

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.1 Introduction

Research on team climate can only be of value to an organization if it can be proven that climate has an affect on team effectiveness. If this is established, then organizations will only be interested in the climate research if it could be illustrated that an intervention to alter or enhance a team climate is possible. Team climate does have a relation to team effectiveness. Ford and Seers (2006) refer to team with-in agreement on team climate being related to the psychological wellbeing of individuals. Patterson, Warr and West (2004) research results on their study of organizational climate and productivity, positively linked climate with productivity prediction. They based their productivity measure on aspects like organizational support, flexibility, and concern for employee welfare to name a few. These aspects are some of the policies, procedures and practices on which employees form a perception of what is important for the organization and what behaviour based on this perception is rewarded. This perception of the social environment with-in the team influences behaviour and should be of interest to organizations if these perceptions can be influenced.

Organizations are continuously faced with increasingly complex and uncertain business environments. Growing global competition and ever changing consumer demands put organizations in a position where the ability of their members to find solutions to these problems becomes a competitive advantage (Muthusamy, Wheeler & Simmons, 2005).

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2001), organizations change their structures to support this new flexible strategy. Flatter structures, based on the instant availability of management information and organized around teams, will give organizations the competitive edge they need. The use of work teams is now recognized as a success component of every enterprise (Jordan, Feild & Armenakis, 2002). Teams help to increase the participation level in organizations (Senge, 1990; Ragazzoni, Baiardi, Zotti, Anderson & West, 2002), and possess more knowledge and process more information than individuals can on their own (Loewen & Loo, 2004). Research by Anderson and West (2002) has shown that teamwork has increased commitment, efforts, loyalty and innovativeness of employees, but they argue that a supportive team climate is needed to determine success.

Contrary to past beliefs in a homogeneous workforce that portrayed a particular image and value system, organizations today adapt their operations to kindle diversity. Teams are the ideal work structure in which team members can influence each other's thinking and perceptions in order to reach consensus on issues of mutual concern. Individuals however,

differ in their self-concept (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001), their way of interacting with team members (Saavedra & Van Dyne, 1999), their personal traits like goal orientation (Steele-Johnson, *et al.*, 2000) and abilities like emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

A team is dependent on the contributions of its members towards achieving team goals. Apart from the normal decision-making processes inside a team or the way in which the team members resolve conflict with-in the team, a challenge for team members is to find consensus on the way they perceive their work climate.

Extensive research reports are available on the interaction between team leaders and team members and the reaction of team members to team leadership. However, little research has been done on how members of teams interpret and evaluate their collective experience in the team context (Drach- Zahavy & Somech, 2001; Roberson, 2006) or on the influence and contributions made by teams to establish consensus on their perception of the team climate they work in. The assumption of this evaluative, interaction and influencing process between team members is the underlining focus of this research.

Schneider (1990) describes organizational climate as an assigned label to a perception of routines in the workplace and the rewards thereof. Individuals are the source of these perceptions and if they share perceptions on a dimension such as innovation, it is possible to aggregate their scores because “perceptual agreement implies a shared assignment of meaning” (James, Joyce & Slocum, 1988:129). James and McIntyre (1996) believe that individuals respond to work environments in terms of how they perceive it and then simultaneously attach a meaning to the situation. Therefore, if the team members agree on the perception of the situation, or policy and procedures, then it can be described as a shared perception (James & McIntyre, 1996; Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann & Hirst, 2002; Schneider, 1990).

Anderson and West (1998) believe that it is most likely that a common understanding of experience will develop where individuals have the opportunity to interact and co-construct perceptions within their normal work environment. Research of Anderson and West (1996) indicated that teamwork increases the level of participation in organizations. This is confirmed by Ragazzoni, *et al.* (2002) but with the prerequisite that teamwork requires a stimulating climate or atmosphere to flourish in (Bain, Mann & Pirola-Merlo, 2001). The perception of this climate and the factors that influence this climate is the focus of this study.

1.2 The problem and its significance

Behaviour is influenced within the climate where it occurs. Therefore, as an example, a team climate of innovation influences the way team members perceive and execute their innovation mandate. Members of the team experience this perceived climate as either conducive or not conducive to their particular behaviour.

Although behaviour is influenced within the climate, this climate exists through the perception of the members of the team. Individuals form a perception of the climate they work in. To be able to refer to a team climate, the team should share the perception of the climate they work in. This can be achieved by aggregating the scores of the different individual perceptions to form the team perception of the climate. At least three aspects should be present to create this shared perception. These are frequent interaction, common goals and task interdependence (Anderson & West, 1998). It is proposed that through working closely together and sharing tasks in order to accomplish common goals, the team members' perception of their work environment will be aligned. This alignment will create the environment to form a shared perception of the climate they work in.

The aim of the study is to explore whether there are factors that can be implemented to enhance this shared perception. It was decided to investigate whether emotional intelligence, goal orientation and a team member exchange process are variables that may help influence team members to be more aligned with each other's perceptions inside the team. For instance by understanding each other's emotions and limitations, team members can assist each other and influence each other to share in the perception of the climate.

Owing to their diverse abilities, attitudes and personal traits, team members contribute to team activities to a varied degree. For example, team members with a low emotional intelligence measure will not be able to understand and control their own emotions and to understand and influence emotions in others. On the contrary, team members with a high emotional intelligence measure will be able to monitor their own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and then to use this information to guide their own thinking and actions and also influence those of others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

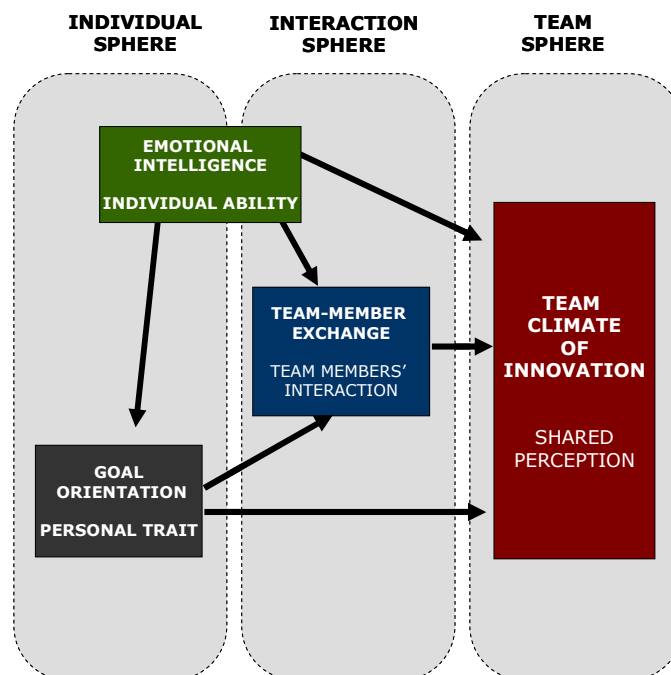
Similarly, team members with a low team members exchange quality will not see the possibilities to form exchange relationships inside the team for their own benefit as well as the benefit of the team (Cole, Schaninger & Harris, 2002). Then again, team members with a high sense of team member exchange will seize the opportunity to collaborate with fellow team members so that social exchanges may take place in anticipation of a reciprocated exchange at a later stage (Seers, 1989).

It would, lastly, be difficult for someone in a team to take risks and to make mistakes in the event of trying innovative ideas while he has a performance goal orientation. Such a person would not perceive the climate as supporting any innovative activities. A person with a learning goal orientation, on the other hand, would appreciate feedback and perceive setbacks as a challenge to try again and to try innovative ways of reaching his goals.

It is anticipated that the research would show a correlation between the different variables. If true, it would be possible for a person with a high level of emotional intelligence to understand his own emotions and he would, for example, also understand the emotions of a person with a performance goal orientation. Through exchange of feedback, and perhaps the sharing of necessary skills, the team member with stronger emotional intelligence abilities will be able to assist his fellow team member with a performance goal orientation to see taking risks not as a possible failure but as an opportunity to try something new and to grow in knowledge and self-confidence. This mutual insight in how fellow team members think and interact towards common goals will probably influence their perception about the climate they work in and stimulate their behaviour in this regard.

The model below was developed to guide the study in three different spheres. First, the model indicates that goal orientation is a personal trait and will fall into the individual sphere. It also shows that goal orientation will probably influence team member exchange in the interaction sphere as well as the team climate in the team sphere.

Figure 1. 1: Research Conceptual Model



The model illustrates that emotional intelligence fits in the individual sphere as well as the interaction sphere. An individual can understand and control his own emotions and can also have the ability to understand and influence the emotions of others.

The team member exchange construct refers to the interaction between team members, and it is postulated that it has an influence on the team climate. Therefore, it is linked to the team sphere. The model further indicates that team member exchange (TMX) is also influenced by emotional intelligence and goal orientation.

An important construct development since dyadic social exchange mindset is that team member exchange describes the exchange actions between members in a team. Team member exchange is the vehicle to facilitate influence on team members' shared perception. Through team member exchange, perceptions within the team are reinforced or discouraged, and according to Anderson and West (1998) it is one of the three prerequisites for a team climate to form. This exchange process creates the possibility for an increased interaction in the team, which creates interdependence among the team members. This is another condition for a shared perception to develop (Anderson & West, 1998). It is hypothesized that where team members do not necessarily share a vision or share the understanding of team goals, this exchange process will help establish the notion in order for all members of the team to be aligned towards the same goals.

As an objective to answer from the literature, the study will endeavour to establish whether the team member exchange process is the facilitating agent to influence an individual's behaviour and attitudes inside a team.

All of the above will direct the study to establish whether there is a correlation between the three individual variables (EI, TMX and GO) and a team climate. If the correlation does exist, it would be possible for team leaders to develop, train and coach team members to enhance aspects of the three variables that would help team members to make full use of all their team interacting abilities

1.3 The scope of the research

This research will focus on the problem whether a team climate (as a group perception) can be predicted by means of emotional intelligence (an individual ability), team member exchange (a group process), and team member goal orientation (an individual or personal trait).

Team climate is a product of team members' perception of their work environment. The relationship between team climate and the three independent variables (emotional intelligence, team member exchange and goal orientation) is based on the assumption that all three variables contribute to the influencing process on team members' perception of their work environment. The degree to which each of the three variables contributes to the within-team agreement process will be the degree to which each variable is predicting a team climate. As such, the literature study will try to highlight different aspects and dimensions of the variables to show that the variables play a role in influencing the perception of the team members and as a result thereof also adds to the prediction of a team climate.

The research focus will be analysed as the cognitive representation of the work environment (Anderson & West, 1998) and how the three independent variables will influence this cognitive representation.

The study will also not focus on whether it is possible to enhance aspects like emotional intelligence, goal orientation or team member exchange. Finally, the research will not endeavour to add to the improvement of the team performance body of knowledge.

1.4 Research objectives

To answer the formulated research problem, the following research questions were generated to guide the rest of the study:

1.4.1 What is the relationship between emotional intelligence, team member exchange, team member goal orientation and a team climate?

1.4.2 What is the predictability of emotional intelligence, team member exchange, and team member goal orientation on team climate as outcome variable?

1.4.3 Is there a combination of emotional intelligence, team member exchange and goal orientation that predicts team climate better than any one alone and, if so, what is the best combination?

1.4.4 Is there a significant relationship between team climate and team member exchange?

1.4.5 Build a Structural Equation Model to predict team climate.

In order to address the research objectives and provide answers to these questions, a literature study will be done to include the following:



Team climate

Emotional intelligence

Social exchange theory

Team member exchange

Goal orientation

1.5 Study outline

The literature study is captured in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 will reflect the methodology. Chapter 4 discusses the results. Chapter 5 will accommodate the discussion of results, the conclusion and some recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE STUDY

2.1 Organizational Climate

2.1.1 Introduction

Research on organizational innovation is well established and has received extensive attention since the mid 1970s (Nyström, 1990). This increased attention was in line with business pressure on organizations and brought the realization that business practices had to change to be more flexible and adaptive (Montes, Moreno & Fernández, 2004) to international benchmarks and market trends (McMurray, 2003). Nyström (1990) refers to a cutting edge case study of the mid 1980s where a leading Swedish chemical company, EKA Nobell, used quantitative as well as qualitative research methods to try and understand managerial as well as psychological variables that influenced organizational innovation.

The growing interest in less tangible collective-level phenomena like organizational climate, the process of innovation and group interaction processes was confirmed by Anderson and West (1996). According to them, international business changes provoked developments in organizational designs that eventually led to new forms of organizations and particularly the increased use of teamwork.

Multiple skills and an ability to pool resources in order to reach innovative solutions proved to be the answer (Mathisen, Einarsen, Jørstad & Brønnick, 2004). This meant that individual job functions started to evolve into team functions (Ragazzoni, Baiardi, Zotti, Anderson & West, 2002). Anderson and West (1996) believe that teamwork increases the level of participation in organizations and thus also the level of innovation. This is confirmed by Ragazzoni, et al. (2002) but with the prerequisite that innovative teamwork requires a stimulating climate or atmosphere in which to flourish (Bain, Mann & Pirola-Merlo, 2001). These trends demanded pragmatic and valid measures of group and organizational phenomena (Anderson & West, 1996) and were the motivation behind the renewed research interest.

Dunegan, Tierney and Duchon, (1992) emphasize that individuals are the driving force behind any successful innovative intervention in an organisation. Yet they report that having the right people does not automatically deliver the innovative solutions. They propose that innovative thinking has to be stimulated and it should be supported in a work climate compatible with innovation. Kozlowski and Hulst (1987) concur with this view. They, too, believe that all the technological acquisitions and other high-tech production changes will not establish an

innovative organisation. This will only happen when organisations cultivate continual knowledge and skills updating and the creation of a climate that supports innovation. Proudfoot et al. (2007) further strengthen this view when they state that four team processes are usually present when innovative teams are defined, viz clearly defined group goals; participative decision-making processes; quality task orientation and perceived support for innovation.

Climate is assumed to be the aggregation of individual perceptions of the organisational context, processes and other support structures. These perceptions represent the individuals' interpretations of the organisational context they work in, and these perceptions direct individual behavioural responses (Schneider, 1985; Kozlowski & Hults, 1987). If the perceptions of the climate that people work in guide their behaviour, then it is likely that those perceptions of climate, and the responses that follow, may be influenced through appropriate structures, processes and interaction in the organization (Mossholder & Bedeian, 1983; Kozlowski & Hults, 1987; Drach-Zahavy & Somech, 2001).

2.2 Team Climate

2.2.1 *Definitional issues*

Anderson and West (1998) refer to a growing interest in climate research over the last decade. However, they show that despite this growth, research was affected by two major difficulties: firstly, defining the notion of climate and, secondly, measuring climate accurately at different levels of analysis (Anderson & West, 1998).

2.2.2 *Defining climate*

Two conflicting approaches were used. James, Joyce and Slocum (1988) refer to the first and probably more popular opinion of climate as a psychological climate. This view, also called the cognitive schema approach (Anderson & West, 1998), refers to the individual's cognitive representation of the practices and procedures he is confronted with and how the individual makes sense out of his direct work environment. People then use their perceptions to adapt their behaviour in order to be in balance with their environment (Anderson & West, 1998).

In contrast to this view, Glick (1985) defines climate as an organizational attribute rather than an individual one. Glick conceptualizes climate in terms of other constructs such as interpersonal practices, subjectively developed meanings of policies and practices, and not as a mere aggregation of individual perceptions of the psychological climate (Baer & Frese, 2003).

The climate concept is formed if the organization members' perceptions of the observable practices and procedures in the organization are labelled into different dimensions (Denison, 1996). Scott and Bruce (1994) further added that climate represents the perception that individuals form from organizational expectations regarding performance output. Guided by their perception, people respond to these expectations by adapting their behaviour in order to realize self-evaluated positive outcomes. An important qualification is that individuals do not merely respond to their work environment directly, but first perceive and interpret it against their climate framework (Carr, Schmidt, Ford & DeSchon, 2003).

Schneider and Reichers (1983) indicated that some progress was made in the development of a climate construct. According to them, the biggest step was to acknowledge the emphasis on the importance of group phenomena in organizational research (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). They claim that the following four advances can be identified in the development of the climate construct:

Previously underestimated, it was now acknowledged that perceptions of individuals play an important role in climate research in an attempt to understand behaviour at work (Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

Group phenomena previously did not receive the attention they deserved. It was now recognized that climate research should be based on "aggregated or group level data in order to discover relationships between clusters of perceptions and organizationally relevant outcomes" (Schneider & Reichers, 1983: 21).

A third advance according to Schneider and Reichers (1983) was that a distinction was made between psychological climates and organizational climates. They believe that a psychological climate refers to the meaning an individual attaches to a work context and an organizational climate refers to the summated, averaged meaning that people attach to a particular feature in the workplace (Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

The last advance according to Schneider and Reichers was that people make sense out of clusters of psychologically related events. This means that there are numerous events, practices and procedures that people perceive and attach a meaning to. Therefore, there may be many different types of climate in one workplace, for example, a climate for safety, a climate of innovation, or a climate for achievement (Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

2.2.3 Individual perception vs an aggregated team perception

Aggregating the individual perception scores in order to find a measure of a team's climate score has been a contentious issue since the construct was developed (Baer & Frese, 2003).

James, Joyce and Slocum (1988) are of the opinion that it is justifiable to label organizational climate as the collective perception of all the individuals in the team. Through this approach, climate would be defined as the shared perceptions that a group or team infer from organizational policies, practices and procedures (Anderson & West, 1998). Climate influences individual behaviour, and therefore climate also indicates the kinds of behaviour that are expected and that get rewarded and supported within an organization (Schneider, Brief & Guzzo, 1996).

Researchers started to consider individuals' descriptions of practices and procedures as representing the view of the organization (Schneider, 1975). The locus of explanation of climate is the individual and is therefore on a psychological level (James & McIntyre, 1996). This means that the perceptions of individuals, working in a team, could be aggregated to indicate the climate in that subsection of the organization because the aggregated perceptions indicate how individuals feel about their organization (Schneider & Reichers, 1983; James, Joyce & Slocum, 1988; Baer & Frese, 2003; Mathisen, Einarsen, Jørstad & Brønnick, 2004). Perceptual agreement justifies aggregation of individual perception scores because such agreement implies a shared assignment of meaning (James, Joyce & Slocum, 1988).

These shared perceptions are developed through social interaction and the influence of new members by existing members of the organization (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). A shared assignment of meaning also justifies aggregation to a higher level of analysis because it facilitates a way of relating a construct like psychological climate on an individual level to another form of construct at a different level of analysis like team climate (James, Joyce & Slocum, 1988). This shared assignment of meaning is the result of the joint experience of individuals in a team and justifies the traditional practice that the research on a climate for innovation was mostly done on a team level (Mathisen *et al.*, 2004).

If the perceptions are then shared, they can be described in statistical measures of central tendencies (James, Joyce & Slocum, 1988). The use of aggregated individual scores allows researchers the opportunity to describe environments in psychological terms (James, Joyce & Slocum, 1988).

Schneider (1990) describes climate as an assigned label to a perception of routines in the workplace and the rewards thereof. Perception becomes the basic diagnostic data of climate research (James, Joyce & Slocum, 1988; Schneider, 1990). Although individuals are the source of these perceptions, it is not always clear under what conditions individuals' perceptions may be aggregated to reflect the shared perception of a work team (Schneider, 1990). James, Joyce and Slocum (1988) believe that if individuals in an organization share

perceptions on a dimension such as conflict or innovation, it is possible to aggregate their scores because “perceptual agreement implies a shared assignment of meaning” (James, Joyce & Slocum, 1988:129; Mathisen *et al.*, 2004; Baer & Frese, 2004). Schneider (1990) highlights this argument as a distinction between the individual as the unit of data and the work team as the unit of analysis. James and McIntyre (1996) believe that there is no inconsistency to define a construct as psychological when referring to an individual’s perception of climate and then also to use the construct to describe higher levels of analysis when referring to the aggregated perceptions of individuals in teams. This can be done on condition that the team members agree on their perception of a specific aspect. If there is consensus, this can be interpreted as a shared meaning (Denison, 1996).

James and McIntyre (1996) are of the opinion that the definition of climate is in the eyes of the individual and therefore a psychological construct. They believe that individuals respond to work environment in terms of how they perceive it and then simultaneously attach a meaning to the situation. If the team becomes the unit of analysis, it is then correct to aggregate the team members’ climate scores to form a team climate perception. If the team members agree on the perception of the situation, or policy and procedures, then it can be described as a shared perception (Schneider, 1990; James & McIntyre, 1996; Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann & Hirst, 2002; Mathisen *et al.*, 2004).

Anderson and West (1998) believe that three conditions should be present for perceptions to be shared in a team. They believe that:

individuals should frequently interact during their normal working hours;
the team should have common goals that align and influence them to act collectively; and
there is sufficient task interdependence to urge team members into a shared understanding and expected pattern of behaviour (Anderson & West, 1998).

Anderson and West (1998) acknowledge that these three aspects are not the only variables to influence shared perceptions. They agree that, for example, exposure to common experiences in a team context may lead to members sharing an understanding of their experience. Anderson and West (1998) believe that it is most likely that a common apprehension of experience will develop where individuals have the opportunity to interact and co-construct perceptions within their normal work environment. However, this would probably occur more in a team context than in the greater organization because the three factors mentioned above would be more identifiable in a team context. This construct emphasises the challenge to measure whether such a shared perception does exist in a team.

2.2.4 *Generic or facet specific*

Climate researchers have always agreed that it was difficult to define the climate notion on its own. It is difficult to measure it as a general construct, as the measurement might include more than one subdimension. The answer was to deconstruct the notion into subdomains or facet specific constructs (Schneider 1975; Anderson & West, 1998). This made it easier to measure the different perceptions of individual team members of the same dimension (Anderson & West, 1998; Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

Schneider (1975) argued that organizations, and therefore also teams, have multiple climates representing multiple perceptions of different aspects of the organization's functioning. Given this argument, researchers soon realized that general measures of climate subsumed measures of, for example, leadership, group interaction, and job satisfaction, which lead some researchers to question the uniqueness of the original construct (Dickson *et al.*, 2001). To overcome this problem, researchers focused the construct on the particular types of climates that can emerge in an organization, for example a climate for safety, a climate for leadership, or a climate for innovation (, 1983; Anderson & West, 1996; Anderson & West, 1998; Dickson *et al.*, 2001; Schneider, 1975; Schneider & Reichers).

According to Anderson and West (1998) the test would be to make sure that a measurement of a team climate of innovativeness, with the team as unit of analysis, does indeed measure the shared perception of the team members on innovation within the context of the team, and that the validity and reliability of the construct can be proven (Anderson & West, 1998).

The most studied model of a facet specific concept is the model developed by Anderson and West from the initial four-factor model proposed by West (1990) for a team climate for innovation (Anderson and West, 1996; Mathisen, Einarsen, Jorstad & Bronnick, 2004). According to this model, group innovation essentially relates to four group factors, namely vision, participative safety, task orientation and support for innovation. Groups who agree on objectives and who are guided by an aligned vision will probably produce innovative working methods, more so than groups who are not focused (Kivimaki, Kuk, Eloviano, Thomson, Kalliomaki-Levanto & Heikkila, 1997). The model stresses the importance of participation in decision-making as this increases the likelihood of members investing in the outcome of the decision and then being willing to offer new ideas (Kivimaki *et al.*, 1997). However, this will only be possible if the members feel safe to participate and know that the rest of the team will value their contributions. The third factor in the model represents the team's task orientation. According to Anderson and West's model, this factor measures the dedication of the team to continuously challenge the standard of performance and includes a progress monitoring procedure (Ragazzoni, *et al.*, 2002). This dedication is based on high standards but also organizational support for innovation (Kivimaki *et al.*, 1997).

2.2.5 TCI four factor theory

It is important to understand the theory of West's model in order to understand the proposed interaction of the variables under research in this study. West (1990) proposes that innovation can be measured in terms of both quantity and quality. According to West, quantity refers to the number of new ideas introduced and complemented according to predetermined criteria of significance. Quality can be assessed in three ways, namely in relation to the newness of the idea; to the rated significance of the idea, and to the ultimate effectiveness of the idea (West, 1990).

2.2.6 Vision

Vision represents a higher-level outcome or goal that acts as an inspiration for the team members (Anderson & West, 1998). This idealized vision should be achievable in order to motivate innovation. If the goal is set too high, it becomes demotivating and if too low, it does not inspire action or innovativeness. Vision also implies an additional value component to the objective (West, 1990).

The vision acts as a facilitator of innovation. The clearer the vision, the more effective it will enable innovation as it acts as a benchmark against which all new ideas are measured (West, 1990).

West believes that a shared involvement of the team in setting a vision will align thoughts and will foster greater commitment towards common goals in the team. This, according to West (1990), stands in contrast to a vision that was imposed on the team to follow. Such a vision will more likely alienate team members and will have a negative influence on team members (West, 1990).

2.2.7 Participative safety

Participative safety describes an atmosphere that is conducive to participating in team activities such as decision-making and which is non-threatening but rather one of trust and support. In a climate of participative safety, individuals feel safe to invest energy and emotions as contribution to a bigger team effort (Anderson & West, 1998; Kivimaki, Kuk, Eloviano, Thomson, Kalliomaki-Levanto & Heikkila, 1997). In a participative safety climate, interpersonal processes are non-judgemental and supportive of the individual contributions and are characterized by socio-emotional cohesiveness (West, 1990). It is believed that through influence, interacting and information sharing, team members contribute towards the results of decisions as a team and also offer new innovative ways of working because they

feel emotionally safe to do so (West, 1990). Contrary to this statement it is argued that if an individual feels that proposing a new idea will lead the rest of the team to censor the idea, the person will feel less inclined to make the proposal (West, 1990).

West (1990) refers to research that concurred that centralization of decision-making processes inhibits innovation at all levels of the organization. The same research argues that where decision-making is devolved, especially in flat organizational structures, there will be more autonomy and a more effective flow of information, which will always stimulate innovation (West, 1990).

2.2.8 Task orientation

This factor implies a commitment to team performance at the highest possible standards and is linked to a climate that supports changes to policies and procedures in order to sustain performance (Anderson & West, 1998; Kivimaki, et al., 1997).

The characteristics of a team with a high task orientation, or a climate for excellence as it is also called, are an emphasis on individual and team accountability, control systems for evaluating and modifying performance and critical approaches to quality of task performance. Other characteristics are also inter-team advice, feedback and cooperation, mutual monitoring and appraisal of performance and ideas (West, 1990). According to West (1990), a commitment to excellence creates a demanding group environment in which new and existing practices are appraised and challenged. Team members are likely to monitor each other's work and encourage high standards in an effort to control possible risks and non-conformance with agreed performance standards (West, 1990).

2.2.9 Support for innovation

The fourth factor in West's model for a climate of innovation is a support for innovation. New ideas within a group may either be supported or rejected. Verbal support is offered to help develop or support new ideas. Time, resources and cooperation are offered to endorse practical support for innovative ideas and suggestions. However, team members may also not support innovative ideas and will either reject innovative proposals or withhold practical support by ignoring requests for assistance in this regard. In a climate of high support for innovation it can be expected that there will be a safe environment to participate with a tolerance for error if the new idea fails to work (West, 1990). The team therefore creates a climate for safe experimentation in support of innovation (West, 1990; Anderson & West, 1998; Bain, Mann, & Pirola-Merlo, 2001; Kivimaki, et al., 1997). West (1990) finally stresses the importance of senior management's support for innovation. Their support will almost

guarantee the implementation of any new idea that is aligned with corporate goals and values.

2.3 Summary

A team climate is formed when there is consensus by the individual team members on their perception of their teams' work context. This climate construct can be more specific by identifying the particular climate on which the team members form their perception. Their behaviour is guided by their interpretation of this climate. Research results have emphasized that individual behaviour and attitudes are influenced by group context (Kozlowski & Hults, 1987; Mossholder & Bedeian, 1983). If, therefore, the team members' perception can be influenced by affective reciprocation and by predispositional orientation of team members, then a solid start was made to answer questions one and two of the research questions posed in Chapter One.

2.4 Emotional Intelligence

2.4.1 Introduction

As the name emotional intelligence indicates, the construct was built on two main focus areas in psychology (emotion and intelligence), while a third, motivation, was not directly instrumental in the development of the construct. It is widely acknowledged that psychologists consider the mind in three main divisions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Firstly, the cognitive sphere includes functions such as memory and reasoning as well as abstract thought. Psychologists link the level of intelligence to the cognitive sphere to the extent of how well the cognitive sphere functions. To a certain extent, cognition serves motivation and emotion in that it solves problems so "that motivational needs may be met and emotions maintained at an acceptable level of positivity over time" (Mayer, 2001:415). Secondly, emotions are also called the affective sphere of mental functioning and include, amongst other things, moods, emotions and other feelings. It appears to signal and react to changes in the individual's relationship with his or her environment (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

Before the concept of emotional intelligence is discussed, a brief overview of the two separate constructs, intelligence and emotion, may be of value. This is to illustrate that some previous work may have served as basis in the development of the emotional intelligence construct (Schutte & Malouff, 1999; Sipsma, 2000).

2.4.2 Intelligence

Sternberg and Salter (1984) defined intelligence as goal-directed adaptive behaviour. They shifted the established idea that intelligent behaviour is the result of stimulus and reaction, to intelligent behaviour as the mental processes between the stimulus and response. The goal-directed element is linked to the adaptive character of intelligence and is common to most definitions of intelligence (Sternberg & Salter, 1984). Adaptive character refers to the problem-solving notion and the ability to find a solution to contextual problems (Sternberg & Salter, 1984). This intelligent behaviour is a counter-reaction to external demands. The authors argued that the most important characteristic of intelligent behaviour is the urge to solve life's problems in context.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) state that the twentieth century was marked with numerous attempts to identify new intelligences. According to them, researchers developed measures "for as many intelligences as they could imagine" (Mayer & Salovey, 1997:7). However, if all these are examined, there are some correlations among them, with perhaps three subgroups. The groups are verbal-propositional intelligence, which includes vocabulary and verbal fluency; spatial-performance intelligence, which includes abilities to reconstruct designs and assemble objects; and then social intelligence, which concerns itself with people's skills in relation with one another (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Social intelligence had its own controversy, as it could not be distinguished from the other more separate groupings. According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), the major mid-century intelligence test, the Wechsler's Intelligence Scale, did not even measure social intelligence, as it was believed that the other two groupings sufficiently included social aspects to cover this concept (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). This prompted Salovey and Mayer (1990) to replace social intelligence with emotional intelligence in order to combine a group of skills that would be different from verbal-propositional as well as special-performance intelligence and yet be recognized as a separate group of intelligences to be worthy of inclusion in the suggested intelligence triad. The worthiness of inclusion was, according to Mayer and Salovey (1997), that emotional reasoning was possible and could therefore be considered as an intelligence. They emphasized that emotional intelligence was not a preferred way of behaving or a trait and it was not a non-intellectual ability or talent (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Contrary to a trait or talent, an individual might have an actual ability to know what another person is feeling based on considerable thinking processes, and this ability could therefore be considered an intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Goleman (1995) acknowledge the theory developed by Mayer and Salovey, which places emotional intelligence within a model of intelligence. Goleman (1995) also acknowledge Bar-on's theory of placing emotional intelligence in a personality theory context with a focus on well-being. With these two frameworks in mind,

Goleman positions his own emotional intelligence model within the performance theory (Goleman, 1995). Goleman believes that an emotional intelligence based theory of performance has a direct influence on work and organizational effectiveness and, more importantly, can be used to predict success in all kinds of organizational functions including leadership (Goleman, 1995). These different viewpoints will be discussed in more detail later in the chapter.

Gardner (1999) developed a theory of multiple intelligences, consisting of seven different intelligences, namely linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, bodily, kinaesthetic, spatial and personal intelligence. The latter is further defined into intrapersonal and interpersonal and is also referred to as personal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence refers to the ability to internally distinguish among own feelings and to decide which feeling to reject and which to accept as beneficial to the self. Interpersonal denotes a person's ability "to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people and, consequently, to work effectively with others" (Gardner, 1999: 43).

In an effort to describe human faculties, Gardner (1999) first defined intelligence as "the ability to solve problems or to create products that are valued within one or more cultural settings" (Gardner, 1999:33). Since then Gardner has refined the definition of intelligence as "a bi-psychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture" (Gardner, 1999:34). In essence, Gardner hereby expanded the traditional known definition of intelligence to more than one and therefore included many capacities that fell outside the traditional scope of intelligence. In essence, this was a confirmation that Mayer and Salovey's emotional intelligence model based on a cognitive framework could be included into this expanded definition of intelligence.

2.4.3 Emotions

According to Sternberg and Salter (1984) emotion will manifest itself physiologically or behaviourally as response to internal or external factors. They also believe that this response is motivated by previous psychologically coded experience, which triggers emotional behaviour. There is general agreement that emotion and cognition are closely linked, yet there is disagreement on which of the two factors comes first.

Not all people and cultures categorize emotions the same, but similarities exist, especially in the way people express and identify emotions (Sternberg & Salter, 1984). Salovey and Mayer (1990) see emotions as cognitively organized responses to either internal or external events and reckon that they have some meaning to the individual, be that negative or positive.

This organized response is adaptive, which means that the individual's emotions may change when interacting with an external experience (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Although emotions are private, they also occur in response to our relationships with people and situations we encounter (Mayer, 2001). Emotions evoke several basic behavioural responses to the relationship, for example crying when sad, or fighting when there is fear (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

Emotions serve to strengthen our relationships with people and experiences we encounter. Levenson (1999) proposes that emotions also help us to avoid situations or people that we recognize as previously negative experiences. Emotions are expressed to others by behaviour, e.g. facial, vocal or postural reactions (Gross & John, 1994). Averill (1998) believes that emotions can be considered as a form of communication interacting between the inner self and the social environment.

2.4.4 Emotional Intelligence: An introduction

During the past ten years, emotional intelligence became a popular research topic. Salovey and Mayer (1990) proposed that emotional intelligence consists of three main categories of adaptive abilities, namely appraisal and expression of emotion, regulation of emotion and the utilization of emotion in solving problems and decision-making (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Härtel & Hooper, 2002; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden *et al.*, 1998;). In 1995, Goleman popularized the concept by claiming that his emotional intelligence model could predict success, particularly at work, by helping people to work better, to communicate more efficiently and to make better decisions. The claim that emotional intelligence could help increase productivity was something that caught the imagination of all organizations struggling to improve efficiency (Goleman, 1995; Schutte *et al.*, 1998). Salovey & Mayer (1997) criticized the Goleman-model particularly because they viewed the claims about its contribution to performance and success as exaggerated.

The Goleman arguments, which are discussed in more detail later in the chapter, are, however, empirically supported by the research of Reuven Bar-on (2003). Bar-on (2003) refers to two major studies where the connection between emotional and social intelligence and performance in an organizational context was researched. The first was done in the United States Air Force comparing emotional intelligence scores (measured with Bar-on's EQ-I instrument) and low performing military recruiters. The results suggested unequivocally that successful recruiters were more emotionally intelligent than the less successful ones (Bar-on, 2003). The following subscales of emotional intelligence were highlighted as the main contributors to predict performance in USAF recruiters: assertiveness, problem-solving, social relationship, reality testing, and emotional self-awareness (Bar-on, 2003). The results

indicated that approximately “24% of the variance in the performance of recruiters can be accounted for by emotional and social intelligence” (Bar-on, 2003:7).

The second reference is to a study by Ruderman at the Centre for Creative Leadership for which Bar-on analysed the results (Bar-on, 2003). From a sample of 300 executives, a subsample of 126 individuals was selected to match the number of male and female participants. Their emotional and social intelligence were measured by Bar-on’s EQ-I and each individual’s leadership ability was assessed by an internally developed 360° multirater, called “*Benchmarks*” (Bar-on, 2003:8). The results indicated a very strong correlation between emotional and social intelligence and leadership, meaning that at least 64% of effective leadership is based on emotional and social intelligence (Bar-on, 2003).

Bar-on’s research not only indicated that emotionally and socially intelligent people’s performance may increase but also that it is possible to educate people to act more emotionally and socially intelligently (Stein & Book, 2001; Bar-on, 2003).

2.4.5 Emotional Intelligence defined

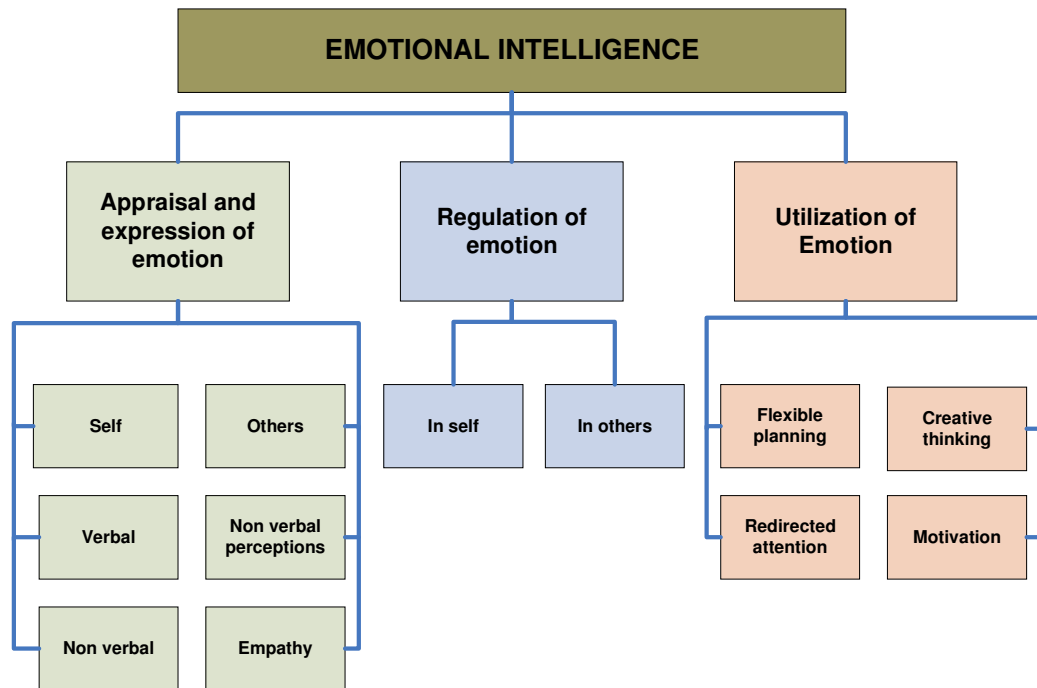
The concept of emotional intelligence as defined by Salovey and Mayer (1990) has its roots in social intelligence. A theme that is consistent throughout all of these different theories is that social intelligence is an ability to understand people (Fatt, 2000; Gardner, 1985; Sternberg, 1986). The concept of emotional intelligence will be discussed from three different viewpoints in an effort to try and highlight what areas of agreement there are between the three.

2.5 Salovey and Mayer

Salovey and Mayer (1990) define emotional intelligence as the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions. The model in Figure 2.1 depicts this very well.

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), there are mental processes involving emotional information. Although these processes are common to all people, there are important individual differences. The importance is twofold: firstly because it is commonly acknowledged that people differ in their capacity to understand and express emotions, and secondly that these differences may be rooted in skills that can be learned and which could contribute to the individual’s mental health (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The model of Salovey and Mayer (1990) is briefly described in its different individual components.

Figure 2. 1: Conceptualization of Emotional Intelligence



Adapted from: Salovey and Mayer, (1990)

2.5.1 Appraisal and Expression

Emotion in the Self

The appraisal and expression processes mean that emotion rich information enters the perceptual system of the individual. Emotional intelligence processes the feelings for an accurate appraisal and is then expressed in a particular behavioural manner.

This behaviour may be expressed in a verbal manner through language. The ability to appraise and express one's own emotion would be to accurately do introspection of oneself and coherently express it verbally. This ability can, according to Salovey and Mayer (1990), be taught and therefore enhanced.

The emotion can also be expressed in a non-verbal fashion and the importance thereof is often overlooked (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This occurs through facial expression, the absence of words and signals through body posture.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) made it clear that the more accurate the appraisal is, the quicker the response to own emotion and the better the expression of those emotions to others will be.

Emotions in others

Interaction between people is much smoother whenever emotions are accurately perceived in themselves as well as those around them (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Empathy is the ability to understand other people's feelings and re-experience them. People with a high level of emotional intelligence would have a strong empathic ability. People with a high degree of empathy also have other abilities to enhance empathy, like to understand another person's viewpoint and to acknowledge it. These abilities enable individuals to accurately gauge the emotional responses in others and to then choose socially adaptive behaviour in response (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Regulation of Emotion

In regulating one's own emotions and to a certain extent regulate or perhaps influence the emotions of others, Salovey and Mayer (1990) believe that it is easier to explain this concept with a discussion on moods rather than emotions. Moods are usually less intense than emotions, but normally last longer.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) argue that moods occur automatically and are thus indirectly perceived. A person may, however, consciously prefer to experience it again, like enjoyment when dancing and then decide to do it again in order to experience a pleasant mood.

One can also choose the company of positive and successful people. In seeking information of positive views and behaviour that enhances these results, the negative moods are terminated. Apart from the decision to accept a positive thought, one may also decide to do so by regulating the mood through behaviour, for example by exercising when feeling depressed (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Moods may be modified directly too (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). A person will generally remember positive and pleasant memories rather than negative experiences. It is therefore assumed that individuals attempt to maximize the pleasurable memories and use consciously controlled mechanisms to enhance the experiences (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It is also true that people seek emotional experiences that are not always pleasant, like watching a sad movie or a tragic play. Salovey and Mayer (1990) are of the opinion that this behaviour is perhaps rooted in the contrast that "one must experience sorrow, at least temporarily, in order to feel joy" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990:197).

Regulation of Emotion in Others

Salovey and Mayer (1990) believe it is possible to regulate and alter the emotional reaction of others. They use an example of the impression that a well versed candidate, on time and dressed to create a favourable impression, leave on a recruitment committee. They describe skilled behaviour aimed at deliberately influencing the opinion of others. Salovey and Mayer (1990) describe how emotionally intelligent people may “enhance their own and others’ moods and even manage emotions so as to motivate others charismatically towards a worthwhile end” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990:198). Of course, this may also be true of a negative influence on someone for an antisocial goal.

After the first definition of emotional intelligence of Salovey and Mayer (1990), research on the concept grew in popularity. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) then revisited the original construct of Salovey and Mayer. Their new definition was formally defined as “emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others” (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000:396). The major development on the first version of Salovey and Mayer was to indicate how and in what sense emotions convey information, “and by adding explicit discussion of the fact that a central portion of emotional intelligence involves reasoning with or understanding of emotions” (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000:400). The model is also more specific in that a large part of emotional intelligence depends on reasoning with or understanding emotions. The role of emotional effectiveness in social adaptation is also more prominent (Mayer *et al.* 2000b). Through the new definition, Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) view the added value to the abilities as:

Perception and appraisal of emotion is to identify and express emotions in one’s feelings and thoughts and also emotion in other people, artwork and language, etc.;

To assimilate emotional experience in the mind, including weighing emotions up against one another, and assimilating emotions with other sensations like smell or sound;

To understand and reason about emotions. Specific emotions like anger, happiness and fear are governed by emotional rules and would therefore, if known and understood, be recognizable when they appear. Emotional intelligence then involves the ability to recognize emotions, to know how they would influence behaviour and to reason about them;

The fourth, and according to Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) the highest level of emotional intelligence, is the ability to manage and regulate emotions in oneself and in others. This

ability enables one to monitor and regulate emotions reflectively in order to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

With reference to their changed model, Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000a) warn against the popular use of concepts without the responsibility to classify and to use concepts in the context and coherent relation in which they were developed. Mayer *et al.*, (2000a) find it difficult to relate emotional intelligence equal to personality. Mayer *et al.* (2000a) refer to the use of concepts like motivation, emotion, cognition and consciousness as subdimensions when emotional intelligence is discussed, but according to Mayer *et al.* (2000a), these terms are used in personality psychology as “four basic processes that make up personality’s near biological foundation” (Mayer *et al.*, 2000a:98). These processes cannot directly be linked to some kind of intelligence (emotional intelligence in this case). Mayer *et al.* (2000a) believe that intelligence could be described as a cognitive problem solving ability and the four personality processes cannot be linked to problem solving abilities.

An interesting addition to the new version of their model is the prediction of several outcomes of emotional intelligence in people. According to Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000), emotionally intelligent people have more likely grown up in emotionally sensitive and socially adaptive households. They are probably non-defensive because emotions are understood, are managed and are influenced. Such individuals will also choose strong emotional role models because they can recognize and appreciate the ability in these people. The model can also predict that emotionally intelligent people can communicate and discuss feelings better and can do social problem solving (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

2.6 Bar-on

Intelligence (IQ) has long been measured by standardized intelligence tests like the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children. Over the past decades, these tests have proven to be effective measures to predict scholastic performance, but weak when used to predict performance in the workplace (Bar-on, 2003).

In order to try and solve this problem, Bar-on developed the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) measure. His theory of emotional and social intelligence supports this measure and guides research on emotionally and socially competent behaviour. On this theory a construct was built that can, amongst other things, predict performance in the workplace (Bar-on, 2000). Bar-on’s theory is based on the premise that personal traits and abilities, which should be considered with emotional and social intelligence in mind, influence our ability to cope with social and other environmental demands (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003). The ability to deal with strong emotions and control one’s impulses and, secondly, the ability to adapt to change and to solve problems, do not appear so strongly in the other two EI-theories of Mayer *et al.*, and of Goleman.

Bar-on describes the intelligence component of the emotional intelligence construct as a collection of knowledge or an aggregate of abilities, competencies and skills used to cope with life effectively (Sipsma, 2000). Bar-on prefers to define the construct of emotional intelligence as emotional and social intelligence. He believes to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to “effectively understand and express ourselves, to understand and relate well to others and to successfully cope with daily demands and pressures” (Bar-on, 2003:4).

Bar-on (2003) emphasizes the need to be optimistic and positive and to be able to control one’s emotions. He claims that his emotional and social intelligence model predicts the potential to succeed in life rather than the success as output. He also believes that the normal Intelligence Quotient (IQ) does not alone measure intelligence, but that together with his Emotional Quotient Inventory, a more balanced view of intelligence is perceived (Bar-on, 2003; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

Bar-on’s self-report measure of emotional and social intelligence, the EQ-I, is recognized as a significant measure for emotional intelligence next to that of Mayer and Salovey. This measure was developed over 17 years and normed on 3 831 adults and was the first emotional intelligence measure to be published by a psychological test publisher (Bar-on, 2003).

The measure consists of five components and 15 content components of emotional intelligence. The following model was adapted from an illustration of the different components of his emotional intelligence measure, namely the EQ-I scale, and depicts Bar-on’s emotional and social intelligence model:

Figure 2.2: Bar-on's emotional and social intelligence model

MAIN COMPONENT	SUB COMPONENT	COMPETENCY
Intra-personal	Self-regard	To accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself
	Emotional self-awareness	To be aware of and understand one's own emotions
	Assertiveness	To effectively and constructively express one's emotions and oneself.
	Independence	To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others
	Self-actualization	To strive to achieve personal goals and actualise one's potential.
Inter-personal	Empathy	To be aware of and understand how others feel
	Social responsibility	To identify with one's social group and cooperate with others
	Inter-personal relationship	To establish mutual satisfying relationships and relate well with others
Stress management	Stress tolerance	To effectively and constructively manage emotions
	Self-regard	To effectively and constructively control emotions
Adaptability	Reality-testing	To objectively validate one's feelings and thinking with external reality
	Flexibility	To adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations
	Problem-solving	To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature
General mood	Optimism	To be positive and look at the brighter side of life
	Happiness	To feel content with oneself, others and life in general

Adapted from Bar-on (2003)

Bar-on (2003) has collected empirical evidence through several studies that there is significant correlation between emotional intelligence and occupational performance. Two major studies Bar-on referred to were the United States Air Force Recruiters performance study and the Center for Creative Leadership Study comparing emotional intelligence scores of executive members with their successful leadership rate. Both results indicated that the correlation between emotional intelligence scores (measured with EQ-I) and performance in the workplace was significant (Bar-on, 2003). Bar-on (2003) further refers to the impact of emotional and social intelligence on physical wellness. He quotes Krivoy's study (Krivoy *et al.* in Bar-on, 2003:8) where she compared adolescent cancer survivors with a group of cancer patients with no previous cancer history. The results indicated a connection between emotional intelligence and physical wellness with aspects like assertiveness, emotional independence, stress tolerance, optimism and self-actualization as success indicators (Bar-on, 2003). Bar-on lastly refers to empirical evidence that emotional intelligence competencies in the workplace can be enhanced when he refers to the study of Sjölund at the Swedish Skanska construction company. After a workshop on emotional intelligence skill training, significant increases in the participants' emotional intelligence scores were observed (Bar-on, 2003). According to Bar-on (2003), emotional and social intelligence can be used as a predictor of performance in the workplace. Furthermore, it can be used to understand others

more effectively and understand and express us better and use these skills to successfully cope with daily pressures of life (Bar-on, 2003).

2.7 Goleman

There was growing concern among social science researchers about how little traditional intelligence tests measured ability to be successful in life. Cherniss (2000) refers to enough research results to indicate that IQ is not a good predictor of job performance. This was the cornerstone for Goleman's first book, *Emotional Intelligence* (1995). He was convinced that social and emotional abilities play an important role in personal success in the workplace and that it could be used to predict the potential to be successful in a work environment (Goleman, 1995). Goleman's claim that emotional intelligence could predict success in the workplace resulted in criticism, of which Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) can be specifically noted.

Goleman's model is based on emotional competencies and he believes that the level of emotional intelligence determines the potential to be emotionally competent. Goleman defined five sets of competencies, each consisting of different skills. Figure 2.3 illustrates this initial model:

Figure 2.3: Goleman's Emotional Competence Framework

EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE FRAMEWORK	
PERSONAL COMPETENCE	
COMPETENCE	SKILL
SELF-AWARENESS	Emotional awareness: Know which emotions they are feeling
	Accurate Self-Assessment: Aware of one's strengths and weaknesses
	Self-Confidence: Present themselves with "presence".
SELF-REGULATION	Self-Control: Stay composed and positive under pressure.
	Trustworthiness: Act ethically
	Conscientiousness: Meet their objectives



	Adaptability: Are flexible in how they see events.
	Innovativeness: Generate new ideas
SELF-MOTIVATION	Achievement Drive: Set challenging goals and take calculated risks. Learn how to improve their performance.
	Commitment: Readily make personal or group sacrifices.
	Initiative: Pursue goals beyond what is required of them.
	Optimism: Operate from hope of success rather than fear.
SOCIAL COMPETENCE	
<i>SOCIAL AWARENESS</i>	Empathy: Listen well. Show sensitivity and understand others' perspectives.
	Service Orientated: Understand customers' needs and match them to service.
	Developing Others: Acknowledge and reward people's strengths and accomplishments
	Leveraging Diversity: Respect and relate well to people of diverse backgrounds.
	Political Awareness: Accurately read power relationships.
SOCIAL SKILLS	Influence: Are skilled at persuasion.
	Communication: Listen well and seek mutual understanding.
	Leadership: Articulate enthusiasm for a shared vision.
	Change Catalyst: Recognize the need for change and remove barriers.
	Conflict Management: Orchestrate win-win solutions.
	Building Bonds: Seek out relationships that are mutually beneficial.

	Collaboration and Cooperation: Balance a focus on task with attention to relationships.
	Team Capabilities: Create group synergy in pursuing collective goals.

Adapted from: Goleman, (1998)

Emmerling and Goleman (2003) believe that emotional competencies refer to the level of specific skills and abilities that individuals have and which strengthen their emotional intelligence and allow them greater effectiveness in the workplace. Goleman therefore argues that emotional intelligence is not the factor on which any prediction of success is built. An individual's level of emotional intelligence will indicate the extent to which he/she will be able to master the skills and abilities needed for a given emotional competence (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003).

Emotional influence is possible according to Goleman (1998). He believes that the skill to regulate another person's emotions enables one also to influence such a person's behaviour. This influence, according to Goleman (1998), is nothing new and occurs naturally in everyday personal interaction. Emotions are action triggers and are indicators on which one focuses one's energy and attention at a specific moment. Goleman (1998) maintains that people who are skilled in influencing other's emotions effectively, usually anticipate the emotional reaction their emotional intervention will have and lead their audience to the desired emotional state. People who are not skilled to understand other's emotional signals will be unable to react with empathy and will be unable to influence the emotions of others (Goleman, 1998).

Goleman states that persuasion is built on a shared perception, for example decision-making in a team on what should be done next, or how a particular problem should be solved. This is a direct result of influencing other people's emotions that would inevitably influence their behaviour. The skill to convince people is, according to Goleman (1998), offering them what is appealing in the given situation. This often requires complex strategies to appeal to their emotional state in order to reach consensus.

Goleman's revised Framework of Emotional Competences offers strong elements of interpersonal influence. With reference to the social competence part of the model, Goleman defines two groups of competencies, namely Social Awareness and Relationship Management. In the Social Awareness group, empathy and organizational awareness can be highlighted as competencies to facilitate greater interpersonal relationships in a team.

To have empathy with someone would imply that you are aware and understand the other's emotions and concerns (Goleman, 2001). Goleman (2001) believes that this is only possible if you are aware of and understand your own emotions. Goleman (2001) refers to examples of

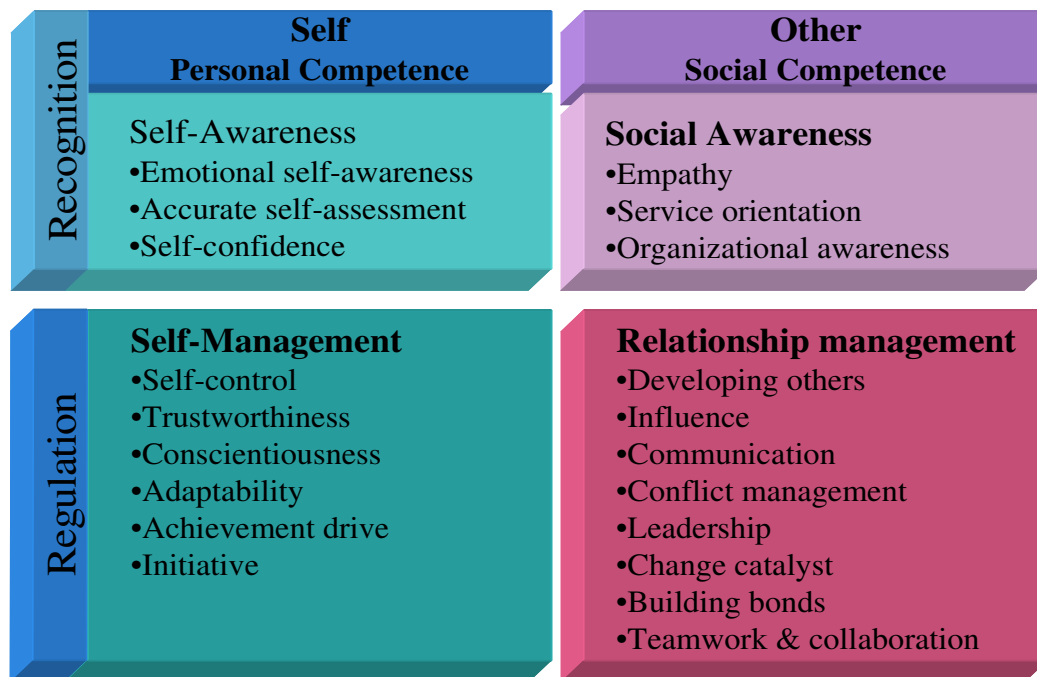
successful doctors based on their empathy competence in comparison to their less successful colleagues who show less empathy during consultations and who are considered as less successful owing to their apparent inability to effectively understand the emotions of their patients.

Individuals with an organizational awareness ability can understand the emotional and political signs within a group. This awareness is on a higher organizational level and not only limited to an interpersonal one-on-one relationship (Goleman, 2001). According to Goleman (2001), successful individuals in organizations share this ability. These individuals can easily dissociate themselves from their own biases, and are able to respond to others' emotions more effectively (Goleman, 2001).

The Relationship Management group of competencies has a number of competencies aimed at influencing behaviour within a team.

Goleman's revised model can be depicted as follows:

Figure 2.4: Goleman's revised Framework of Emotional Intelligence Competencies



Adapted from: Emmerling & Goleman (2003).

In the model above, the four domains form the foundation for the 20 different competencies of learned abilities, but these competencies depend on the strength of the relevant domain they

are accommodated in (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003). Influencing team members to attune to a certain emotion would therefore need a strong relation management domain.

Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002) theorizes that a team with a high emotional intelligence level would have a high work-group cohesion. It could also be expected that an emotionally intelligent team would be more goal-focused than a team with a low emotional intelligence level (Jordan et al., 2002). Druskat (2001) argues that a team with high emotional intelligence would understand that in bringing the team members' emotions into the open for the rest of the team to recognize could strengthen the interrelationships of the team members. This ability of a team to manage its emotions could cultivate a climate of trust, cooperation and effectiveness (Abraham, 1999; Druskat, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002).

2.8 Comparing the three models

The following summarizes the core differences between the three models:

Figure 2.5: Three competing models all labelled “Emotional Intelligence”

Mayer & Salovey (1997)	Bar-On (1997)	Goleman (1995)
Overall Definition	Overall Definition	Overall Definition
“Emotional intelligence is the set of abilities that account for how people’s emotion perception and understanding vary in their accuracy. More formally, we define emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others.” (After Mayer & Salovey, 1997)	“Emotional intelligence is...an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures.” (Bar-On, 1997, p.14)	“The abilities called here emotional intelligence, which induce self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself.” (Goleman, 1995), “There is an old-fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: <i>character</i> ” (Goleman, 1995, p.28)
Major areas of skills and specific examples	Major areas of skills and specific examples	Major areas of skills and specific examples
Perception and Expression of Emotion Identifying and expressing emotions in one’s physical	Intrapersonal Skills: Emotional self-awareness Assertiveness Self-regard	Knowing One’s Emotions Recognising a feeling as it happens Monitoring feelings from



<p>states, feelings and thoughts. Identifying and expressing emotions in other people, artwork, language, etc.</p> <p>Assimilating Emotion in Thought Emotions prioritize thinking in productive ways Emotions generated as aids to judgement and memory</p> <p>Understanding and Analysing Emotion Ability to label emotions, including complex emotions and simultaneous feelings Ability to understand relationships associated with shifts of emotion</p> <p>Reflective Regulation of Emotion Ability to stay open to feelings Ability to monitor and regulate emotions, reflectivity to promote emotional and intellectual growth (after Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p.11)</p>	<p>Self-actualisation Independence Interpersonal Skills Interpersonal relationships Social responsibility Empathy Adaptability Scales Problem solving Reality testing Flexibility Stress-Management Scales Stress tolerance Impulse control General Mood Happiness Optimism</p>	<p>moment to moment Management Emotions Handling feelings so they are appropriate Ability to soothe oneself Ability to shake off rampant anxiety, gloom, or irritability Motivating Oneself Marshalling emotions in the service of a goal Delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness Being able to get into the 'flow' state Recognising Emotions in Others Empathic awareness Attunement to what others need or want Handling Relationships Skill in managing emotions in others Interacting smoothly with others</p>
Model Type	Model Type	Model Type
Ability	Mixed	Mixed

Adapted from: Mayer, Salovey & Caruso (2000)

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) refer to their own model as an ability model and to those of Bar-on and Goleman as mixed models. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) describe their revised model as their contribution to distinguish between intelligence as conceptualized in their model and human effectiveness as the focus of the other two models. Mayer and Salovey (1997) developed their emotional intelligence model in an effort to explain individual

differences in the ability to recognize, understand, express, control and reflect emotion and emotional information. Mayer and Salovey (1997) cast their model within a framework of intelligence, based on mental abilities and cognitive processes and could therefore define their model as an ability model. This aspect is further confirmed by the moderate correlation that the measure of Mayer and Salovey's model of emotional intelligence (MEIS) has with traditional measures of intelligence (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003).

Mayer and Salovey (1997) argue that Bar-on explicitly included non-ability traits such as personal independence, self-regard and mood in the emotional intelligence concept, and hence the definition of a mixed model. Bar-on's model defines emotional intelligence as an array of traits, non-cognitive abilities, and competencies that influence one's ability to cope with social environmental demands (Bar-on, 1997; Emmerling & Goleman, 2003). Although this model also reflects on emotional intelligence it has a different focus than the model of Mayer and Salovey (1997).

Mayer and Salovey (1997) also label Goleman's model as a mixed model for his inclusion of personality components like self-control, zeal, persistence and the ability to motivate oneself. Goleman's model differs from the previously mentioned two models. Mayer and Salovey's model was developed to establish a theory on a new form of intelligence. Bar-on's model was developed within the educational environment to explain differences in emotional behaviour of seemingly equal individuals and to develop a measure of social and emotional competencies. In contrast to the above-mentioned two models, Goleman's model was developed in the workplace in an effort to explain why equal behaviour has varied success. Goleman defines his model as a framework within which an individual's potential to master skills of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management, can be reflected (Goleman, 1995; Emmerling & Goleman, 2003). This identified potential may be used to predict an individual's success in the workplace (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003).

Although these are three different theories with different focal points, all three share a common desire to understand, recognize and control emotions in ourselves and in others (Mayer & Salovey, 1990; Goleman, 1995; Mayer, Bar-on, 1997; Salovey & Caruso, 2000; Emmerling & Goleman 2003). All three are complementary towards each other in an effort to understand how individuals manage and influence emotions.

2.9 Assessment

The measure that Bar-on developed, the "Bar-on Emotional Quotient Inventory" or EQ-i, was for long the only properly validated assessment of emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000). The EQ-i is a 133-item self-report measure, which consists of 15 distinct scales based on Bar-on's own experience and a thorough literature review (Schutte *et al.*,

1997). This measure proposes to reflect the potential for success in life (Hemmati, Mills & Kroner, 2004). Apart from measuring an individual's ability to recognize, use and regulate emotion in oneself as well as in others, Bar-on included personality aspects of general mood and happiness.

Schutte *et al.* (1997) developed another measure based on the original model of Salovey and Mayer (1990). According to Schutte *et al.*, they decided on Salovey and Mayer's model as it is a "theoretically cohesive and comprehensive model" (Schutte *et al.*, 1997:169). They believe that although the revised model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) is an excellent process-orientated model, the original one lends itself better to conceptualizing the various dimensions of an individual's current state of emotional development (Schutte *et al.*, 1997). It was for this reason that this measure was chosen as the EI measure for this research.

2.10 Summary

The problem statement in Chapter 1 anticipates that this research will indicate whether team members' interaction with each other towards common goals will influence their perception about the climate of innovation they work in. This aspect is partly illustrated by the emotional intelligence component of the Conceptual research Model (Figure 1.1: Chapter 1). It is illustrated in the model that EI potentially influences individual personal traits (goal orientation), team member interaction processes (TMX) as well as the shared perception of the team (Team Climate).

From the literature study, the following aspects can be listed in support of this proposed influence:

There is consensus that social intelligence, as ground theory from which emotional intelligence was developed, refers to the ability to understand people (Gardner, 1985; Fatt, 2000; Sternberg, 1986).

Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to monitor own and others' feelings and emotions, the ability to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions.

Empathy is an ability to understand another's emotions and to re-experience them oneself (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Interaction between people is much smoother whenever emotions are accurately perceived in themselves as well as in other people around them (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

It is possible to regulate and even alter the emotional reaction of others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

In his Emotional Competence Framework, Goleman (1998) included the social skill of influence. Goleman believes that people with this influencing skill are good at persuading others to change behaviour and perception.

From the above-mentioned aspects it is clear that emotional intelligence may be used to refer to understanding of emotion in oneself and in others, and to regulate and influence others' emotion. According to the selected literature, emotional intelligence indeed refers to an ability to influence other team members' perceptions through emotional interactions.

2.11 Exchange Processes in Teams

2.11.1 Introduction

Studies on how to improve organizational performance included the work team approach and this has been researched extensively. Throughout most recent work group research results, a basic assumption was made that group activities influence individual behaviour and attitudes (Mossholder & Bedeian, 1983; Saavedra & Van Dyne 1999; Seers, Petty & Cashman, 1995). Mossholder & Bedeian (1983) believe that this influence occurs through interaction between the group members on an individual exchange basis and indirectly through the powerful effects of the group on its members as such.

Teams are formed with goal accomplishment in mind. Another purpose is to preserve the group harmony. Saavedra and Van Dyne (1999) agree with this principle and argue that work teams have three purposes to accomplish, namely:

- To satisfy the organization's drive on output;
- To develop the team members' relationships with each other; and
- To look after the team members' personal interests.

Saavedra & Van Dyne (1999) believe that team members evaluate the team's goal achievement in relation to their personal costs and benefits and benefits to the team as such and that this is achieved through social exchange networks in the team.

Wallace & Wolf (1995) suggested that these social exchanges do not occur unless the individual perceives the exchange to be beneficial to him or her. This interaction further requires trust, which takes time to be established. Typically, a relationship would start with smaller, no-risk exchanges. Over time, this investment develops into a relationship that is built

on a trustworthy basis, which is then ready to support major exchange transactions (Cole, *et al.*, 2002). Saavedra and Van Dyne (1999) argue that the individual's investment in the team is a combination of loyalty towards the team's output goals, mutual caring to ensure internal relationship develop and commitment to the team as an indication of the individual's personal interest. All of this influences the team's overall performance.

The description of exchanges that take place inside a team is based on the Social Exchange Theory and is the foundation on which the team member exchange construct (TMX) is built.

2.11.2 Social Exchange

In an economic context, the concept of exchange means that an actor (individual) deals or makes some kind of exchange within a market (Blau, 1987). In contrast to this concept, the social exchange theory is based on an anticipated prolonged exchange relationship between two actors. It specifically refers to a dyadic relationship. According to this theory, an exchange relationship is built on a principle of two individuals exchanging resources, information, support etc. and anticipating some kind of reward in future (Blau, 1987).

Huston & Burgess (1979) believe that social exchange refers to the interpersonal transaction between two individuals and this transaction is usually driven by self-interest or interdependence. It is normally a cognitive process where the two individuals make exchange decisions to benefit both (Lawler & Thye, 1999). If both actors find the exchange relationship beneficial, the exchange will re-occur over time (Molm, Peterson & Takhashi, 2001). Social exchange research efforts focus almost entirely on the dyadic relationship. Saavedra and Van Dyne (1999), however, is of the opinion that the social exchange research results on dyadic relationships may also be extended to larger social units as both entities have an influence on each other. Mossholder & Bedeian (1983) believe that it is not unusual to make inferences from data collected at an individual level of analysis to indicate the effects on an independent group level construct.

Therefore, through an exchange network between individuals on various aspects, attitudes, perceptions and behaviour are influenced in a team.

2.11.3 Interdependence

Social exchange focuses the attention directly on the social process of give-and-take in peoples' relations. It is recognized that the exchange behaviour is psychologically motivated, but exchange theory does not try to examine these motives. It rather tries to understand the exchange process. The social exchange theory describes the transaction process in which "each response is dependent on the other's prior action and is simultaneously the stimulus

evoking the other's further reaction" (Blau, 1987:85). The anticipated repeated reciprocity is implicit in social exchange (Blau, 1987; Cole *et al.*, 2002).

Blau (1987) argues that apart from the repeated reciprocity, the power balance in the dyadic exchange relation is further an important aspect of the social exchange theory. To explain this, Blau proposes that actor A tries to exchange from actor B and the exchange then fails. If no other alternative exchange option is available to A, the lack of alternatives brings a power imbalance and therefore a dependence and subordination in their interpersonal relation. This dependence will differ in degree, depending on the value that the one actor places on the resources in the other actor's hold or by the availability from alternative sources. This implies that the power advantage lies with the actor with the least dependence (Blau, 1987). According to Blau (1987), there are mechanisms as remedies against a power-unbalancing situation. These mechanisms are:

Withdrawal from the relation;

Adding exchange relationships to the existing network or forming alternative relations;

Altering the value of the resource on offering to be exchanged; and lastly

Coalition formation against those that hold the power (Blau, 1987).

Saavedra and Van Dyne (1999) refer to a systematic exchange process where two individuals evaluate the exchange interaction between them over time to determine if further personal investment in the exchange relationship is warranted. This process is used to evaluate the personal costs and rewards of the exchange. If the evaluation is positive, the relationship is continued.

Saavedra and Van Dyne (1999) believe it can be assumed that the exchanges are made for the highest expected rewards against the lowest expected cost. Successful resource exchange increases the interdependence and commitment and the greater the number of resources and exchanges made, the greater the interdependence among group members will be (Saavedra & Van Dyne, 1999). The authors point out that although the relationship is perceived as positive, it does not imply an absence of costs. If a relationship is considered to offer enough benefits, the role players are willing to tolerate the accompanying costs.

The role players in the relationship offer each other certain exchange currencies. The way in which the individual values this currency will depend on the existing relationship and the specific needs of the individuals in question (Cole, *et al.*, 1995; Huston & Burgess, 1979).

The social exchange theory is based on the principle that individuals evaluate opportunities to exchange and expect reciprocal exchanges that allow them to maximise personal rewards and minimize personal costs.

According to Saavedra and Van Dyne (1999), this principle is also present in work groups, although social exchange research mainly focused on dyadic relationships. The authors believe that as in dyads, reciprocal interdependence as well as costs and rewards indicate a work group's exchange relationship (Saavedra & Van Dyne, 1999). They further believe that exchange interdependence encourage group members to contribute to the purpose of the team like developing group members' relationship with each other and to help satisfy individual team members' personal interests, without putting the cost implication upfront in the exchange process. These contributions reflect the level of commitment and emotional investment in a group's welfare (Saavedra & Van Dyne, 1999). The authors view emotional investment as "composite of group loyalty, mutual caring, and commitment to the group as a whole" (Saavedra & Van Dyne, 1999:111).

To build relationships, group members must make contributions to each other's welfare. This relationship may enhance emotional support such as loyalty, trust, intimacy and fun (Saavedra & Van Dyne, 1999). The authors also believe that if team members start relying on the group for desired outcomes, exchange interdependences and support for each other are enhanced.

2.11.4 Team member exchange

Team member exchange was first used as construct by Seers (1989) and was subsequently further researched particularly by Cole *et al.* (2002). In context, the construct was developed as predictor of job satisfaction, satisfaction with peers, commitment and job turnover (Cole *et al.*, 2002). It is the opinion of Seers, Petty and Cashman (1995) that team member exchange is also predictive of positive work behaviour and attitudes towards work related issues.

Team member exchange can be described as an individual team member's evaluative perception of his exchange and interaction relationship with his fellow team members as well as his perception of the anticipated reciprocal exchange of the team (Cole *et al.*, 2002; Seers, 1989; Seers *et al.*, 1995). Seers (1989) specifically introduced the concept to describe an individual's role influence within a team. He also referred to the exchanges that occur within a team, based on the different individual roles performed in the team context (Witt, Hochwater, Hilton, Hillman, & Chan, 1999).

According to Cole, Schaninger and Harris (2002), social exchange research has extensively focused on employee-centered relationships in the workplace. They believe three exchange relationships in the workplace are of importance. Leader member exchange (LMX) is the most popular research topic of the three. Organization member exchange (OMX) is the second and is often identified as perceived organizational support (POS). Apart from the work of Seers

(1998) as well as Cole, *et al.* (2002), the last exchange construct, team member exchange (TMX), has received very little if any research attention (Sherony & Green, 2002).

2.11.5 Within-Team Agreement

Mason (2006) refers to numerous research results that indicate if team members share perceptions of their team climate, they will communicate better which will positively influence their team performance (Mason, 2006: 234). This shared relationship between team members is balanced by the exchange of perceptions (of the abilities, skills and processes) in order to satisfy mutual interests within the team (Seers, Ford, Wilkerson & Moormann, 2001).

According to Ford & Seers (2006) teams increasingly rely on consensus building, and this within-agreement process influences individual behaviour and perceptions. These perceptions include perceptions of team members' well-being, their perception of the support they receive from within the organization and from within their own team, and of the factors that influence stress and dissatisfaction in the team.

The homogeneity or within-agreement of a team is socially influenced by the interaction of its members and implies the presence of other role players like leaders, or team members or members from other teams within the organization. Social influence may further be identified by the presence of group norms, the exchange of social information, and emotional contagion (Mason, 2006). Mason (2006) further describes social influencing as the sharing of information and influencing perceptions of the recipient's perception of the work environment and the evaluative meaning of events (Mason, 2006). The team member's behaviour and perception is influenced by the behavioural example of fellow team members and how the team accept or regulate the particular behaviour. Team norms also determine what emotions are appropriate in the workplace and what emotions are not tolerated (Mason, 2006). According to Mason (2006), emotional contagion means that individuals in the team react to cues that others in the team give to influence perceptions. This easily happens because of the interdependency and shared social environment associated by working in a team.

2.11.6 Workplace Social Exchange Network

Cole *et al.* (2002) developed the Workplace Social Exchange Network to illustrate the exchanges that typically take place inside an organisation. The framework is depicted below and indicates, apart from TMX as team member exchange, also OMX as organisation member exchange and LMX as leader member exchange. The latter two will not be discussed further. They are included in the framework to illustrate two other exchange relationships, which are together with TMX simultaneously part of the total exchange network in an organisation (Cole *et al.*, 2002).

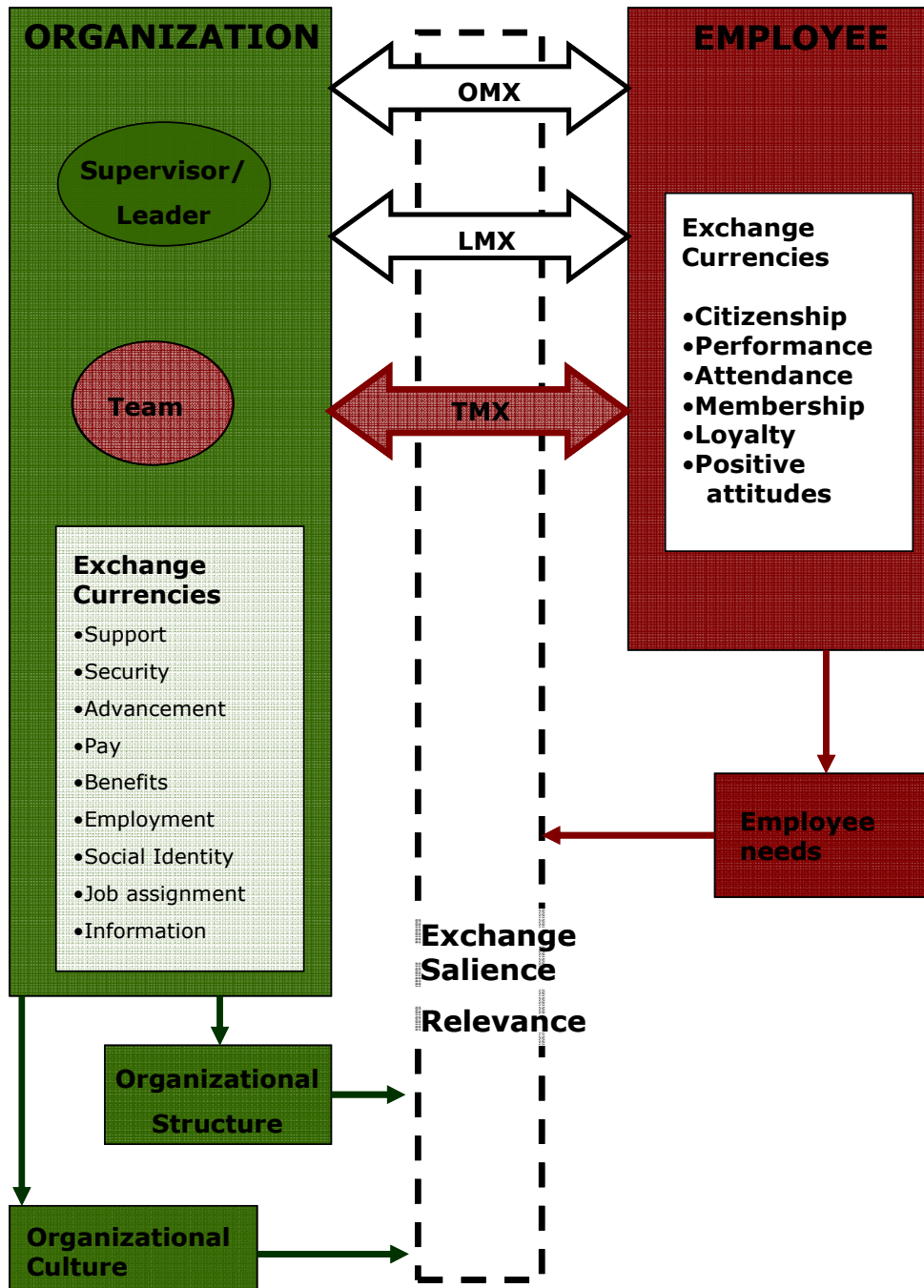
Based on the social exchange concept, exchanges within a work team occur through offerings of exchange currencies. The acceptance and reciprocation thereof will depend on the value it has for each individual recipient. Cole *et al.* (2002) categorize the different exchange currencies that an individual offers as either attitudinally or behaviourally motivated.

The core exchange principle of offering an exchange currency of value is very strong in any exchange relationship (Cole *et al.*, 2002; Molm *et al.*, 2001). The team would therefore expect positive attitudes and positive behaviour from team members as reciprocation in exchange for normal team currencies like support, security, pay, benefits, job assignments and information (Cole *et al.*, 2002). The attitudinal currencies that an individual can offer his fellow team members, according to Cole *et al.*, (2002), include amongst other things satisfaction, liking, commitment and trust. Seers (1989) adds to this list job satisfaction, internal work motivation, team cohesiveness and social exchanges between team members. Saavedra and Van Dyne (1999) believe that emotional investment would improve mutual caring in the team, which is also linked to loyalty and commitment. Witt *et al.* (1999), concur with Cole *et al.* that social exchange depends on trust that will develop whenever other contributions in the team are acknowledged as valuable.

Exchange currencies with behavioural outcome can be identified as lower absenteeism which is linked to commitment, lower job turnover which has association with job satisfaction and loyalty, and lastly innovation which has ties with job satisfaction and perceived support from the rest of the team (Cole *et al.*, 2002). It is this last apparent link that exchange within the team has with innovation and perceived support of the rest of the team that is important to this study.

Figure 2.6: Workplace Social Exchange Network Model

WORKPLACE SOCIAL EXCHANGE NETWORK MODEL



Adapted from: Cole *et al.* (2002).

Witt *et al.* (1999) refer to an important difference between leader member exchange (on which extensive research was done) and team member exchange. Apart from the obvious difference in focus, leader member exchange refers to dyadic relationships, whereas team member exchange has the whole team as unit of analysis.

Seers concludes that individuals with a high level of team member exchange make and receive more quality exchanges towards cooperation and goal achieving efforts in the relationship than individuals with a low level of team member exchange (Cole, *et al.*, 2002; Seers, *et al.*, 1995).

2.11.7 Summary

One objective of this study is to establish the following:

"Is the team member exchange process the facilitating agent to influence an individual's behaviour and attitudes inside a team?"

The literature reviewed indeed supplied a positive answer:

Mossholder & Bedeian (1983) believe that individual behaviour and attitude are influenced through group interaction.

Wallace & Wolf (1995) suggest that these social exchanges do not occur unless the individual perceives the exchange to be beneficial to him or her.

This interaction further requires trust, which is established with time, based on the perception that exchange contributions are valued and reciprocated (Saavedra & Van Dyne, 1999).

Exchange behaviour inside the team is an indication of the team member's loyalty towards the team's output goals, mutual caring of fellow team members and ensuring internal relationship develop and commitment to the team (Saavedra & Van Dyne, 1999).

Successful resource exchange increases the interdependence and commitment among group members (Cole *et al.*, 2002; Saavedra & Van Dyne, 1999; Witt *et al.*, 1999).

Exchange interdependences and support for each other are enhanced once the team members start relying on each other to reach team goals (Saavedra & Van Dyne, 1999; Lawler *et al.*, 2000).

The literature is therefore supportive of the suggestion that the team member exchange process can facilitate a change in attitude and behaviour.

2.12 Team Goal Orientation

2.12.1 Introduction

Goal orientation theory is a construct that was developed for educational psychology. The drive was to establish why children with apparently equal skills, abilities and circumstances indeed differ in their performance results. The same questions are asked about workers with seemingly equal abilities, skills and opportunities (Button, Mathieu & Zajac, 1996; Steele-Johnson Beauregard, Hoover & Schmidt, 2000).

Elaine Elliot and Carol Dweck (1988) describe this occurrence in children's behaviour as some of them displaying the "helpless" response when they experience failure in contrast to children almost ignoring failure and trying to find a solution and displaying an urge to improve their performance.

Don VandeWalle (1997) has researched this phenomenon in an organizational environment. He distinguishes between the two seemingly opposite categories of employees that some individuals experience setbacks and challenges as an indicator of their low ability and become pessimistic about trying to improve their performance. In contrast, there are employees who thrive on the adversity of a challenge and will try to overcome the setback with effort and innovation. Elliot and Dweck (1988) ascribe this difference in individual behaviour to a dispositional goal orientation when they are confronted in an achievement situation (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004; VandeWalle, 1997).

Janssen & Van Yperen (2004) refer to the surprising fact that to date very little research has been done to find the answer on how this goal orientation disposition influences individuals' interpretation and responding behaviour to interpersonal exchanges in achievement situations. In essence, this is an element of the research objectives one referred to in Chapter 1. It was argued that it would be difficult for a team member to perceive a challenging work situation as conducive to a climate for innovation if his goal orientation predisposition induces hesitation to react, withdrawal from the challenge and accepting failure. One of the literature search focuses was to try and establish whether group interaction influences this disposition. Unfortunately, very little previous research results supported this question.

2.12.2 Definitions

From the initial construct work of Dweck (Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Dweck, 1988), two different goal orientations were conceptualized. These were:

A learning goal orientation, which emphasizes acquiring new skills, accepting criticism as positive feedback and developing competencies to master new and difficult situations; and

A performance goal orientation that seeks favourable feedback on perceived superior ability and avoid judgement on performance or possible failure when faced with a challenge.

2.12.3 Learning Goal Orientation

This construct was extensively research over the past 15 years (VandeWalle, 1997). Significant relationships between learning orientation and success were found. VandeWalle and Cummings (1997) also found strong links between learning orientation and feedback-seeking behaviour. Button, Mathieu and Zajac (1986) refer to this goal orientation as a framework through which any achievement is filtered. A learning orientation is therefore filtered through a framework of positiveness and denial of failure. Individuals with a learning goal orientation as predisposition strive to understand something new and will not accept failure as an indication of weak abilities. Such individuals would rather perceive setbacks as temporary. They would actively seek feedback to identify their abilities that are underdeveloped and learn new skills to improve their performance (Button et al., 1996; Dweck, 1986; Dweck, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997; Tuckey, Bruwer & Williamson, 2002).

VandeWalle is of the opinion that individuals with a learning orientation seek opportunities to acquire new skills and learn to master new and difficult situations. The new challenge lying ahead is reflected through past experience, and development is made in order to grow as an individual (Mango & Steele-Johnson, 2001; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). Individuals with a learning orientation will take on challenging tasks in order to learn goal orientation and to stretch goal limits and do not mind making errors. They accept it as part of the learning process (Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002; Seijts, Latham, Tasa & Latham, 2004). These individuals further believe that their abilities are receptive and that they can and should be developed (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). The authors lastly point out that learning orientated people will adopt an adaptive response pattern. They enjoy difficult tasks and simply persevere, implement problem solving thought processes, try innovative solutions and even enjoy the challenge.

2.12.4 Performance Goal Orientation

Individuals with a performance goal orientation show from vulnerability up to “helpless” response patterns in the face of an obstacle (Elliot & Dweck, 1988). When these individuals are confronted with failure, they attribute it to low abilities and may even withdraw from the activity (Button et al., 1996; Dweck, 1986). The authors also refer to individuals with this orientation as people who demonstrate their competence and ability via task performance and would avoid any negative judgement on their competence. Such people emphasize superior competence and seek favourable appraisal, but avoid negative feedback and experience it as a sign of failure (Tuckey, Bruwer & Willimason, 2002). Individuals with performance goal orientation perceive ability as fixed and an uncontrollable personal attribute and would rather concentrate on demonstrating abilities than improving them. All this is to protect their own ego, as performance feedback would increase vulnerability (Tuckey, Bruwer & Willimason, 2002; VandeWalle, 1997).

2.12.5 Performance-prove and performance-avoid

Since the research results on the initial two goal orientations became available, VanderWalle (1997) proposed a three-dimension rather than the known two-dimension construct. He believes that the performance orientation of the initial construct can be split into two subdimensions and proposes that the construct be defined as follows:

Learning goal orientation: a desire to develop the self by acquiring new skills, mastering new situations, and improving one's competence.

Prove (performance) goal orientation: the desire to prove one's competence and to gain favourable judgement about it.

Avoid (performance) goal orientation: the desire to avoid the disproving of one's competence and to avoid negative judgements about it.

VandeWalle (1997) refers to evidence to support such a subdivision of performance goal orientation (VandeWalle, Cron, & Slocum, 2001). Porath and Bateman (2006) refer to the three-dimension goal orientation and point out that only a few studies using students have investigated the “differentiated effects of the three dimensions of goal orientation on performance, and those studies yielded inconsistent results “ (Porath & Bateman, 2006:185).

2.12.6 Adaptive goal orientation

It has been convincingly established that goal orientation gives expression to a particular response. It influences how people interpret and respond to performance feedback and past performance appraisal and how they respond in subsequent performance situations (Button *et al.*, 1996; Elliot & Dweck 1988).

Button *et al.* (1996) are furthermore of the opinion that the two distinctive and separate dimensions, namely learning and performance goal orientation, describe goal orientation the best. Furthermore, they suggest that goal orientation has both situational and dispositional influencing aspects that can be distinguished from each other. This would mean that when “the situation cues are present, the individual will tend to adapt his or her dispositional orientations” accordingly (Button *et al.*, 1996: 40). It means that the dispositional orientation would prompt the individual to respond in the predisposed manner, but because the situational characteristic would prompt another response, the individual may adapt his response according to the situational cue (Button *et al.*, 1996).

It was proposed that it is possible for an individual to be high on learning and high on performance goal orientation at the same time. For example, it is possible to show a concern for high performance compared with others, and a desire to improve one's competence (Button *et al.*, 1996; Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; VandeWalle, Brown, Cron & Slocum, 1999). Brett & VandeWalle (1999) point out that it is still unknown how this perception would withstand a failure situation (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004).

Button *et al.* (1996) are of the opinion that the two dimensions further have definite dispositional characteristics, meaning that individuals will behave according to their predisposed orientations. They further claim that goal orientation reflects strong situational aspects. If an individual with a predisposed performance goal orientation were faced by a difficult task, the tendency would be for him to avoid the task for fear of failure that would reflect inability (Button *et al.*, 1996; VandeWalle, Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1999).

VandeWalle *et al.* (1999) state that goal orientation predisposes individuals to use or not to use self-regulation strategies. Self-regulation in their definition refers to the cognitive process that triggers motivation into action and behaviour. This means that someone with a performance goal orientation should be less predisposed to self-regulation than learning goal orientated people. This is because performance goal orientated people would rather avoid an increase in effort.

However, what is important for the current study is the possibility that goal orientation, through its predispositional nature, would influence the individual' perception of the task at hand as either a challenge or a threat. Situational aspects may further influence the goal orientation. It may therefore be hypothesized that through various influences from interacting team members, an individual's behaviour, regardless of his specific goal orientation, may be influenced in the team context.