The Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory: A Measure Designed Specifically for Workplace Applications

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The Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory or Genos EI, is a 70-item multi-rater assessment. It was designed specifically for use in the workplace as a learning and development aid for human resource (HR) professionals and occupational psychologists involved in the identification, selection and development of employees. Genos EI does not measure emotional intelligence (EI) per-se'; rather, it measures how often people demonstrate 70 emotionally intelligent workplace behaviors that represent the effective demonstration of emotional intelligence in the workplace. Despite the popularity of EI as an employee selection and learning and development medium, few EI inventories have been designed specifically for use in the workplace. Indeed this approach to the assessment of EI is somewhat different from the approaches provided by leading authors in the area.

Genos EI was originally conceptualized by Ben Palmer and Con Stough at Swinburne University. It was published as the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUIET; Palmer & Stough, 2001), and has appeared in numerous research papers as such. Since this time it has been revised and is now being widely used both in research and commercial settings as Genos EI. In this chapter we commence by describing our rationale for designing an emotional intelligence (EI) inventory for workplace applications. This rationale came from the findings of industry focus groups conducted with HR professionals, asking them to define an "ideal" EI inventory. We then outline the model and inventory itself, its similarities and differences with other leading EI inventories, and recent research findings based on self- and rater-report workplace samples. We conclude by setting some directions for future research with the inventory, and publish a short form version that can be freely used in workplace research.

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Our Rationale

Our work in the area of emotional intelligence has been focused on two main objectives: firstly, to conceptualize a common definition and taxonomic model of EI; and secondly, to construct an inventory specifically for use in workplace applications, in particular employee learning and development (L&D). The impetus for our first objective came from the plethora of different models and measures of EI available and the confusion this has brought the area regarding the nature and boundaries of the construct (Pfeiffer, 2001). We have argued elsewhere that a common definition and taxonomic model would not distract from the value various approaches provide (Palmer, Gignac, Ekermans, & Stough, 2008). Rather, a taxonomic model serves to provide a common language for EI and the basis for comprehensive measures that assess the primary facets of the construct much like the comprehensive taxonomy of personality traits, the widely known Five Factor Model (FFM; Digman, 1990; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Comprehensive measures of EI that cover the different operationalisations of the construct have been argued to not currently exist (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

The impetus for our second objective came from a series of focus groups we conducted during 2003 and 2004 with HR professionals and business leaders involved in employee development. In these focus groups we asked participants to define an "ideal" EI inventory for the purpose of employee development. An analysis of the information captured in these focus groups revealed that an ideal EI inventory would be one that:

- measured a simple rather than complex model
- was able to be completed in 15 min
- had high "workplace face validity" (i.e., the items were clearly related to workplace activities), and
- generated scores that were meaningfully related to organizational and role specific outcomes (e.g., attrition, job performance, and leadership effectiveness).

These focus groups also revealed important information relating to how the "end-user" of the EI inventory (e.g., the line manager within a division of an organisation) preferred assessment results to be presented to him or her. The focus groups revealed that an ideal EI inventory's feedback report would present to an individual his or her assessment results:

- in the context of workplace performance and outcomes, and
- in combination with a series of targeted and individually focused EI-development options that were relevant to applying emotional intelligence in the workplace.

It was our view that few EI inventories available at the time of conducting these focus groups met any of these more practical criteria satisfactorily.

The introductory chapter of this book provides some guidelines on how to evaluate the utility of various EI inventories from a psychometric viewpoint. Utilizing a psychometrically robust measure of EI in any context (i.e., in the workplace or elsewhere) is important; however, the findings of these focus groups highlight the more practical criteria practitioners often employ in evaluating and selecting inventories for applied use. Obviously both should be used in combination, and both have been used as a guide in developing and validating the Genos EI inventory.

Positioning the Genos Approach to Assessing EI in the Workplace

Authors in the area of EI often distinguish between: (a) ability measures designed to assess individual differences in emotional abilities (e.g., Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000); (b) self-and-rater report mixed measures designed to assess an array of emotional and social individual difference constructs such as emotionally based competencies, personality traits, and motivational attributes (e.g., Bar-On, 1997); (c) self-report trait measures designed to assess emotion-laden traits and dispositions (e.g., Petrides & Furnham, 2001); and (d) self-and-rater report competency measures (e.g., Sala, 2002) designed to measure individual differences in learned capabilities or skills based on emotional abilities – for example, the skill of demonstrating self-awareness based on one's ability and/or capability to perceive emotions within oneself. All of these aforementioned approaches have their own merits and, as outlined in the various chapters of this book, there is mounting evidence for the psychometric reliability and validity of each.

Despite this mounting evidence of psychometric reliability and validity the issue of practical utility has not been adequately addressed. As previously mentioned, few if any of the leading assessments meet the more practical criteria defined by HR professionals. For example, it could be argued that the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) lacks "workplace face validity" and takes too long to complete (approximately 30 min). Similarly, it could be argued that the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On EQ-i) takes too long to complete (133 items), and the model of EI it assesses is too complex. Mixing together an array of 15 varied individual difference constructs makes the model esoteric, hard for practitioners to definitively recall in client debrief sessions and debrief in a timely manner. Trait-based measures such as the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) developed by Petrides and Furnham (2001) may be considered too long at 153 items, and trait-based assessments lack workplace face validity in that they are more concerned with individual preferences and styles rather than what people actually do in the workplace. For example one might find it "easy to express how one feels", but be left wondering about the skill or frequency with which it might be done. In

addition, trait based measures of EI do not particularly lend themselves to multi-rater assessment formats, because a large number of the items concern internal attitudes, thoughts, and preferences, rather than what individuals' demonstrably display to others. On this basis, it may be reasonably contended that observers or "raters" would be able to more accurately rate demonstrable behaviors, in comparison to internal attitudes, thoughts and preferences.

One leading assessment of EI that was designed specially for the workplace and meets some of the HR practitioner criteria is the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) developed by the Hay Group in partnership with Goleman and Boyatsis (Sala, 2002). The ECI takes approximately 15 min to complete, has high workplace face validity measuring competencies such as Organizational Awareness, Teamwork and Collaboration, and reports present individual's results in the context of workplace performance and outcomes (Sala, 2002). However, similar to the Bar-On EQ-I, the model the ECI measures is too complex and esoteric. A total of 17 variables, ranging from Inspirational Leadership to Transparency to Achievement Orientation, are assessed. Further, it could be said that the inventory's results reports have not been designed with the "end-user" in mind. ECI reports make use of "Clusters and Algorithms" and "Target Levels" to describe the individual's EI assessment results. Finally, no targeted and individually focused EI-development options are contained within an individual's report. Nonetheless, unlike trait-based measures, the ECI items comprise demonstrable behaviors, and the inventory is available in a multi-rater format.

Many commentators have asserted the superiority of ability-based EI inventories (such as the MSCEIT), because they do not rely upon the insight of the respondent and are not susceptible to socially desirable responding (Mayer et al., 2000). However, we have argued elsewhere that with the exception of measuring an individual's ability to perceive emotions in others, existing ability inventories (specifically the MSCEIT) are more an index of individual differences in emotional knowledge (Palmer, 2007). Emotional knowledge may be culturally and sub-culturally specific. Furthermore, scores on ability based measures of EI in the workplace do not necessarily equate to performance outcomes that may ultimately be more important in employee development. Put another way, some individuals may have a high level of emotional knowledge but not have the capability or necessary experience in applying that knowledge in everyday life. For example, a manager's knowledge and theory on how to motivate subordinates may not actually result in that same manager having the competency or skill to do so effectively.

To illustrate this point further, assessment centre research completed by Tatton (2005), found a clear disconnect between individuals' emotional knowledge and how they applied that knowledge in role-play based simulations. In this research, Tatton identified five distinct categories for the demonstration of emotional knowledge, namely:

1. **The Emotionally Intelligent**, individuals with high levels of emotional knowledge and who demonstrated effective use of that knowledge in the role play.
2. **The Emotionally Intuitive**, individuals with low levels of emotional knowledge yet applied that knowledge effectively in the role play (e.g., demonstrated sensitivity to interpersonal cues and positive interpersonal behaviours).
3. **The Emotionally Negligent**, individuals with high levels of emotional knowledge yet could not apply that knowledge effectively in the role play (e.g., missed others' emotional cues). Interestingly, Tatton reported that upon reviewing their performance the "emotionally negligent" individual was able to discuss what he or she should have done or what would have been a better approach in the role play.
4. **The Emotionally Manipulative**, individuals with high levels of emotional knowledge who chose to use this knowledge in a more nefarious intent during the role play (e.g., lowering others' self-esteem to enhance their own position or dismissing others' feelings so as not to validate them).
5. **The Emotionally Unintelligent**, individuals with low levels of emotional knowledge and who failed to demonstrate effective use of that knowledge in the role play (e.g., missed others' emotional cues, etc).

For these and other reasons we have recently argued that self-and-rater report behavioral measures of EI offer the greatest utility in workplace applications (Palmer, 2007), especially as it relates to desired workplace performance outcomes. Of course, this claim needs to be validated by empirical research.

By definition such inventories should index individual differences in how often people typically demonstrate emotionally intelligent workplace behavior as rated by self and others. Stated alternatively, they should be designed to assess "typical performance" rather than "maximal performance", which has been identified as one of the important advantages associated with a self-report measure of EI (Gignac, Palmer, Manocha, & Stough, 2005).

Cronbach (1960) initially classified psychometric tests into maximal versus typical performance. Cronbach (1960) viewed tests of intellectual intelligence to be measures of maximal performance, while personality inventories were considered to be measures of typical performance. As argued above, the demonstration of emotionally intelligent behavior may best be conceptualized within the context of typical performance rather than maximal performance. Further, given that common performance appraisal measures are typical performance in nature (e.g., supervisor ratings, annual sales, etc.), it is argued here that a typical performance measure of EI may also be particularly valuable in the workplace context.

With the identification of a theoretical framework (i.e., typical performance), it was next necessary to identify theoretically and empirically the number and nature of EI dimensions the typical performance EI inventory should comprise.

The Genos EI Model of Emotional Intelligence

The Genos model of EI is based largely on a factor analytic study aimed at determining a taxonomic model for the construct (Palmer, 2003). It is also based on factor analyses by Gignac (2005) of the SUEIT (Palmer & Stough, 2001), an EI inventory designed to measure the original five-factor taxonomic model of EI identified by Palmer (2003). The Genos model of emotional intelligence comprises a general factor (Overall or Total EI), as well as seven oblique factors outlined in Table 1.

Table 1 The Genos model of emotional intelligence

Factor name	Description
1. Emotional Self-Awareness	The skill of perceiving and understanding your own emotions
2. Emotional Expression	The skill of effectively expressing your own emotions
3. Emotional Awareness of Others	The skill of perceiving and understanding others' emotions
4. Emotional Reasoning	The skill of using emotional information in decision-making
5. Emotional Self-Management	The skill of managing your own emotions
6. Emotional Management of Others	The skill of positively influencing the emotions of others
7. Emotional Self-Control	The skill of effectively controlling your own strong emotions

The Genos EI Inventory (Genos EI)

Genos EI was designed specifically for workplace applications according to the "ideal" inventory criteria determined from industry focus groups (as previously described). There are three unique features of Genos EI worthy of note. First, the taxonomic 7-factor model it assesses is simple in comparison to some of the larger models in the area and each model's related inventory. We posit that this feature makes the Genos model of EI more straightforward to debrief, easier for participants to recall whilst undertaking their daily work, and easier to link to other organizational competency models (e.g., leadership, sales, or customer service). Second, it has high "workplace face validity" comprising items that represent emotionally intelligent workplace behaviors aligned to the seven factors of our model. Finally, it is not a measure of EI, per se, but a measure of typical rather than maximal performance, specifically measuring individual differences in how often people demonstrate emotionally intelligent workplace behaviors. We posit that these features help participants undertaking Genos EI to: (1) understand the "why" of what they are being asked to complete, which in turn creates greater participant buy-in not only for completing the assessment but also the broader development-oriented program it may be embedded

within; and (2) appreciate the potential value of the information provided by the results of the inventory.

Both self- and multi-rater formats comprise a total of 70 items taking respondents approximately 12–15 min to complete. Each of the seven factors of our model is measured by 10 homogeneous emotionally intelligent workplace behaviors (i.e., items). Table 2 provides example items pertaining to the factors of our model presented in "rater" format.

Participants (and their raters) are asked to indicate on an anchored rating scale from 1 to 5, how often the behavior in question is demonstrated (where 1 = Almost Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; and 5 = Almost Always). The items in Genos EI also concern a range of different positive and negative emotions. Positive emotions include: satisfaction, enthusiasm, optimism, excitement, engagement, motivation, and feeling valued by colleagues. Negative emotions include: anxious, anger, stressed, annoyed, frustrated, disappointed, upset and impatient.

Research with Genos EI has shown that how often the behaviors in the inventory are demonstrated meaningfully correlates with various workplace performance indices (Gignac, 2008a). As such (and consistent with the "ideal" inventory criteria), participants' results are presented in the context of workplace performance outcomes in an individually focused feedback report (referred to as a Genos EI Development Report).

Genos EI is deployed online via a secure assessment platform that also automates report generation. In the participant's Development Report, overall subscale scores are provided along with items in the assessment the participant

Table 2 Example items from Genos EI

Factor	Example items
1. Emotional Self-Awareness	• Is aware when he/she is feeling negative at work
	• Is aware of how his/her feelings influence the way he/she responds to colleagues
2. Emotional Expression	• Expresses how he/she feels at the appropriate time
	• Expresses his/her feelings effectively when someone upsets him/her at work
3. Emotional Awareness of Others	• Demonstrates an understanding of others' feelings at work
	• Understands the things that make people feel valued at work
4. Emotional Reasoning	• Asks others how they feel about different solutions when problem solving at work
	• Demonstrates to colleagues that he/she has considered others' feelings in decision he/she makes at work
5. Emotional Self-Management	• Ruminates about things that anger him/her at work*
	• Responds to events that frustrate him/her at work effectively
6. Emotional Management of Others	• Creates a positive working environment for others
	• Motivates others toward work related goals
7. Emotional Self-Control	• When under stress, he/she becomes impulsive*
	• Demonstrates excitement at work appropriately

* Negatively keyed items.

was rated by others as demonstrating more and less often. These are presented as "strengths" and "opportunities for development" respectively, along with the business case and potential performance outcomes that could be achieved if the behaviors were to be demonstrated more often. Further, the participant's Development Report presents a series of EI-development suggestions tailored to his or her specific assessment results (a corresponding development suggestion for each of the 70-items that make up Genos EI has been developed), which are provided to the participant based on the responses provided by his or her actual "raters". This feature provides participants with context-specific feedback from others into how to demonstrate emotionally intelligent behaviors more appropriately in the workplace.

Reliability and Validity[1]

An accumulation of research on the seven-factor model of EI that underpins the Genos inventory has been completed to-date. In this section of the chapter, a review of the reliability, concurrent validity, discriminant validity, and predictive validity associated with the Genos EI inventory is provided.

The internal consistency reliability of the Genos EI self-report inventory has been examined with large workplace samples across a variety of nationalities. Gignac (2008a) reported mean subscale reliabilities (α) ranging from .71 to .85 across five nationalities (American, Australian, Asian, Indian, and South African). The mean Genos EI total score internal consistency reliability (α) was estimated at .96. The test–retest reliability associated with the Genos EI inventory scores has also been examined. Specifically, Gignac (2008a) found test–retest correlations of .83 and .72 based on two-month and six-month time intervals for Genos EI total scores respectively. Based on this finding it may be suggested that Genos EI inventory scores are associated with acceptable levels of internal consistency reliability and test–retest stability.

The factorial validity of the Genos EI inventory has been comprehensively examined in a recently completed investigation (Gignac, Palmer, & Harmer, submitted). Based on a series of competing confirmatory factor analytic (CFA) models, the seven-factor model of EI implied by the Genos EI inventory was supported within a sample of 4775 self-reports and a sample of 6848 rater-reports. Within the self-report data, the seven-factor model (direct hierarchical model) was associated with CFI = .948, RMSEA = .066, SRMR = .037, and TLI = .932, which was considered an acceptably well-fitting model based on Hu and Bentler's (1999) close-fit guidelines. In contrast to the seven-factor model, neither a general factor model nor a five-factor model of EI was found to be associated with acceptable levels of model close-fit. The Genos EI seven-factor

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[1] The vast majority of the research discussed in this section consists of a review of the Genos EI Inventory Technical Manual (Gignac, 2008a).

model was also confirmed based on the rater-report data (i.e., CFI = .962, RMSEA = .066, SRMR = .027, and TLI = .950). To our knowledge, Gignac et al. represents the first investigation to support the factorial validity of an EI inventory based on both self-report data and rater-report data.

The concurrent validity associated with Genos EI inventory scores has been established through a series of empirical investigations that have correlated Genos EI with the SUEIT (the predecessor of Genos EI), the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), organizational commitment, and transformational leadership (amongst others; see Gignac, 2008a, for full review). A brief review of this research is provided next.

One of the most common, but arguably least impressive, approaches to establishing the concurrent validity of an inventory is to correlate the scores of that inventory with that of another previously established inventory. To this effect, the Genos EI seven-factor model of EI has been correlated with the SUEIT and the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS). Specifically, based on a sample of 169 adult respondents who completed both the SUEIT and the Genos EI inventory, a latent variable correlation of .93 was found between a SUEIT global factor and a Genos EI global factor. Thus, 86.5% of the reliable variance within the SUEIT and Genos EI was shared. Such a large amount of shared variance would support the contention that the previous validity research relevant to the SUEIT would also apply to Genos EI. Based on another sample of 163 adult respondents, a latent variable correlation of .68 was found between a global Genos EI factor and a global TMMS factor. Thus, 46.2% of the reliable variance associated with Genos EI and the TMMS was shared, suggesting a respectable amount of convergence.

The Genos EI factor model has been correlated with a number of workplace relevant individual difference variables. For example, Genos Total EI has been found to correlate at .56 with transformational leadership as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995) based on a sample of 163 female managers. Thus, higher Genos EI scores are associated with higher levels of transformational leadership. The numerically largest Genos EI subscale correlation with transformational leadership was associated with Emotional Management of Others ($r = .51$), as might be expected. The smallest subscale correlation was associated with Emotional Reasoning ($r = .27$). Based on a multiple regression analysis where transformational leadership was regressed onto the seven Genos EI subscales, an R^2 of .339% was estimated. Thus, 33.9% of the variance in transformational leadership could be accounted for by a seven subscale regression equation. Only two of the seven Genos EI subscales were found to be statistically significant contributors to the regression equation: Emotional Management of Others $\beta = .26$ and Emotional Self-Control $\beta = .17$. Thus, it was overwhelmingly the emotional management elements of Genos EI that predicted transformational leadership uniquely.

In a further examination of the association between Genos EI and transformational leadership, transformational leadership composite variable was
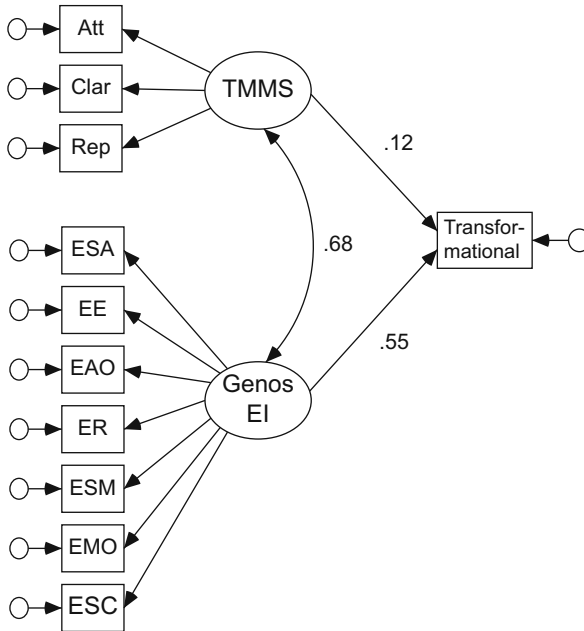
Fig. 1 Transformational leadership regressed onto the TMMS and the Genos EI inventory (completely standardized solution)

regressed onto both Genos EI and TMMS latent variables. Such an analysis was considered to help address the question as to whether Genos EI could predict transformational leadership more strongly than the TMMS within a multiple regression context. As can be seen in Fig. 1, the Genos EI global latent variable was associated with a standardized regression weight of .55 ($p < .05$), which can be contrasted by the TMMS regression weight of .12 ($p = .34$).

Genos EI has also been examined within the context of predictive validity and job performance. In one particular investigation (Gignac, 2008a) based on a re-analysis of research first reported by Palmer and Jennings (2007), Genos EI scores were correlated with:

- pharmaceutical sales professionals (reps) job performance (average monthly revenue)
- the number of days reps spent out on sales calls (days on territory)
- the number of short sales calls (short calls) reps made to their customer base (measured in time), and
- the number of long sales calls (long calls) reps made to their customer base (also measured in time)

It was hypothesized that both Genos EI scores and the long-calls would be correlated positively with performance (i.e., sales revenue) in a sample of pharmaceutical sales representatives. The hypotheses were supported, with an

observed correlation of .47 between Genos EI total scores and sales revenue, as well as a correlation of .35 between number of long-calls and sales revenue. Based on a hierarchical multiple regression, it was found that Genos EI total scores exhibited a statistically significant unique effect ($\beta = .31$) on sales revenue, independently of the effects of long-calls. Thus, it was not simply through an effect of long-calls that Genos EI was associated with sales (i.e., an indirect effect); rather, there was a non-negligible direct effect of Genos EI on sales.

Genos EI scores have also been evaluated within the context of discriminant validity. In particular, the factorial integrity of the global Genos EI factor was examined in two adult samples ($N = 206$ and $N = 106$) by simultaneously controlling for shared variance with the five personality dimensions within the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality. The mean global EI factor loadings were found to decrease from .61 to .39 and .79 to .67 in first and second samples, respectively. Thus, as there was still a non-negligible amount of factorial validity associated with the Genos EI global factor, it may be suggested that the Genos EI scores are associated with some unique validity independently of the FFM.

Genos EI scores were also found to be only moderately correlated with socially desirable responding ($r = -.03$ to .32) and very weakly correlated with a transactional leadership style ($r = .06$). Further discriminant validity details can be found in Gignac (2008a).

In summary, the reliability and validity associated with the Genos EI inventory scores may be said to be respectable. Clearly, further validity research is required. For example, further predictive validity research should be performed to further substantiate Genos EI scores as a predictor of job performance. The issue of incremental predictive validity should also be addressed, although Gignac, Jang, and Bates (in press) have suggested that EI may be a valuable construct, even if it were found to be statistically redundant with well-known measures of personality, as comprehensive measures of personality are excessively expansive and lack theoretically coherence (see also Gignac, 2006; Gignac, Jang, & Bates, 2007).

Genos EI: Concise and Short Forms

In addition to the full 70-item version of the Genos EI inventory, two abbreviated versions have recently been developed based on the statistical and psychometric analyses reported in Gignac (2008b). The two abbreviated versions include a 31-item Concise version and a 14-item Short version.

The Genos EI Concise version includes a total EI score and the same seven subscales that comprise the 70-item full version. However, the reliabilities associated with the Concise subscale scores tend to be lower than the corresponding full version (see Table 3). Thus, the Genos EI Concise version should only be used for research purposes or possibly educational/developmental

Table 3 Number of items that make up the three versions of Genos EI (Long, Concise, Short) and corresponding reliabilities, means, standard deviations and correlations with the long version

Subscale	Number of items			Cronbach's alpha			Mean (SD)			r with long form	
	Long	Concise	Short	Long	Concise	Short	Long	Concise	Short	Concise	Short
ESA	10	4	2	.83	.75	.56	41.94 (4.56)	16.60 (4.79)	8.46 (1.45)	.90	.83
EE	10	5	2	.81	.72	.59	39.53 (4.85)	18.89 (8.59)	7.73 (1.45)	.93	.82
EAO	10	4	2	.87	.74	.63	40.22 (4.79)	16.01 (4.68)	7.72 (1.22)	.92	.82
ER	10	5	2	.74	.72	.53	39.29 (4.44)	20.16 (6.65)	8.36 (1.18)	.89	.76
ESM	10	5	2	.79	.74	.60	38.36 (4.72)	18.65 (7.94)	7.72 (1.36)	.92	.82
EMO	10	4	2	.86	.74	.54	40.29 (4.89)	15.80 (5.23)	7.92 (1.25)	.92	.84
ESC	10	4	2	.78	.71	.53	39.51 (4.80)	15.75 (5.89)	7.97 (1.38)	.87	.79
Total EI	70	31	14	.96	.93	.87	279.13 (27.76)	121.86 (13.84)	55.88 (6.67)	.97	.94

Note. $N = 4775$; ESA = Emotional Self-Awareness; EE = Emotional Expression; EAO = Emotional Awareness of Others; ER = Emotional Reasoning; ESM = Emotional Self-Management; EMO = Emotional Management of Others; ESC = Emotional Self-Control.

purposes. Although the subscale reliabilities tend to be lower within the Concise version, they are nonetheless above .70, as can be seen in Table 3. It can also be observed in Table 3 that the subscales tend to be based on 4–5 items, which in large part explains why the reliabilities are relatively lower. Details relevant to obtaining research access to the Genos EI Concise version can be found at www.genos.com.au/research

In contrast to the full and concise versions of Genos EI, the Genos EI Short version allows only for the calculation of a total EI score. Technically, there are two items from each of the seven subscales (hence the 14-item scale) within the Short version; however, the reliabilities associated with the seven "subscales" are so low as to be unacceptable even for research purposes (see Table 3). The Short total EI score, by contrast, was found to be associated with an internal consistency reliability of $\alpha = .87$. Further, the correlation between the Total EI Short version and Total EI Long version was estimated at $r = .94$. Thus, any Total EI effect identified within the Long version would be expected to be observed with the Short version. Consequently, researchers interested in including a workplace contextualized self-report measure of EI in their research are encouraged to use the Genos EI Short version if: (1) there are serious testing time constraints within the investigation, or (2) EI is only of secondary interest to the investigation.

The items and scoring information associated with the Genos EI Short version are presented in Table 4. Researchers are encouraged to use the inventory as often as they like, free of charge. However, commercial use of the inventory is strictly forbidden. A more professional looking version of the

Table 4 Genos EI: Self-rated short form items (research only)

1	I appropriately communicate decisions to stakeholders.
2	I fail to recognize how my feelings drive my behavior at work. (R)
3	When upset at work, I still think clearly.
4	I fail to handle stressful situations at work effectively. (R)
5	I understand the things that make people feel optimistic at work.
6	I fail to keep calm in difficult situations at work. (R)
7	I am effective in helping others feel positive at work.
8	I find it difficult to identify the things that motivate people at work. (R)
9	I consider the way others may react to decisions when communicating them.
10	I have trouble finding the right words to express how I feel at work. (R)
11	When I get frustrated with something at work I discuss my frustration appropriately.
12	I don't know what to do or say when colleagues get upset at work. (R)
13	I am aware of my mood state at work.
14	I effectively deal with things that annoy me at work.

Note. (R) = items that are negatively keyed and must be reverse coded prior to calculating the Total EI score; the inventory is scored on a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = Almost Never, 2 = Seldom, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Usually, 5 = Almost Always; the Genos EI Short version has been generated for research purposes only. Any commercial application use of the Genos EI Short version is strictly forbidden.

Genos EI Short version questionnaire can be obtained free of charge from www.genos.com.au/research

Directions for Future Research

Although a substantial amount of convergent validity related research has been conducted with psychometric measures of EI, the overwhelming majority of the research appears to have focused upon the concurrent validity type, and, to a lesser extent, predictive validity. Typical concurrent validity research, such as correlating self-report EI scores with self-report leadership, well-being, or personality scores, for example, does play a role in the evaluation of the validity of a construct. In contrast, traditional predictive validity research, which typically involves correlating self-report EI scores with academic or job performance, for example, may be viewed more impressively. However, there may be beneficial scope to expanding the conceptualization of performance within the context of emotional intelligence research. That is, rather than measuring performance in a strict outcome oriented manner (e.g., sales, academic marks, output), a potentially more insightful method would involve measuring performance from a more process oriented approach.

For example, Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, and Plamondon's (2000) taxonomy of adaptive performance includes dimensions relevant to dealing with unpredictable situations, demonstrating cultural adaptability, and learning new tasks and procedures successfully, amongst others. These types of performance

indicators may be argued to be important in understanding and evaluating an individual's value to an organization, in addition to the more traditional indicators such as revenue generation, cases completed, etc. Further, EI would likely be meaningfully correlated with such non-traditionally conceived components of performance. Future EI research should explore this area.

In addition to expanding the conceptualization of performance within predictive validity EI studies, some emphasis should be placed upon assessing EI using a multi-measurement approach, rather than simply measuring EI with a single inventory. This recommendation should be viewed within the context of multitrait-multimethod (MTMM) validity research (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). That is, EI can conceivably be measured via self-report, rater-report, structured interviews, role-playing, and task-based tests. Scores derived from such an array of methods would provide a true assessment of EI, assuming the scores correlate with each other positively and sufficiently strongly. A MTMM approach to the assessment of EI would be expected to go a long way to potentially validating the construct validity and utility of EI. Admittedly, comprehensive MTMM investigations tend to be resource intensive. However, to-date, there is very little (if any) research that has even combined self-report EI with rater-report EI in convergent validity EI studies. Such a deficit in the literature should be attended to in the future.

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