counsel each other in the organization ..... | 45.2 | 35.7 | 9.5 | 9.5 |
| Talk about the importance of social skills in the workplace ..... | 41.9 | 35.7 | 20.0 | 11.0 |
| Get detailed feedback about their social skills from top managers ..... | 28.6 | 31.4 | 23.3 | 16.7 |
| Give employees detailed feedback about their social skills ..... | 24.0 | 43.8 | 18.3 | 13.9 |
| Get detailed feedback about their social skills from other managers ..... | 19.0 | 31.4 | 28.2 | 21.4 |
| Are encouraged to find a mentor outside the organization ..... | 12.4 | 21.4 | 44.8 | 21.4 |
| Get detailed feedback about their social skills from employees ..... | 11.4 | 32.4 | 32.4 | 23.8 |
| *C. Through formal codes and standards* | | | | |
| We have a code of conduct for the city ..... | 67.0 | 17.7 | 13.4 | 1.9 |
| We have developed standards of civility and social norms for staff ..... | 47.1 | 23.6 | 21.7 | 7.7 |

1. Includes "disagree somewhat," "disagree," and "strongly disagree" categories.Cronbach's alpha scores of index variables are 0.85 (feedback, modeling, and mentoring),0.83 (hiring and promotion), and 0.74 (codes and standards).

**Table 2** Training and Development to Promote Emotional Intelligence

| | Taken by at least half of managers[1] | Training exceeds four hours[2] |
|---|---|---|
| | (1) | (2) |
| *Which of the following training has your organization provided for managers in the last 24 months?*[3] | | |
| Teamwork ….. | 61.8 % | 37.3 % |
| Ethics ….. | 60.0 | 22.0 |
| Assessment of leadership skills ….. | 39.7 | 22.6 |
| Being a change catalyst ….. | 32.7 | 11.6 |
| Personality assessment (e.g., Myers-Briggs) ….. | 30.2 | 11.6 |
| Managing emotions in the workplace ….. | 24.5 | 10.6 |
| Emotional intelligence ….. | 17.5 | 7.0 |
| Psychological or interpersonal contracts ….. | 16.8 | 3.6 |
| Anger management ….. | 16.2 | 11.2 |
| Dealing with pathological behaviors ….. | 15.7 | 4.5 |
| Patterns of self-talk and self-image ….. | 14.7 | 4.6 |
| Empathy development ….. | 13.6 | 3.5 |

1. Scale: 1 = taken by none or almost no managers; 2 = taken by some or a few managers; 3 = taken by about half of the managers, 4 = taken by most managers, 5 = taken by all or almost all managers. Column shows scores 3, 4, and 5. Cronbach alpha score of index variable is 0.87.
2. Among jurisdictions offering such training. Cronbach's alpha scores of index variable is 0.87.
3. Note: Some topics may be addressed as part of other training, and should be identified.

(SA/A)"—that their jurisdiction makes people skills a criterion in hiring and promoting managers. Most commonly, 76.7 percent agree (SA/A) that they also ask managerial candidates how they handle difficult teamwork situations, and 66.2 percent agree (SA/A) that they ask managers how they inspire and motivate others. Part A also shows that probing, in-depth questions are used; 51.9 percent agree (SA/A) that they ask candidates how they assess others' strengths and weaknesses, and 42.9 percent ask how they manage others' hostile emotions. Some questions concern self-awareness and self-management; 66.0 percent agree (SA/A) that they ask managerial candidates how they know their own strengths and weaknesses, though only 13.9 percent agree (SA/A) that they ask managerial candidates how they manage their own negative emotions such as anger or jealousy, which concerns the application of this knowledge.

**Table 3** Perceptions of Emotional Intelligence

| | Agree/Strongly Agree | Somewhat Agree | Disagree | Don't Know |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *"Managers and supervisors who report to me…"* | | | | |
| *A. Self-awareness* | | | | |
| Are able to express their feelings accurately….. | 80.3 | 12.9 | 3.9 | 2.8 % |
| Recognize the impact of their feelings on their actions….. | 55.1 | 33.7 | 5.0 | 6.2 |
| Are clear about their personal, guiding values….. | 54.5 | 30.3 | 6.7 | 8.4 |
| Know their strengths and limitations with certainty….. | 38.2 | 44.9 | 10.1 | 6.7 |
| Are attuned to their feelings….. | 28.7 | 49.4 | 11.2 | 10.7 |
| *B. Self-management* | | | | |
| Take tough stands, even when unpopular….. | 71.9 | 17.4 | 8.4 | 2.2 |
| Think clearly under pressure….. | 68.5 | 24.7 | 4.5 | 2.2 |
| Stay composed even under trying conditions….. | 68.0 | 25.8 | 5.0 | 1.1 |
| Are flexible and quick to adapt….. | 55.9 | 32.8 | 8.0 | 3.4 |
| Are able to deal with their negative emotions (e.g., anger)….. | 54.8 | 31.1 | 6.2 | 7.9 |
| *C. Social awareness* | | | | |
| Create an environment in which diverse people can thrive….. | 61.8 | 30.3 | 5.7 | 2.2 |
| Show sensitivity to the perspectives and feelings of others….. | 60.7 | 32.0 | 3.4 | 3.9 |
| Verbalize what is occurring in their teams….. | 57.9 | 32.0 | 5.7 | 4.5 |
| Understand what other departments or organizations need….. | 55.1 | 34.3 | 6.8 | 3.9 |
| Are attuned to the feelings of others….. | 43.3 | 43.8 | 3.9 | 9.0 |
| *D. Relationship management* | | | | |
| Are effective in communicating….. | 71.3 | 20.8 | 5.0 | 2.8 |
| Are skilled at teamwork….. | 65.7 | 27.0 | 4.6 | 2.8 |
| Know how to get people to produce results….. | 60.7 | 26.4 | 7.3 | 5.6 |
| Are able to get commitment for new goals and visions….. | 58.4 | 30.3 | 8.5 | 2.8 |
| Keep people in the loop….. | 47.2 | 43.3 | 6.6 | 3.9 |
| Are skilled at conflict management….. | 42.1 | 42.7 | 11.3 | 3.9 |

1. Includes: "don't know," "disagree somewhat," "disagree," and "strongly disagree" categories. Cronbach's alpha scores of index variables are 0.81 (self-awareness), 0.86 (self-management), 0.88 (social awareness), and .91 (relationship management).

Further analysis of these results shows that 50.4 percent agree (SA/A) that their jurisdiction addresses at least four of these items, and 27.3 percent address only two or fewer items; hence, the extent to which jurisdictions emphasize the foregoing skills in their selection process varies greatly. Many interviewees comment that assessing people skills is an important but difficult task: "You can always find people with hard skills, but soft skills are much more difficult for me." Many managers state difficulties in getting reliable information: "The problem is how to be sure you are hiring someone with people skills, and that you are using valid and reliable screening methods." Though a few interviewees deny the possibility of assessing people skills (e.g., "I am not sure I am qualified to assess 'people skills.' I am not a psychologist. People need to behave professionally"), many respondents report using additional "informal" approaches, sometimes along with interviewing:

> I assess interpersonal skills in interviews by observing the candidate. The questions I ask might be technical, but they often provide interpersonal cues, as well. I might ask, "What is the most difficult management issue you have faced, and what did you do?" I closely observe their body language and choice of words. Their response might provide clues about how they manage, their sincerity and tendency to engage in CYA behavior. I also observe them in different settings—panel interview, dinner, or cocktail party and see how they relate to ideas and people.

Beyond this, HR staff is often seen as useful in providing managers with job-related, behaviorally anchored interview questions and sometimes training in their use. In Kent, Washington, specific questions are used to get at indicators such as written and oral communication skills (e.g., "Describe a situation in which you were able to use persuasion to successfully convince someone to see things your way even though the two of you had conflicting interests") or the willingness to receive feedback (e.g., "Please give me a specific example of the most useful criticism you ever received. What did you do with that criticism?"). Some cities also use work samples, asking managerial candidates to respond orally and in writing, thereby revealing communication skills and managerial judgment. In another Washington city, role-playing is used:

> Role plays help in identifying poor EI-related skills, such as self control and anger management. For example, we had one candidate for the CAO position who was asked to role play in an one-on-one interview. He did not perform well. When he left the role play he went to another interview where he commented on his role-playing counterpart, "Wow, she sure was a b—." His inability to handle conflict, control his emotions, and his poor judgment were revealed in this way.

Assessment centers are primarily used for police and fire positions in the cities where interviews were conducted. These tests often involve screening, sometimes with videotaped role-playing, for performance knowledge, sensitivity, and communication and supervision abilities, for both employees and managers. While no interviewee reported that his or her city assesses "emotional intelligence," clearly these items include EI-aspects of communication, social awareness, and self-control. We also asked about the use of personality tests, which typically include EI elements and have shown incremental validity for predicting managerial on-the-job performance when combined with cognitive ability tests (e.g., Love and DeArmond 2007). Some interviewees are reluctant to use personality tests, citing legal concerns, but others note, as one interviewee did, "Legally, an employer can use any criteria it wishes, job related or not job related, so long as the criteria is applied equally and does not have a disparate impact on any protected group. If the criteria have disparate impact, the employer must prove it is job related through a test validation process." The literature includes examples in which assessment centers are used for screening managers outside of police and fire, too (Joiner 2002).

Perhaps surprisingly, only 30.0 percent agree (SA/A) that they interview former coworkers to assess candidates' people skills. This is rather low in light of the commonly held belief that such interviews produce more reliable information than that provided by candidates themselves. Many interviewees report problems, such as, "Contacting references is problematic because candidates only include those names on the list of people who will say good things about them; we seldom receive negative assessments." Some interviewees report that HR staff members help by training managers for this situation and by providing them with questions that may stoke discussion and draw out useful details, such as, "Have you seen the candidate display awareness for the feelings and needs of others? Do you think (s)he distinguishes well between the need for leadership and interpersonal sensitivity?" Another possible explanation for the low use of reference checks may be that managerial candidates are often promoted from within, and hence such information is already available to selection committees.

***Feedback, mentoring, and modeling.*** Table 1, part B shows the use of feedback, mentoring, and modeling practices. Among respondents, 68.6 percent agree (SA/A) that managers are aware that they should model socially appropriate behavior, and 41.9 percent agree (SA/A) that managers talk about the importance of social skills in their organizations. Many interviewees note the importance of modeling conduct: "What people see is what they do."[12] Part B also shows that in a minority of organizations, managers give and receive feedback about social skills; 24.0 percent of

respondents agree (SA/A) that managers give employees detailed feedback about their social skills, and 28.6 percent, 19.0 percent, and 11.4 percent agree (SA/A) that they get such feedback from top managers, other managers, or employees, respectively. Further analysis shows that less than one-third, 31.1 percent, of managers receive feedback about their social skills from at least one of these sources.

Table 1 shows that 50.4 percent agree (SA/A) that managers act as mentors to others in their organization, and 45.2 percent agree (SA/A) that managers counsel each other in the organization. Significant associations exist among these activities and receiving detailed feedback about social skills from at least one source (tau-c = .239 and .189, respectively, both $p < .01$); this suggests that social skills are, to varying degrees, a topic of discussion when counseling and mentoring occur. Associations also exist among other survey items, furthering construct validity.[13]

Interviewees give many examples of providing feedback to subordinates, typically when performance is directly compromised or when managers or supervisors throw their weight around, are outright rude, or make racially or gender-insensitive remarks. They are then counseled to find other ways of achieving their objectives or expressing themselves. Mentoring programs are also mentioned, sometimes to help new managers with technical or other aspects of their job. Interviewees also provide examples of how their jurisdiction's HR practices and processes can encourage feedback. For example, a southern HR director described her 360 experience:

> I was evaluated by the city manager, assistant city manager, department directors, legal department, and other direct reports. Each responded anonymously to about 50 close-ended questions (1–10 point scale) and a half dozen open-ended questions. Some questions dealt with EI-type issues like social and communication skills. The summary report by the consultant was 12 to 18 pages, outlining my strengths and weaknesses.

Some cities also use an employee assistance program (EAP) for providing EI-related feedback, as reported by this manager in a Western city:

> The EAP program, which we contract out to a private firm, sometimes addresses issues involving "people skills." For example, managers and supervisors frequently call the EAP provider when they wish to refer someone because of behavior problems at work. Recently, a manager was lashing out and demonstrating anger toward coworkers and he was referred to EAP for anger management training. In such situations you have to weigh employee rights and privileges against emotional behaviors that affect performance.

Finally, while managers are quick to give or require feedback for subordinates, they are hesitant to expose themselves to criticism from their superiors and equals:

> In general, I find that informal interactions with counterparts of similar rank are far more productive than formal interactions in meetings or retreats. This is because conversations are more candid. You want to do the right thing in the right way, but you don't want to expose yourself or your superior to undue criticism. When you go to a higher authority for advice, it is a concession that you can't deal with the matter on your own.

***Codes and standards.*** Table 1, part C, shows that 67.0 percent and 47.1 percent of respondents agree (SA/A) that their jurisdiction has adopted a code of conduct or standards of civility and social norms for staff, respectively. While the purpose of such documents is to set forth behavioral norms, interviewees note that their effectiveness comes from subsequent training, use, and reference. A rather typical example of this is provided by the following interviewee:

> We hold an annual three-day conference, together with employees. Most of it is spent considering technical issues, but we always include ethics. I insisted on it. Just doing ethics training sends a message about the organization, about yourself and it shows you hold yourself accountable to the same standards you expect of others. We pose hypotheticals and ask them to think through the dilemmas.

***Training.*** Table 2 shows a broad range of training in which emotional awareness and social skills are often discussed. Most frequent are teamwork and ethics training, which have been taken by 61.8 percent and 60.0 percent of managers, respectively, in their organizations during the last two years and which interviewees mention as a vehicle for increased awareness and skill development.

Other training programs include assessment of leadership skills (39.7 percent), personality assessments (30.2 percent), managing emotions in the workplace (24.5 percent), and dealing with pathological behaviors (15.7 percent). Among the seven least frequently used training topics, many of which deal directly with topics of emotional intelligence, 44.3 percent of jurisdictions use at least one, and 30.2 percent use at least two. Table 2 also shows that, most often, training does not exceed four hours; only 37.3 percent and 22.0 percent of jurisdictions that provide teamwork and

ethics training, respectively, do so through programs exceeding four hours, and further analysis shows that 34.9 percent of respondents participate in one of the other mentioned training efforts that exceed four hours. These results are consistent with West and Berman (2004), who show that ethics training activities are indeed quite short and best viewed in tandem with other strategies. On average, jurisdictions provide 3.2 training topics listed in table 2 to at least half of their managers, of which 1.4 training topics exceed four hours.

A few cities provide integrated, multifaceted training programs to further emotional intelligence, though only 7.0 percent report that it exceeds four hours. One city manager in a Western state reported widespread managerial problems regarding teamwork, interdepartmental cooperation, and trust. She goes on to explain the formulation of her organization's EI improvement strategy:

> We consulted the *Fortune* magazine's 100 Best Companies to Work For list. We contacted those on the list from our home state to help develop our improvement plan. One nonprofit organization was engaged in EI-type managerial skill building. We visited them, and learned from their experience that was built on the work of Linda Berens on Interaction Styles and David Keirsey on Temperament Training. All managers, including the top leadership team, received a full day of training on interaction styles and temperament, and all employees received the training, as well. Subsequent employee surveys in 2005 and 2007 showed double digit increases in satisfaction with communication, managerial support, mutual trust, cooperation and teamwork. We attribute the increase largely to this training, and there is widespread agreement that skills developed from the training are useful both on and off the job. Refresher courses are regularly offered.

Other cities provide such competency-based training for managers; some focus on Stephen Covey's *Seven Habits of Highly Effective Managers* and others on Daniel Goleman's *Primal Leadership.* These examples suggest that cities' attention to "EI-type" skills is intentional, even when the term "emotional intelligence" is not used. Another city in Washington state identifies 12 behavior-based competencies that provide the framework for establishing hiring criteria (consistent with table 3), for designing assessment center exercises, for developing training programs, and for conducting performance appraisals.[14] Flagstaff, Arizona, and Miami Beach, Florida, also conduct training programs for those with "high potential" for management, during which employees get leadership assessment, receive feedback on emotional and other skills, and touch on such competencies or characteristics as relationship management, self-management, and social awareness.

A few cities provide integrated, multi-faceted training programs to further emotional intelligence, though only 7.0 percent report that it exceeds four hours.

***Aggregate perspective.*** Index measures of selection, feedback, codes, and training are constructed by summation of survey items in table 1 and 2 (alpha measures = .85, .83, .74, and .87, respectively). The four indices are all associated with each other (all $p < .01$), suggesting that codes and training are associated with furthering feedback and selection efforts. Using these indices, 24.4 percent of cities can be classified as having a high use of such strategies, defined in this study as, on average, agreeing or strongly agreeing that jurisdictions use the foregoing selection and feedback efforts, as well as at least two training strategies that exceed four hours and are provided to at least half of the managers in the organization, and also agreeing or strongly agreeing that a code or standard of conduct exists in the jurisdiction. This finding is reasonably robust for alternative definitions of such strong municipal efforts.[15] Another 53.7 percent of jurisdictions are classified as having moderate use of these EI efforts, and 21.9 percent are classified as having low use.[16]

Jurisdictions classified as having high use of these EI strategies have the following profile, providing numerous activities and discussions that encourage managers and employees to assess and hone their EI skills. These jurisdictions are more likely to strongly agree or agree that they interview former coworkers in order to assess candidates' people skills (56.1 percent versus 29.6 percent) and ask candidates how they manage others' hostile emotions (81.2 percent versus 37.0 percent) as well as their own negative emotions (34.1 percent versus 10.2 percent). Managers in these cities are more likely to act as mentors (84.1 percent versus 51.8 percent) and to receive detailed feedback from top managers (70.5 percent versus 25.0 percent) and other managers about their social skills (56.9 percent versus 12.1 percent). They are also more likely to give detailed feedback to employees (56.8 percent versus 20.4 percent). These cities more often adopt standards of civility (87.3 percent versus 37.0 percent) and provide training to at least half of all managers on being a change catalyst (53.7 percent versus 34.0 percent), establishing psychological contracts (36.6 percent versus 14.3 percent), and managing anger (31.7 percent versus 13.1 percent).[17]

These results show how activities that increase EI skills are integrated in HR management practices involving selection, training, mentoring, and feedback processes. While senior managers often lead in raising awareness about the need for better "people skills" or EI skills, HR managers play an important role in working with line managers to address problems and raise skill levels. They also provide interview questions for managers and warrant that they are both appropriate and unlikely to raise legal issues. HR resources such as EAP programs and assessment centers are used to address EI matters, and HR managers assist in strengthening feedback processes in appraisal (e.g., 360-degree assessments), as well as informal communications that sometimes involve psychological contracts (cf. Berman and West 2003a). HR managers help bring EI-related training programs to organizations and lead in conducting employee surveys in which EI issues are raised. Thus, many activities that increase EI skills are integrated into these cities' HR processes.

Cities that are classified as having low use seldom do much of the above. Among such cities, only 12.2 percent agree (SA/A) that they interview former coworkers, 2.0 percent agree (SA/A) that they get detailed feedback from top managers or other managers about employees' social skills, and only 6.1 percent agree (SA/A) that they give detailed feedback to employees about their social skills. Also, only about 10.6 percent provide training to at least half of their managers on being a change catalyst, and 4.4 percent provide such training on establishing psychological contracts. Finally, neither this classification nor the aggregate index of the use of strategies is associated with geographic region, form of government, or city size, but a few minor differences exist for individual items.[18]

### *Perceptions and Correlates of Emotional Intelligence*

We now examine perceptions of public managers' EI skills and how the foregoing strategies affect these skills.

***Perceptions.*** Table 3 shows the results of senior managers' perceptions of the EI skills of managers and supervisors reporting to them in the four EI domains: (1) self-awareness, (2) self-management, (3) social awareness, and (4) relationship management.[19]

First, self-awareness concerns knowledge of one's abilities, tendencies, and emotional states. Table 3, part A, shows respondents' perceptions as based on observable phenomena, such as being able to talk about one's feelings. Among respondents, 80.3 percent agree (SA/A) that managers reporting to them are able to express their feelings accurately, and 55.1 percent agree (SA/A) that managers recognize the impact of their feelings on their actions. Less than three in 10 agree (SA/A) that managers know their strengths and limitations with certainty and that managers are attuned to their feelings. Analysis shows that among respondents who agree (SA/A) that managers reporting to them are attuned to their feelings, 78.4 percent also agree (SA/A) that managers know their strengths and weaknesses with certainty, compared with only 22.0 percent of respondents who do not agree (SA/A) that managers are attuned to their feelings (tau-c = .463, $p < .01$). Perceptions of managers being attuned to their feelings are also associated with a separate item of managers being confident of their self-worth (tau-c = .318, $p < .01$), as noted earlier in the framework.[20]

Second, self-management involves the ability to keep disruptive emotions in check and to maintain values and standards while pursuing achievement. Respondents give high marks for managers' self-management in part B; about two thirds agree (SA/A) that managers think clearly under pressure, stay composed under trying conditions, and take tough stands even when unpopular. However, only about half agree (SA/A) that managers are flexible and quick to adapt, and only 54.8 percent agree (SA/A) that managers are able to deal with their negative emotions such as anger. Among respondents who agree (SA/A) that managers are able to manage their negative emotions, 86.6 percent also agree (SA/A) that managers think clearly under pressure, compared to only 46.3 percent who do not agree (SA/A) that managers reporting to them are able to manage their negative emotions (tau-c = .380, $p < .01$). Knowing one's strengths and limitations with certainty is also associated with thinking clearly under pressure (tau-c = .340, $p < .01$).

Third, social awareness involves sensing what others are experiencing and anticipating meeting these needs. Among respondents, about six in 10 agree (SA/A) that managers create an environment in which diverse people can thrive (see part C) and that managers show sensitivity to the perspectives and feelings of others. An important leadership task is stating what is occurring, and more than half agree (SA/A) that managers reporting to them verbalize what is occurring in their teams and that managers understand what other departments or organizations need. Four in 10 respondents agree (SA/A) that managers are attuned to others' feelings. Respondents who agree (SA/A) that managers are attuned to others' feelings more often agree (SA/A) that managers acknowledge the strengths and contributions of others, 97.4 percent, compared to 56.4 percent among those who do not agree (SA/A) that managers are attuned to others' feelings (tau-c = .425, $p < .01$). Being attuned to others' feelings is also associated with being attuned to one's own feelings, confident of one's self-worth, and with creating an

environment in which diverse people can thrive (tau-c = .221, .242, and .342, respectively, all $p < .01$).

Fourth, relationship management involves using all of these skills and abilities to work effectively and positively with others. Table 3, part D, shows that seven in 10 respondents agree (SA/A) that managers are effective in communicating, and two-thirds agree (SA/A) that managers are skilled in teamwork. On average, slightly more than half of respondents agree (SA/A) with the stated items, which surely suggests room for improvement. An area of some concern is that although seven in 10 respondents agree (SA/A) that managers are effective in communicating, less than half agree (SA/A) that they keep people in the loop. This may reflect distinctions between what is being communicated and to whom. Keeping people in the loop and being effective in communicating are both positively associated with knowing how to get people to produce results (tau-c = .469 and .440, respectively, both $p < .01$). As might be expected, being effective in communicating is also associated with being attuned to the feelings of others (tau-c = .327, $p < .01$).

The bivariate results show how being attuned to one's feelings relates with other items of self- and relationship management, which, in turn, is associated with perceptions of knowing how to get people to produce results. The index measures of each of the above four dimensions (see table 3 for alpha measures) are all strongly correlated with each other ($r = .63$–$.82$, all $p < .01$), suggesting mutually reinforcing effects. That is, strength in one domain of EI is likely to be associated with strength in another domain. For example, having good self-awareness skills is likely to contribute to having good social awareness skills because, for example, recognizing a broad range of emotions and understanding their impact on oneself can also help to understand them in others. The latter, in turn, also supports the development of relationship management skills.

Further analysis also shows that 26.9 percent of respondents agree (SA/A) with each of the four domains of perceived managerial EI in their jurisdictions, while 31.1 percent of respondents fail to agree (SA/A) with any of the four domains.[21] Among the latter group, about half (18.4 percent of all respondents) do not even somewhat agree with one or more of these domains; considerable variation exists in perceived managerial EI. However, the means of the indices are quite similar and do not suggest any EI domain in which shortfalls are greatest.[22] Rather, table 3 shows that considerable weaknesses exist in each domain: knowing one's strengths and limitations with certainty, being attuned to one's feelings and the feelings of other's, keeping people in the loop, and being skilled at conflict management.

***Correlates.*** An aggregate measure of perceived managerial EI skills is created by aggregating the above four indices (alpha = .91).[23] This aggregate measure does not vary by form of government, region, or city size,[24] and it is positively associated with the earlier measure of EI practices. This relationship is of moderate strength ($r = .274$, $p < .01$). Among cities reporting high use of EI management strategies, half (50 percent) agree (SA/A) with each of the four domains of perceived managerial EI, compared to only 19.5 percent among cities in which the use of EI strategies is classified as medium or low ($t = 3.62$, $p < .01$), and among these cities, 57.7 percent of respondents fail to agree (SA/A) with any of the four domains of perceived managerial EI. Table 4 shows correlations among each of the four indices of strategies and the four index measures of perceived managerial EI skill. Feedback is positively associated with each of the four EI domains ($r = .254$–$.316$). Policies of managerial selection are positively associated with self-awareness and social awareness (both $p < .01$) and with relationship management ($p < .05$). The absence of association between managerial selection and self-management may reflect that only 13.9 percent of respondents agree (SA/A) that they ask management candidates how they manage their own negative emotions (see table 1); this practice is not well established at this time. Table 4 also shows that the index measure of codes is not directly associated with any measure of perceived managerial EI skill, and training is associated only with perceived managerial social awareness. This does not imply that these activities are ineffective but rather that they may have an indirect impact; training is significantly associated with recruitment and feedback activities ($r = .31$ and .40, respectively, both $p < .01$), as is the use of codes and standards ($r = .32$ and .27, respectively, both $p < .01$).[25]

Structural equation models examine such indirect relationships. Figure 1, the result of such a model, shows the effect sizes (standardized coefficients) of the relationships. The dotted arrows show relationships that are not significant at customary 5 percent or 1 percent levels, but they are included for reasons of theoretical interest. The model satisfies the usual goodness-of-fit test assumptions for such models (e.g., Chi-square = 28.5, df = 25, $p > .05$).[26] Regarding the hypotheses, figure 1 shows that only feedback, modeling, and mentoring is directly associated with perceptions of managerial EI (hypothesis 1). The other variables are only indirectly associated with perceived managerial EI (hypotheses 2–4). The total standardized effects on perceived managerial EI are as follows:

| | Type of Effect | Strength of Effect |
|---|---|---|
| H1: Feedback, modeling, and mentoring | Direct | .282 (moderate) |
| H2: Recruitment | Indirect | .145 (moderate) |
| H3: Training | Indirect | .125 (moderate) |
| H4: Code of conduct | Indirect | .031 (weak) |

**Table 4** Correlation of Managerial EI and EI Strategies

| | *EI Strategies* | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *A* | *B* | *C* | *D* |
| | *Recruitment & Selection* | *Feedback & Modeling* | *Training* | *Codes & Standards* |
| *Managerial EI:* | | | | |
| *A. Self-awareness* | *.205*** | *.254*** | *.122* | *.018* |
| *B. Self-management* | *.143* | *.257*** | *.077* | *.022* |
| *C. Social awareness* | *.198*** | *.316*** | *.179** | *.006* |
| *D. Relationship management* | *.153** | *.274*** | *.112* | *.031* |

Note: Pearson correlation coefficient, *r*, shown.
** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$.

Thus, while findings support all four hypotheses of this study, only feedback, modeling, and mentoring has a direct effect. Other direct impacts on EI skills were examined, but they are insignificant and therefore not estimated or shown in figure 1; this result is also consistent with an ordinary least squares regression model predicting perceived managerial EI as a function of variables in figure 1.[27] It follows that feedback, modeling, and mentoring are key to increased perceived managerial emotional intelligence; managers cannot only rely on selection, training, and codes to increase managerial EI skills. Furthermore, among the variables (in table 1B) that make up this index variable, the following are most strongly associated with perceived managerial EI: managers giving employees detailed feedback about their social skills, managers being aware that they model socially appropriate behaviors, and encouraging managers to find a mentor outside the organization (tau-c = .31, .29, and .28, respectively, all $p < .01$). Figure 1 also shows that job commitment ("managers who report to me demonstrate high job commitment") and a proxy for entitlement attitudes ("in our city, people just act busy rather than doing meaningful work") are also associated with perceived managerial EI (with standardized total effects of .292 and –.224, respectively). Size and form of government are not associated with perceived managerial EI.

> . . . feedback, modeling, and mentoring are key to increased perceived managerial emotional intelligence . . .

Finally, additional analysis shows that perceived managerial EI, as well as strategies furthering it, are associated with perceptions of high productivity ("in our city, organizational productivity is high"). The respective associations are tau-c = .328 and .334 (both $p < .01$). Among jurisdictions that have a high use of strategies, 86.4 percent agree (SA/A) that their organizational productivity is high, compared to 56.2 percent and 38.8 percent of those who indicate moderate and low use, respectively. This measure is also associated with adopting innovative programs and citizen trust ("citizen trust in our local government is high"), tau = .422 and .338 (both $p < .01$). Such associations, while not implying causation, invite further study to examine the performance impact of managerial EI.

## Conclusion

Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize emotions in oneself and others and to use this information in managing oneself and others. This study examines how feedback and mentoring, selection and promotion, training, and the adoption of codes of conduct can be used to further emotional intelligence. About 24 percent of cities make a high use of these strategies, and 54 percent and 22 percent of jurisdictions make moderate and low use, respectively. Providing feedback, mentoring, and modeling is key; training, selection and promotion, and code development have only indirect effects on increasing EI. Cities with high use provide many activities and discussions encouraging managers and employees to assess and hone their EI skills, though these are seldom labeled "emotional intelligence." In these cities, managers are typically asked to give and receive detailed feedback about social skills and participate in training programs designed to increased self-awareness and relationship skills. Among such cities, 50.0 percent agree (SA/A) that each domain of EI is present among managers, compared to only 19.5 percent among cities in which the use of strategies is reported as medium or low. Respondents note weaknesses in each domain of managerial EI, including knowing one's strengths and limitations with certainty, being attuned to one's feelings and those of others, keeping people in the loop, and being skilled at conflict management. In short, perceived managerial EI skills vary considerably (see table 3), and these skills are positively associated with a variety of EI strategies.

The theoretical implications of this research are twofold. First, they show that a broad range of already existing practices and policies can be hypothesized to affect the emotional skills of managers, even though these are not always fully developed, as the empirical results show. There is no need to focus exclusively on narrowly defined, faddish training programs labeled "emotional intelligence," as doing so may unwisely omit more effective efforts, such as giving and receiving feedback. The ability to deal

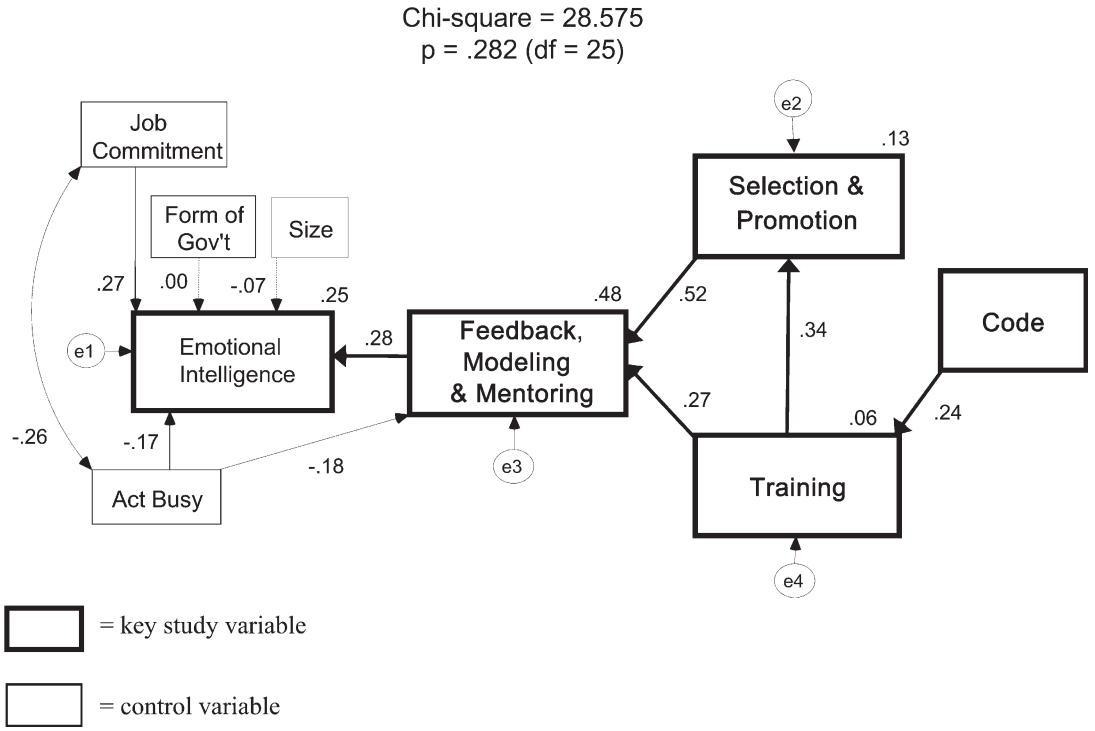


**Figure 1 Structural Equation Model of Perceived Managerial Emotional Intelligence**

with emotions is already a target of many organizational practices, no matter how underdeveloped it is judged to be. Second, having demonstrated the range and salience of these organizational efforts, this study furthers the argument for better integrating the place of emotions in management theory. Future research could examine the extent to which EI is linked to successful managerial job performance. For example, we would hypothesize, echoing Schmit's (2006) work in a business setting and building on recent research on emotional labor in public service settings (e.g., Guy and Newman 2004; Mastracci, Newman, and Guy 2006; Meir, Mastracci, and Wilson 2006), that EI would be positively associated with success in government jobs or workplaces in which (1) the manager is required to resolve situations involving strong negative emotions, (2) job performance is contingent on eliciting positive emotions among coworkers and other stakeholders, (3) managers need to creatively solve problems containing substantial emotional content, and (4) organizations are undergoing significant change or units are encountering performance impediments requiring reforms to achieve high-level productivity. The role of HR management is crucial in helping managers develop these competencies.

There are practical implications as well. While research-based standards for EI are lacking,[28] practitioners know the importance of having people with good EI skills. Yet expecting good people skills from all managers has proven difficult, even though this is being increasingly emphasized. Asking managers to be effective in establishing rapport with others presumes that they know how to do so and that they value good relationships. But in an era when people have fewer friends and spend more time online or watching television, we cannot assume the existence of effective people skills. Repeatedly, interviewees mention that people skills are the hardest competencies to find, even among managers. We think the day is not far off when we will be counseling managers and teaching students how to create relationships that increase emotional well-being, understanding, and performance. In the meantime, this study suggests that practitioners can increase EI skills in their organization by emphasizing EI competencies in their feedback and mentoring programs, as well as in their selection and promotion efforts. HR professionals can greatly assist this process by ensuring that managers have tools for assessing and building EI skills.[29] For example, they can conduct careful job analyses that determine the emotional characteristics of specific tasks, duties, and behaviors and ways in which emotions will affect managerial performance. HR professionals can also develop job descriptions and performance appraisal criteria that better incorporate EI skill sets and develop assessment centers with

. . . in an era when people have fewer friends and spend more time online or watching television, we cannot assume the existence of effective people skills.

exercises (simulations, role-plays, scenario writing, problem solving, behavior modeling, case studies, team projects) that tap and subsequently develop participants' EI skills. As one senior manager notes, "Technical proficiency alone is insufficient in assessing managerial competencies; success or failure often depends on the softer, EI-related skills." Clearly, there are many leverage points at which managers can emphasize the importance of EI skills.

## Notes

1. The classic works of Mary Parker Follett (1941), Dale Carnegie (1936), and others all discuss that positive feelings associated with loyalty and commitment further motivation and performance and that negative feelings of disgust and uncertainty decrease performance. While later scholarship emphasizes normative rationality as key to better decision making (people *should* follow rules regardless of how they feel about them), other studies, especially those in organizational development (Cannon and Witherspoon 2005), show that *factually,* emotions cannot be ignored or discounted in decision making. Many autobiographies of public leaders (e.g., Clinton 2004; Obama 2004) also note the importance of recognizing one's feelings and those of others and using this knowledge for managing relationships.
2. Consistent with common usage, this study uses the terms "emotion" and "feeling" interchangeably. Feelings are a bit more general and can also refer to touch ("I have a feeling in my hand"), which is not the intended use here.
3. Other aspects are sometimes also considered. EI follows contemporary ideas about making relationships work, such as effective communication and clarification, creating shared visions, and so on.
4. Self-awareness is a cornerstone because knowing and experiencing how emotions are manifested in oneself helps one understand how they may affect others. For example, without fully experiencing grief and fear, it is hard to exercise right judgment when dealing with these emotions in others.
5. A celebrated example is a training program implemented at American Express (Hays 1999). There, managers first increase awareness of their emotions (emotional literacy), then focus on self-talk, learn about the role of emotions in behavior, and identify troublesome response patterns they would like to change. They also explore the role of self, self-disclosure, boundaries in relationships, and development of interpersonal contracts. The training ends with a return to the self, identifying "optimal performance," and gives consideration to stress, nutrition, and exercise. On emotional literacy, see http://eqi.org/elit.htm and http://www.eiconsortium.org/research/business_case_for_ei.htm.
6. A distinction should be between EI and personality. Personality concerns the distinctiveness and totality of one's behavioral and emotional tendencies. Personality is typically assumed to be largely set by the time that one is an adult, and thus it is not very malleable. By contrast, EI concerns skills that can be learned, though this ability and interest are likely affected by personality in ways that are not yet wholly understood (Conte and Dean 2006). Some personality types may fare better than others at developing and managing EI skills, an observation that is consistent with experience, common sense, and research (e.g., Van Rooy et al. 2006). For these reasons, personality assessment is a valuable tool of self-knowledge in education and training to help people decide whether to embark on a career as a manager and to better understand their strengths and weaknesses.
7. He finds that emotionally intelligent senior managers tend to be more satisfied with their work, more emotionally attached to their organization, more committed to their career, and better able to handle work–family conflict.
8. Higgs and Aitken's (2003) study of senior managers in New Zealand's public service finds that EI is a predictor of leadership potential. An expanding subset of research also assesses the validity of instruments for measuring emotional intelligence among individuals (Bar-On 1997; Chapman and Hayslip 2005; Law, Wong, and Song 2004; Livingston and Day 2005; Schutte et al. 1998; Van Rooy et al. 2005).
9. Among the respondents, 53.8 percent report that their highest degree is in public administration; the remainder report degrees in business administration, political science, law, engineering, and other fields. In all, 70.1 percent have a master's degree, and 69.3 percent are male. 19.6 percent are younger than 45, 37.8 percent are between 45 and 54 years, and 42.6 percent are over 54 years.
10. Respondents' length of employment in their jurisdictions, as well as attitudes, are not associated with their perceptions of emotional intelligence. For example, respondents who state "I nurture social relationships in the workplace during breaks," "I am introverted," or "I like to consult with others when I am faced with a problem or issue" are not associated with perceptions of EI (all $p > .05$). We also conducted 15 in-depth interviews (approximately one hour each) among respondents that were also used to validate the mail survey responses. To examine nonresponse bias, we completed a telephone survey among a random sample of nonrespondents of the mail survey ($n = 41$). A sample of four randomly selected items was used; comparing these responses to those of the mail survey, we find no statistically significant differences. These items

are: "We ask candidates how they handle difficult teamwork situations" (tau-c = .039, $p$ = .448), "We make people skills a criterion in hiring and promotion" (tau-c = .071, $p$ = .158), "Act as mentors to others in the organization" (tau-c = −.095, $p$ = .066), and "Give employees detailed feedback about their social skills" (tau-c = .012, $p$ = .833). An index variable of these four items (alpha = .66) is also not significant ($t$ = .286, $p$ = .775). Demographic data of telephone survey respondents do not significantly affect these results. Finally, we find no significant differences between early and late mail survey respondents regarding the use of EI strategies in their organizations.

11. Or, "the perfect is the enemy of the good." While striving for highest measurement quality, demanding unattainable precision is counterproductive to the scientific goal of pushing back frontiers of ignorance.
12. Stories critical of one manager or department make other managers think, "I better be sure I am not doing that." A vigilant press can also reinforce behavior standards: "Having a vigorous press keeps you on your toes. Knowing there is interest and oversight is an incentive to be in compliance with standards and a deterrent to wrongdoing."
13. For example, respondents who agree (SA/A) that their organization has feedback and mentoring processes also agree (SA/A) that managers in their jurisdiction are aware that they model socially appropriate behaviors (tau-c = .344, $p$ < .01), and that managers give frequent praise to their subordinates for work well done (tau-c = .419, $p$ < .01). These items are also associated with using the foregoing selection strategies (tau-c = .384 and .316, respectively, both $p$ < .01).
14. These 12 behavior-based competencies include oral and written communication; abilities and organizational skills; manner, bearing and grooming; public relations and customer service; stress tolerance; leadership and management; training and education; experience; commitment and attitude; interpersonal sensitivity; problem solving and decision making; and creativity and flexibility.
15. The criterion for high use is defined as, on average, at least agreeing, which is defined by a score of 2.49 or less, plus the use of training and policy strategies as described in the text. Alternative definitions of high use result in estimates between about 19.0 percent and 33.0 percent.
16. Low use is defined as, on average, less than somewhat agreeing with the use of these strategies (> 3.5), and not using any training in the before mentioned fashion. Moderate use, then, applies to those cities that are neither low nor high users. On average, cities with high use, score 6.2, 6.0, 1.7, and 4.3 on selection, feedback, policy, and training strategies (defined as agreeing or strongly agreeing that such strategies are used), compared to 4.4, 2.6, 1.0, and 3.3 among medium-use cities and 2.0, 0.9, 1.1, and 1.7 among low-use cities.
17. The tau-c values of the differences mentioned in the text are .271, .434, .444, .353, .416, .511, .386, .353, .370, .199, .248, and .202, respectively. All of these are $p$ < . 01, with exception of tau-c .199 and .202, which are $p$ < .05.
18. Very few differences exist. Respondents from cities under 250,000 agree (SA/A) more often that managers counsel each other than respondents in larger cities (46.7 percent versus 34.8 percent, tau-c = .091, $p$ < .05). Respondents from cities with a city manager form of government are more likely than council-manager cities to agree (SA/A) that they make people skills a criterion in hiring and promotion (77.5 percent versus 55.1 percent, tau-c = .154, $p$ < .05) and ask managerial candidates how they handle difficult teamwork situations (80.1 percent versus 63.3 percent, tau-c = .135, $p$ < .05). Respondents in smaller cities also more often agree (SA/A) that at least half of their managers have received training, and larger cities identify that somewhat more of their training last at least four hours, but these differences are not significant.
19. Regarding the selection as items in table 3, the theorem of the interchangeability of indicators states that if several different indicators all represent, to some degree, the same concept, then any combination of indicators behaves in much the same way as if the concept could be directly observed. Thus, any specific set of indicators needs only be valid with regard to those included; they need not be exhaustive of all items or shown in to be the "best" of such sets.
20. The notion that managers are less attuned to themselves than to others is also shown in table 3, section C, in which a greater percentage, 43.3 percent, agree or strongly agree that managers are attuned to the feelings of others, than is found in part A with regard to being attuned to their own feelings, 28.7 percent.
21. Defined as scoring 2.49 or less on a seven-point Likert scale.
22. The means of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management are 2.57, 2.37, 2.50, and 2.52, respectively.
23. The mean of this aggregate index is 2.47 and the standard deviation .734. Based on this aggregate index, 58.5 percent of respondents agree or strongly agree with the average of all aspects that compose this measure; this is considerably higher than that reported earlier (26.9 percent), as many respondents (52.8 percent) somewhat agree with one of more of the four submeasures, resulting in a larger average percentage.

24. The aggregate measure is somewhat higher in the West than in the Northeast (2.3 versus 2.7, 1 = high) and among cities with populations between 100,000–250,000 than others (2.3 versus 2.5), but these differences are not statistically significant.
25. For example, adopting a code of conduct is associated with respondents agreeing that managers are clear about their personal, guiding values (tau-c = .101, $p < .05$) and having standards of civility (tau-c = .150, $p < .01$).
26. The variance-covariance matrix is consistent with that of the data (Chi-square = 28.1, $p > .05$); the RMSEA is .032 (under the norm of .05); the goodness-of-fit index is .957; the adjusted goodness-of-fit index is .923, which exceeds the threshold of .90; and the maximum modification index is 2.93. The comparative fit index is 0.979, indicating good incremental fit, as it is close to the norm of 1.0. The parsimony-adjusted normed fit index of .591 compares favorably with competing models. Models with slightly better fit can be constructed, but at the expense of parsimony, and they do not alter the principal findings reported here.
27. The ordinary least squares model is as follows (*t* statistics in parentheses):
    EI = 1.650 + .249** Strategies + .023
    (3.31) (.317)
    Training – .029 Recruitment – .044
    (–.340) (–.091)
    Code + .001 Size – .120 Form of Gov't
    (.021) (–.068)
28. An anonymous reviewer asked, "Is there a 'gold standard' for EI, or is it like pornography, as was famously opined, 'You can't define it, but you know it when you see it?'" Some consultants do compare their clients' EI scores against their database of prior test results, but this is hardly scientific.
29. One reviewer asked: "Why isn't EI more popular? What needs to happen to increase its use?" We think that the answer involves (1) drawing attention to the importance and consequences of EI and (2) providing tools for managers to assess and increase the EI skills of themselves and others. We hope that this article can begin the push toward these activities.

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