CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Anyone can become angry—that is easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way—that is not easy”


1.1 INTRODUCTION

Emotional Intelligence (also known as Emotional Quotient) is one of the hot topics among business leaders and HR professionals lately. Emotional Intelligence (EI) has had a huge impact on management since Daniel Goleman(1995) published his book popular book on EI for a wider audience. From fairly humble beginnings. EI has come into its own as one of the most popular psychological concepts of the last decade. EI has been used by some as an umbrella term that comprises elements such as ‘soft skills’, ‘people skills’, and a general ability to cope with life’s demands. In other words ‘Emotional intelligence gives you a competitive edge’. It has been argued around the world that having great intellectual abilities may make you a superb fiscal analyst or legal scholar, but a highly developed emotional intelligence will make you a candidate for CEO or a brilliant trial lawyer” (Goleman, 1997, p. 76).

To some people the term ‘Emotional Intelligence’ is an oxymoron. As we know intelligence implies rational thinking, supposedly without any emotion.
The key to this compelling question touches many areas of research in Psychology and Management, the two fields which rely heavily on the various facets of EI in demystifying some key questions. Moreover, emotional intelligence is related to positive outcomes such as pro-social behaviours, parental warmth, and positive family and peer relations (Mayer et al, 1999; Rice, 1999).

In this thesis, I strive to look for understanding EI in its various dimensions and its role or impact on occupational success.

1.2 HISTORY

Charles Darwin was the first to recognize the value of emotions. He cited that the emotional system energizes behaviour needed to stay alive. Emotions cannot be stopped, they happen instinctually and immediately in response to various situations and people. Emotional intelligence, and its link to the evolution of the functional use of emotions, has been around since Charles Darwin wrote – in ‘The Expression Of The Emotions In Man And Animals’ (1872/1998) – about the functional purpose of emotions. Darwin believed that emotions ensured survival by energizing required behaviour and also suggested valued information (Salovey et al. 2000, p. 505). 'Darwin demonstrated that emotional expression plays a vital role in adaptive behaviour, which remains an important axiom of EI (emotional intelligence) to the present day' (Bar-On 2001, p. 83).

We have learned that human body is designed to perceive change in the internal and external environment – the face being the primary signal system to show emotion (Ekman 1992; Ekman & Davidson 1994). Mayer et al. (2000a)
believed 'emotions and reasoning sometimes have been viewed in opposition to one another' (p. 399). The belief was that emotions were chaotic and dangerous to logical thought, getting in the way of rational decision-making. Researchers (Ekman & Davidson 1994; Mayer et al. 1990; Mayer & Salovey 1990; Salovey et al. 2000) provided views on emotion in relation to cognition in the sequence of how emotional intelligence rose from a large body of literature to be a field of research on its own. Averill (1994) agreed that an emotion may be crucial to survival of the species whether in a social, biological, or psychological context.

Additionally, Mayer et al. (2000a) suggested that emotions signal relationships between a person and a friend, a family, the situation, a society, and internally between a person and his or her memory.

Roseman’s (2001) theory uniquely defines 17 emotions by combining the seven appraisal dimensions as outlined in Figure 1 on the next page. Roseman outlined nature and degree of emotions, their impact, and possible cause. It’s a detailed description of various types of emotions, their causes and also their potential

Figure 1 – Roseman’s Structure of Emotions
1.3 DEFINITION

The first formal mention of emotional intelligence appears to derive from a German article entitled “Emotional Intelligence and Emancipation” published in the journal “Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Kinderpsychiatre”, by Leuner in 1966 (Matthews, et al., 2002). However, the first time that the term “emotional intelligence” appeared in the English literature was in an unpublished doctoral dissertation by Payne in 1986 (Matthews, et al., 2002). Since then, Emotional intelligence has captured the interest of both the popular press (e.g. Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1995, 1996; Hein, 1997; Stiener,
and the scientific researchers (e.g. Davies, et al., 1998; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2001).

The concept of emotional intelligence can be traced to the notable research of Thorndike (1920), followed by the respective work of Moss and Hunt (1927), and Gardner (1983), in which they discussed and developed the related concept of social intelligence or multiple intelligence. As early as the 1930s, there have been studies of a possible emotional aspect to intelligence. In 1934, David Wechsler (of two well known intelligence tests) wrote of “non-intellective” aspect of intelligence. Gardner (1983) proposed a conceptualization of interpersonal intelligence—the competence to understand other people, and intrapersonal intelligence—the competence to understand the self and apply it effectively in life. Gardner’s theory's eight currently accepted intelligences are: (Ref: Educational Psychology, Robert Slavin. 2009, 117):

- Spatial
- Linguistic
- Logical-mathematical
- Bodily-kinesthetic
- Musical
- Interpersonal
- Intrapersonal
- Naturalistic

See Figure 2 for description of the eight intelligences Gardner identified.
### Figure 2: Gardner’s Theory of Multiple Intelligences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intelligences</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Linguistic intelligence</td>
<td>Allow individuals to communicate and make sense of the world through language. Typical professions include journalists, novelists and lawyers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Logical-mathematical</td>
<td>Enables individuals to use and appreciate abstract relations. Typical professions include scientists, accountants and philosophers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Spatial intelligence</td>
<td>Makes it possible for people to perceive visual or spatial information, to transform this information, and to recreate visual images from memory. Typical professions include architects, sculptors, and mechanics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Musical Intelligence</td>
<td>Allows people to create, communicate, and understand meanings made out of sound. Typical professions include composers, conductors and singers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence</td>
<td>Allows individuals to use all or part of the body to create products or solve problems. Typical professions include athletes, dancers and actors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Intra-personal intelligence</td>
<td>Helps individuals to distinguish among their own feelings, to build accurate mental models of themselves, and to draw on these models to make decisions about their lives. Typical profession include therapists and certain kinds of artists and religious leaders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Interpersonal intelligence</td>
<td>Enables individuals to recognise and make distinctions about others’ feelings and intentions. Typical professions include teachers, politicians and salespeople.</td>
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</table>
The term ‘Emotional Intelligence’ was coined and defined by Salovey and Mayer (1990). Despite its recent debut, there are already a number of definitions of EI. These conceptualizations can be divided into two streams: ‘ability models’ in which EI is defined as a set of cognitive abilities in emotional functioning (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) versus ‘mixed trait models’ that incorporate a wide range of personality characteristics and other traits (Bar-On, 2001; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) initially defined emotional intelligence as “the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action”. They later refined this definition as “the capacity to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thoughts, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). This model is referred to in the literature as an ability-based model that is different from other models of emotional intelligence that are referred to as mixed models of emotional intelligence. The ability model of emotional intelligence put forth by Mayer and Salovey (1997) presented emotional intelligence as a cognitive ability. The first branch of the ability model is ‘Identifying Emotions’. This branch includes a number of skills, such as the a) ability to identify feelings, b) ability to accurately expressing emotions, and c) ability to differentiate between real and phony emotional expressions. The second branch, ‘Emotional Facilitation of Thought’ (or Using Emotions), includes the ability to use emotions to redirect attention to important things or events, to generate emotions that support decision making, to use mood swings as a means to consider multiple view points, and nurture different emotions to
encourage different approaches to problem solving. The third branch, ‘Understanding Emotions’, is the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional “chains,” how emotions migrate from one stage or phase to another, the ability to recognize the causes/triggers of emotions, and the ability to understand relationships among complexity of emotions. The fourth branch of the ability model is ‘Managing Emotions’. Managing Emotions includes the ability to stay aware of one’s emotions (both pleasant and non-pleasant), the ability to determine whether an emotion is unique or typical, and the ability to solve emotion driven problems without having to suppress negative emotions (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; see also Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001). In 1990 Mayer, Caruso & Salovey also provided the first demonstration of how the construct may be measured (Mayer et al., 1990).

The MSCEIT has a factor structure congruent with the four-part model of EI and it is both reliable and content valid. The authors argue that the EI measured this way meets several standard criteria for a new intelligence: It is operationalized as a set of abilities; it is objective in that answers on the test are either right or wrong as determined by consensus or expert scoring; its scores correlate with existing intelligences while also showing unique variance; and scores increase with age (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer et al., 2002; Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003).

Goleman (1995, 1998) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to be aware of and to handle one’s emotions in varying situations. He concluded that emotional intelligence includes traits as self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skill.
• Self-Awareness

(i) Emotional awareness: Recognizing one’s emotions and their effects.
(ii) Accurate self-assessment: Knowing one’s strengths and limits.
(iii) Self-confidence: Sureness about one’s self-worth and capabilities.

• Self-Regulation

(i) Self-control: Managing disruptive emotions and impulses.
(ii) Trustworthiness: Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity.
(iii) Conscientiousness: Taking responsibility for personal performance
(iv) Adaptability: Flexibility in handling change.
(v) Innovativeness: Being comfortable with and open to novel ideas and new information.

• Self-Motivation

(i) Achievement drive: Striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence.
(ii) Commitment: Aligning with the goals of the group or organization.
(iii) Initiative: Readiness to act on opportunities.
(iv) Optimism: Persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks.

• Social Awareness

(i) Empathy: Sensing others’ feelings and perspective, and taking an active interest in their concerns.
(ii) Service orientation: Anticipating, recognizing, and meeting customers’ needs.
(iii) Developing others: Sensing what others need in order to develop, and bolstering their abilities.
(iv) Leveraging diversity: Cultivating opportunities through diverse people.
(v) Political awareness: Reading a group’s emotional currents and power relationships.

• Social Skills

(i) Influence: Wielding effective tactics for persuasion.
(ii) Communication: Sending clear and convincing messages.
(iii) Leadership: Inspiring and guiding groups and people.
(iv) Change catalyst: Initiating or managing change.
(v) Conflict management: Negotiating and resolving disagreements.
(vi) Building bonds: Nurturing instrumental relationships.
(vii) Collaboration and cooperation: Working with others toward shared goals.
(viii) Team capabilities: Creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals.

The Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Hay Group, 2001; Boyatzis & Sala, 2004) reflects four clusters of competencies that are quite similar to the four components of social and emotional competence that originally guided our work: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management.

Bar-On (1997) defined emotional intelligence as an array of competencies and skills that influence both an individual’s ability to succeed in life and an individual’s general, psychological well-being. In his words “Emotional intelligence involves abilities, competencies, and skills related to understanding oneself and others, relating to peers and family members, and adapting to
changing environmental situations and demands” Bar-On (2000, 2002). This model is known as mixed model. The EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997a) is a self-report test of EI that evolved out of the author’s question, “Why do some people have better psychological well-being than others? And, why are some people able to succeed in life over others?” (Bar-On, 1997b, p. 1). In the EQ-i manual, Bar-On (1997b) broadly defines EI as addressing the emotional, personal, social, and survival dimensions of intelligence, which are often more important for daily functioning than the more traditional cognitive aspects of intelligence. Emotional intelligence is concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. In a way, to measure emotional intelligence is to measure one’s “common sense” and ability to get along in the world. (p. 1). The 133-item, Bar-On (1997) EQ-i was developed to measure five main elements of emotional intelligence: (a) Intrapersonal, (b) Interpersonal, (c) Adaptability, (d) Stress Management, and (e) General Mood. It also includes a total score.

Singh (2001) appears to conceptualize emotional intelligence in much the same manner as Goleman (1995). Singh defines emotional intelligence as a type of social intelligence that consists of the ability to monitor one's own and others emotions, to discriminate between these emotions, and use information effectively to guide one's thinking and actions. His definition includes the dimensions of self-awareness, ability to manage moods, motivation, empathy, and social skills such as cooperation and leadership.
1.4 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODELS

In *The Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology*, Spielberger (2004) states there are currently three major conceptual models of emotional intelligence: (1) the Salovey-Mayer model which defines this construct as the ability to perceive, understand, manage, and use emotions to facilitate thinking, measured by an ability based measure; (2) the Goleman model which views the construct as an array of skills and competencies that drive managerial performance, measured by a multi-rater assessment; and (3) the Bar-On model which describes a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behaviour, measured by self-report.

The Ability models regard emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability and thus as a pure intelligence. In contrast, mixed models of emotional intelligence combine mental ability with personality characteristics such as optimism and well-being (Mayer, 1999). Currently, the only ability model of emotional intelligence is that proposed by John Mayer and Peter Salovey. Two mixed models of emotional intelligence have been proposed, each within a somewhat different conception. Reuven Bar-On has put forth a model based within the context of personality theory, emphasizing the co-dependence of the ability aspects of emotional intelligence with personality traits and their application to personal well-being. In contrast, Daniel Goleman proposed a mixed model in terms of performance, integrating an individual's abilities and personality and applying their corresponding effects on performance in the workplace (Goleman, 2001)
1.4  a) Salovey and Mayer: An Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence

Peter Salovey and John Mayer first coined the term "emotional intelligence" in 1990 (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and have since continued to conduct research on the significance of the construct. They propose that individuals differ in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. They then posit that this ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviours (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). Mayer and Salovey's conception of emotional intelligence is based within a model of intelligence, that is, it strives to define emotional intelligence within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003).

*Measures of Mayer and Salovey’s Model*

Mayer and Salovey began testing the validity of their four-branch model of emotional intelligence with the Multibranch Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). Composed of 12 subscale measures of emotional intelligence, evaluations with the Multibranch Emotional Intelligence Scale indicate that emotional intelligence is a distinct intelligence with 3 separate sub factors: emotional perception, emotional understanding, and emotional management. There were, however, certain limitations to the Multibranch Emotional Intelligence Scale. Not only was it a lengthy test (402 items) but it also failed to provide satisfactory evidence for the integration branch of the Four Branch
Model (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). For these and other reasons, Mayer and Salovey decided to design a new ability measure of emotional intelligence. The current measure of Mayer and Salovey’s model of emotional intelligence, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) was normed on a sample of 5,000 men and women. The MSCEIT is designed for individuals 17 years of age or older and aims to measure the four abilities outlined in Salovey and Mayer's model of emotional intelligence. With less than a third of the items of the original Multibranch Emotional Intelligence Scale, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test is comprised of 141 items.

**Figure 3: Mayer and Salovey's (1997) Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence**
1.4  b) Bar-On: A Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

The director of the Institute of Applied Intelligences in Denmark and consultant for a variety of institutions and organizations in Israel, Reuven Bar-On developed one of the first measures of emotional intelligence that used the term "Emotion Quotient". Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence relates to the potential for performance and success, rather than performance or success itself, and is considered process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented (Bar-On, 2002). In his model, Bar-On outlines 5 components of emotional intelligence: intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general mood.

**Figure 4 Bar-On’s Model of Emotional Intelligence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Sub-Components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal</td>
<td>Self Regard</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional Self-Awareness</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-Actualization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Responsibility</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpersonal Relationship</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>Reality Testing</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress Management</td>
<td>Stress Tolerance</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impulse Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Mood Components</td>
<td>Optimism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Happiness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measures of Bar-On’s Model

Reuven Bar-On's measure of emotional intelligence, the Bar-On Emotion Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), is a self-report measure of emotional intelligence for individuals sixteen years of age and over. One hundred and thirty three items are used to obtain a Total EQ (Total Emotion Quotient) and to produce five composite scales corresponding to the 5 main components of the Bar-On model: Intrapersonal EQ, Interpersonal EQ, Adaptability EQ, Stress Management EQ, and General Mood EQ. Bar-On has developed several versions of the Emotion Quotient Inventory to be used with various populations and in varying situations. In addition, the original EQ-i is available in several languages, including Spanish, French, Dutch, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Finnish, and Hebrew (Bar-On, 2002).

1.4 c) Goleman: A Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Daniel Goleman, a psychologist and science writer who has previously written on brain and behaviour research for the New York Times, discovered the work of Salovey and Mayer in the 1990's. Inspired by their findings, he began to conduct his own research in the area and eventually wrote Emotional Intelligence (1995), the landmark book which familiarized both the public and private sectors with the idea of emotional intelligence. Goleman's model outlines four main emotional intelligence constructs. The first, self-awareness, is the ability to read one's emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decisions. Self-management, the second construct, involves controlling one's emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances. The third construct, social awareness, includes the ability to sense, understand, and
react to other's emotions while comprehending social networks. Finally, relationship management, the fourth construct, entails the ability to inspire, influence, and develop others while managing conflict (Goleman, 1998). The organization of the competencies under the various constructs is not random; they appear in synergistic clusters or groupings that support and facilitate each other (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 1999).

Figure 5  Goleman's (2001) Emotional Intelligence Competencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RECOGNITION</th>
<th>SELF Personal Competence</th>
<th>OTHER Social Competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Self-Awareness</strong></td>
<td><strong>Social Awareness</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional Self-Awareness</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Accurate Self-Assessment</td>
<td>Service Orientation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Self-Confidence</td>
<td>Organizational Awareness</td>
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<tr>
<td>REGULATION</td>
<td><strong>Self-Management</strong></td>
<td><strong>Relationship Management</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Self-Control</td>
<td>Developing Others</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>Influence</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>Communication</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>Conflict Management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Achievement Drive</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>Change Catalyst</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Building Bonds</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Teamwork and Collaboration</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Measures of Goleman’s Model*

Several measurement tools have been developed based on Goleman’s model of emotional intelligence and it’s corresponding competencies. Included among these are the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI; Boyatzis, 1994), the
Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (EIA; Bradberry, Greaves, Emmerling, et al., 2003), and the Work Profile Questionnaire - Emotional Intelligence Version (WPQei; Performance Assessment Network, 2000).

Emotional Competency Inventory: Daniel Goleman developed the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) as a measure of emotional intelligence based on his emotional intelligence competencies as well as an earlier measure of competencies for managers, executives, and leaders (the Self-Assessment Questionnaire) by Richard Boyatzis (1994). The Emotional Competency Inventory is a multi-rater (360 degree) instrument that provides self, manager, direct report, and peer ratings on a series of behavioural indicators of emotional intelligence. It measures 20 competencies, organized into the four constructs outlined by Goleman's model: self awareness, social awareness, self management, and social skills. Each respondent is asked to describe themselves or the other person on a scale from 1 (the behaviour is only slightly characteristic of the individual) to 7 (the behaviour is very characteristic of the individual) for each item, and in turn these items are composed into ratings for each of the competencies. Emotional Intelligence Appraisal: The Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (EIA) measure was developed by Travis Bradberry and Jean Greaves along with members of the TalentSmart Research Team in an effort to create a quick and effective measure of emotional intelligence for use in a variety of settings. Work Profile Questionnaire - Emotional Intelligence Version: The emotional intelligence version of the Work Profile Questionnaire (WPQei) was designed as a self-report measure of seven competencies in the Goleman model of emotional intelligence.
1.4 d) Other Models and Measures

Several measures of emotional intelligence used in scientific research, particularly those sold for use in industrial and organizational settings, are not based on any of the aforementioned theories of emotional intelligence. Two of these measures: the Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS), Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) and SUEIT are described in the following section.

**The Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS)**

The Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale is a self-report measure of emotional intelligence intended to assess the extent to which people are aware of emotions in both themselves and others. The measure is based on a hierarchical theory of emotional intelligence, more specifically of emotional awareness, which consists of five sub-levels: physical sensations, action tendencies, single emotions, blends of emotion, and blends of these blends of emotional experience (Lane and Schwartz, 1989).

**The Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT)**

The Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test is a 33 item self-report measure of emotional intelligence developed by Schutte and colleagues (1998). Initially based on early writings on emotional intelligence by Mayer and Salovey, the Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test has been criticized for not properly
mapping onto the Salovey and Mayer model of E.I. and thus measuring a
different concept of emotional intelligence.

**SUEIT (The Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test) Palmer and Stough, 2001).**

The SUEIT is a self-report instrument specifically designed for use in the workplace, which indexes individuals’ perceptions of the way they feel, think and act at work, with emotions, and on the basis of emotional information. The SUEIT was developed from a large factor-analytic study involving the factors from six other emotional intelligence scales. Five factors accounted for 58 percent of the variance and thus provide the framework for the SUEIT; emotional recognition and expression (in oneself), emotions direct cognition, understanding of emotions external, emotional management and emotional control. Items were phrased to give the workplace SUEIT depth of scope, that is, to enable the SUEIT to assess how individuals generally think, feel and act with emotions at work and how they think, feel and act with specific emotions, and in more specific emotion-laden situations at work. The SUEIT comprises 65 items and is measured on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = never, 5 = always). Respondents are instructed to indicate the extent to which each statement is true of the way they typically think, feel and act at work. The SUEIT has both general norms and executive norms.
1.5 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Competing evidence exists surrounding whether or not males and females differ significantly in general levels of emotional intelligence. Daniel Goleman (1998) asserts that no gender differences in E.I. exist, admitting that while men and women may have different profiles of strengths and weaknesses in different areas of emotional intelligence, their overall levels of E.I. are equivalent. However, studies by Mayer and Geher (1996), Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999), and more recently Mandell and Pherwani (2003) have found that women are more likely to score higher on measures of emotional intelligence than men, both in professional and personal settings. After administering assessments to 4500 men and 3200 women, a testing organization found that women score higher than men on measures of empathy and social responsibility, but men outperform women on stress tolerance and self-confidence (Murray, 1998). In other words, women and men are both intelligent in measures of emotional ability, but they are strong in different areas. Since patterns of emotional intelligence are not fixed, men and women can boost their over-all skills by building their abilities where they lack them (Goleman, 2002)

1.6 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AT WORK

Emotional intelligence is critical in the workplace as Bradberry and Greaves (2005) point out: “The intensity and variety of emotions that can surface over the course of a day are astounding. People experience an average of 27
emotions each waking hour. The understanding of an organisation’s culture largely rests on how the organisation responds to emotions within it and deals with emotional management” (Hothschild 1983). With nearly 17 waking hours each day, you have about 456 emotional experiences from the time you get up until the time you go to bed. This means that more than 3,000 emotional reactions guide you through each week and more than 150,000 each year! Of all the emotions you will experience in your lifetime, nearly two million of them will happen during working hours. It’s no wonder that people who manage emotions well are easier to work with and more likely to achieve what they set out to do.”

Weisinger (1998) comments about the value of using our emotional intelligence both in how we conduct ourselves and in how we relate to other. This is all building toward—and we should all be striving for—the emotionally intelligent organization, a company in which the employees create a culture that continuously applies the skills and tools of emotional intelligence.

Organizations would be wise to put emotional intelligence to work. Andreas Renschler, CEO and President of Mercedes-Benz, encourages leaders to bring out the best talents throughout the organization commenting that “emotional intelligence is to an executive as sonar is to a ship, helping to steer clear of problem areas that can’t otherwise be seen” (Ryback, 1998). Ryback also views emotional intelligence in organizations as a strength. He suggests that Emotional intelligence is far from weakness. It derives from our inner strength which, when joined to a sensitive heart, makes for real character. Putting emotional intelligence to work is more than a flight of fantasy for corporate America. It’s the most effective way to get more productive results in today’s extremely competitive marketplace.
According to Dulewicz and Higgs (1998), the core of Goleman’s findings (1995, 1998a, 1998b) is that emotional intelligence makes a difference in terms of individual and organizational success. In practice this implies that if managers and employees develop their emotional intelligence, both parties will benefit. This view is supported by Langley (2000). He concurs that managers will have a workforce willing to engage with passion, and employees will have managers who are receptive and open to their needs.

Lynn (2005) says that “Emotional intelligence can make a huge difference in both our personal lives and our work satisfaction and performance. Emotional intelligence is the distinguishing factor that determines if we make lemonade when life hands us lemons or spend our life stuck in bitterness. It is the distinguishing factor that enables us to have wholesome, warm relationships rather than cold and distant contact. EQ is the distinguishing factor between finding and living our life’s passions or just putting in time. EQ is the distinguishing factor that draws others to us or repels them. EQ is the distinguishing factor that enables us to work in concert and collaboration with others or to withdraw in dispute”

Cherniss (2000) outlines four main reasons why the workplace would be a logical setting for evaluating and improving emotional intelligence competencies:

1. Emotional intelligence competencies are critical for success in most jobs.
2. Many adults enter the workforce without the competencies necessary to succeed or excel at their job.

3. Employers already have the established means and motivation for providing emotional intelligence training.

4. Most adults spend the majority of their waking hours at work

\[\text{Figure 6: An Emotional Intelligence Assessment Tool for the Workplace}\]

\[\text{Source: Genos, 2009}\]

Substantial research attention has been focused on understanding the impact of workplace conflict on team process and outcomes (Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1995,
1997; Jehn & Chatman, 2000; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Figure 6 shows the emotional intelligence assessment tool at work. Companies can follow several practices and cultivate emotional intelligence at workplace (Figure 7).

**Figure 7: Good Practices that Cultivate Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace**

- **Paving the Way**
  - Assess the organization’s needs
  - Assess the individual
  - Deliver assessments with care
  - Maximize learner choice
  - Encourage people to participate
  - Link learning goals to personal values
  - Adjust expectations
  - Gauge readiness

- **Doing the Work of Change**
  - Foster a positive relationship between the trainers and learners
  - Make change self-directed
  - Set clear goals
  - Break goals into manageable steps
  - Provide opportunities to practice
  - Monitor performance and give feedback
  - Rely on experiential methods
  - Build in support
  - Use models
  - Enhance insight

- **Evaluate the Change**
  - Evaluate

- **Encourage Transfer and Maintenance of Change**
  - Encourage use of skills on the job
  - Develop an organizational culture that supports learning


Peter M. Senge, in his popular book ‘The Fifth Discipline’, points out the value of being cognizant of your colleagues, and of yourself, by describing "team learning." With team learning, the "intelligence of the team exceeds the intelligence of the individuals in the team.” Senge explains the benefit of the
team approach: Individuals may work extraordinarily hard, but their efforts do not efficiently translate to team effort. By contrast, when a team becomes more aligned, a commonality of direction emerges, and individuals' energies harmonize. There is less wasted energy. In fact, a resonance or synergy develops, like the "coherent" light of a laser rather than the incoherent and scattered light of a light bulb."

**Emotional Intelligence Measurement Tools**

Emotional intelligence tests have been used to predict leadership style, emergent leadership, and leadership perceptions (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2002; Humphrey, 2002; Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2002; Wolf, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002) and have evolved over a period of time. The detailed analysis of the various measurement tools have been done in the next chapter of the dissertation.

**1.7 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN EDUCATION**

"Given that the key components of the collaborative process are inherently emotional in nature, leaders who are successful in developing collaborative work cultures may be those who are able to manage, rather than deny, their emotional selves" (Slater, 2005, p. 330). The study indicates the need to address the emotional component in education system followed around the world. As Goleman points out, "One of psychology's open secrets is the relative inability of grades, IQ, or SAT scores, despite their popular mystique, to predict unerringly who will succeed in life."
Children of more democratic parents, enjoy better peer competence (Gottman, Katz, & Hooven, 1997; Pearson & Rao, 2003). Parental empathy-related characteristics and emotion-related child-rearing practices relate to children’s competent emotional responding (Eisenberg, Fabes, Schaller, & Miller, 1991). “Nowhere is the discussion of emotional intelligence more pressing than in schools, where both the stakes and the opportunities seem greatest” (Gibbs, 1995). As Kusché and Greenberg support, “although emotional growth takes place throughout life, childhood is a time of especially rapid maturation” (Kusché and Greenberg, 2006). In order to raise an emotionally intelligent student, learning environments should be adaptive and transformative.

“Educators can point to all sorts of data to support this new direction. Students who are depressed or angry literally cannot learn. Children who have trouble being accepted by their classmates are 2 to 8 times as likely to drop out” (Gibbs, 1995).

As Low and Nelson argue, “test scores reflect only a small part of learning that is important in academic success, career effectiveness, and personal well-being. We lose the true concept of education when we equate education and resultant learning to information retention, information transfer, and test taking” (Low and Nelson, 2005). What students need to acquire and develop is the ability to think and the way that they need to behave and react in certain situations. They need, in other words, to develop wisdom. “One does not have to be old to be wise. Young children can learn skills that allow them to behave wisely and effectively, for example interpersonal skills, dealing with strong emotions, time management, goal achievement” (Low and Nelson, 2005).
Parental modeling, encouragement, facilitation, and rewarding of emotional intelligent-related behaviour predicted children’s attention, clarification, and regulation of feelings (Martinez-Pons, 1999). Ellison (2001) states: “when I was a beginning teacher, there were a number of theories of learning. Educators had little knowledge of how the brain operated. One theory stated that children were empty vessels waiting to be filled. Another theory promoted Skinner’s concept of operant conditioning, the forerunner of behavioural management systems” (p. viii). We recognize that these theories provide a basis for our understanding of how learning occurs, but our knowledge is broader now and new research techniques have contributed to new thought about the interplay between reason and emotion. According to Caine and Caine (1991), “the task, then is for educators to deeply understand the way in which the brain learns. The more profound the understanding, the easier it is to actually see what is happening in a classroom and to creatively introduce the necessary changes”

In addition to providing a more formal definition of emotional intelligence, Mayer and Salovey’s 1990 articles described an emotionally intelligent character: a well-adjusted, genuine, warm, persistent, and optimistic person. Both the character education and socio-emotional learning movements share in common the idea that much of human personality can be modified for the better through learning

Gardner while re-emphasizing his theory of multiple intelligences says “One of the most important things I have learned in my years as an academician is the
value of emotional intelligence, which incorporates intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence or abilities” (Gardner, 1983, 1993).

Figure 8: Comparison of the concepts of Emotional Intelligence, Socio-emotional Learning and Character Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Emotional Intelligence</th>
<th>Character Education</th>
<th>Socioemotional Learning</th>
<th>Popular Emotional Intelligence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>Emotional intelligence is the ability to process emotional information, particularly as it involves the perception, assimilation, understanding, and management of emotion (after Mayer and Salovey, 1997).</td>
<td>The long-term process of helping young people develop good character, that is, knowing, caring about, and acting on core ethical values such as fairness, honesty, compassion, responsibility, and respect for self and others. (The Character Education Partnership, 1998).</td>
<td>“Socioemotional learning is the process through which children and adults develop the skills, attitudes, and values necessary to acquire social and emotional competence” (Elia et al., 1997, p. 2).</td>
<td>Emotional intelligence, popularly conceived, involves “abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations, to control impulsion and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamp[ing] the ability to think; to empathize, and to hope” (Goleman, 1995, p. 34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further specification</td>
<td>Four main areas of abilities: (1) Perception and expression of emotion (2) Integrating emotions in thought (3) Understanding emotions (4) Managing emotions</td>
<td>Values emphasized include: (1) fairness (2) honesty, (3) compassion, (4) responsibility (5) respect for self and others (The Character Education Partnership, 1998).</td>
<td>Skills in four domains of learning: (1) Life skills and social competencies (2) Health-promotion and problem-prevention skills (3) Coping skills and social support for transitions and crises (4) Positive contributory service (Elia et al., pp. 21–22).</td>
<td>Five main areas: (1) Knowing one’s emotions (2) Managing emotions (3) Motivating oneself (4) Recognizing emotions in others (5) Handling relationships</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are many potential personal, social, and societal benefits of incorporating a focus on emotional intelligence, which has been shown to be moldable (Cohen, 1999; Goleman, 1995; Topping, Holmes, & Bremmer, 2000), into higher education. Inclusion of classes on emotional intelligence in primary and secondary school curriculum is efficacious in raising emotional intelligence and reducing emotional and behavioural problems which can interfere with the learning process (Caplan et al., 1992; Cohen, 1999). Knowledge about ourselves and others, as well as the ability to use this knowledge to solve problems, is a keystone to academic learning and success (Cohen, 1999; Goleman, 1995). Another personal benefit is that students high in self-knowledge are more likely to make wise career choices (Gelso & Fretz, 2001). Not surprisingly, high emotional intelligence in parents has been found to have a positive impact on the social and emotional development of their children (Gottman, Katz, & Hooven, 1997; Hooven, Gottman, & Katz, 1995).

While Intelligence Quotient (IQ) has long been used as a predictor of a student’s success, as the world enters the 21st Century, research shows that Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a better predictor of “success” than the more traditional measures of cognitive intelligence (EQ University, 2004). According to Pool (1997), IQ predicts only about 20 percent of career success while emotional intelligence predicts about 80 percent of a person’s success in life.

Research also suggests that people with high levels of emotional intelligence “experience more career success, build stronger personal relationships, lead more effectively, and enjoy better health than those with low [emotional intelligence] EQ” (Cooper, 1997). According to Elias et al. (1997), social and emotional education help students develop attitudes, behaviours, and
cognitions that will make them “healthy and competent” overall – socially, emotionally, academically, and physically. Both character education and social and emotional education aspire to teach our students to be good citizens with positive values to interact effectively and behave constructively (Akers, 1998). Abisamra (2000) then queried that if this is found to be so, why the teachers don’t begin to teach its components (i.e., emotional intelligence) to students at schools? He then concluded that if emotional intelligence affects student achievement, then it is imperative for schools to integrate it in their curricula and thereby raising the level of students’ success.

It’s appreciative what Malone and Malone (1987) have said about educators and our educational system along these lines: Instead of teaching us creative thinking, they teach us how to give the right answer…the answer the system wants. Students who give creative responses are often dissuaded from risking being different. We are not speaking about whether the answers on the multiplication tables are optional…of course they are not. What we are speaking about is the capture by the system that prevents people from learning out of their own experience.

Hallam (2003) says it is possible to improve on the emotional intelligence we were granted at birth and after we understand and find we can improve our own EQ, we can reach out to help others. For those who do attempt to help others sense, understand, and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, and influence; there is a need to insist upon the highest level of moral responsibility.
MARSHMALLOW STUDIES

The “marshmallow studies,” conducted at Stanford University, suggest that emotional and social skills actually help improve cognitive functioning (Cherniss, 2000). In that study, four year olds were asked to stay in a room by themselves with a marshmallow and wait for the adult researcher to return. They were told that if they could wait until the adult returned before eating the marshmallow, they could have two marshmallows. The participants in the study were tracked down ten years later. The kids who were able to resist temptation and delay gratification had a total SAT score that was 210 points higher than those kids who were unable to wait for the adult to return (Shoda, Mischel, & Peake, 1990). This study suggested that the kids who listened and waited patiently for the adult to return were more emotionally and socially competent for their age group. Additionally, these same kids were found to have a higher level of cognitive functioning in later years as evidenced by their scores on the SAT.

Figure 9: The 21 leadership responsibilities that influence the overall achievement of students identified are listed in Table Adapted from Marzano et al. (2005),
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Responsibility</th>
<th>Definition: The extent to which the principal...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Affirmation</td>
<td>Recognizes and celebrates school accomplishments and acknowledges failures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Change Agent</td>
<td>Is willing to and actively challenges the status quo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Communication</td>
<td>Establishes strong lines of communication with teachers and among students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Contingent Rewards</td>
<td>Recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Culture</td>
<td>Fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Discipline</td>
<td>Protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching time or focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Flexibility</td>
<td>Adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Focus</td>
<td>Establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Ideals and Beliefs</td>
<td>Communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Input</td>
<td>Involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>Ensures that the faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a regular aspect of the school culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, Assessment</td>
<td>Is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, Assessment</td>
<td>Is knowledgeable about current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Monitor and Evaluate</td>
<td>Monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Optimize</td>
<td>Inspires and leads new and challenging innovations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Order</td>
<td>Establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Outreach</td>
<td>Is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Relationships</td>
<td>Demonstrates awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Resources</td>
<td>Provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Situational Awareness</td>
<td>Is aware of the details and the undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Visibility</td>
<td>Has quality contacts and interactions with teachers and students</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.8 STRUCTURE OF BRAIN & EMOTIONAL HIJACK

It’s important to know the brain structure to understand how emotional hijack happens (Figure 10)

Figure 10: Overview of parts of brain

1. **Cerebrum**: The biggest part of the brain is the cerebrum. The cerebrum makes up 85% of the brain's weight. The cerebrum is the thinking part of the brain and it controls your voluntary muscles — the ones that move when you want them to.

2. **Corpus Callosum**: The corpus callosum is the arched bridge of nervous tissue that connects the two cerebral hemispheres, allowing communication between the right and left sides of the brain.
3. **Thalamus**: The thalamus is a large ovoid mass of grey matter situated in the posterior part of the forebrain that relays sensory impulses to the cerebral cortex.

4. **Hypothalamus**: The hypothalamus is like your brain's inner thermostat. The hypothalamus knows what temperature your body should be (about 98.6° Fahrenheit or 37° Celsius). If your body is too hot, the hypothalamus tells it to sweat. If you're too cold, the hypothalamus gets you shivering.

5. **Amygdala**: The amygdala is a bunch of cells on each side of the brain. The word amygdala is Latin for the word almond. That is what the area of cells looks like. This part of the brain is responsible for emotions. The amygdala is believed to serve as a communications hub between the parts of the brain that process incoming sensory signals and the parts that interpret them. It can signal that a threat is present, and trigger a fear response or anxiety. It appears that emotional memories stored in the central part of the amygdala may play a role in disorders involving very distinct fears, like phobias, while different parts may be involved in other forms of anxiety.

6. **Hippocampus**: The hippocampus is a part of the cerebrum, and that’s the area of your brain that deals with memory. There are different kinds of memory, short-term and long-term. Short-term memory describes information that the brain has recently received. Long-term memory deals with things that have happened in the past.

7. **Cerebellum**: The cerebellum is at the back of the brain, below the cerebrum. It's a lot smaller than the cerebrum at only 1/8 of its size. But it's a
very important part of the brain. It controls balance, movement, and coordination (how your muscles work together).

8. **Brain Stem:** Another brain part that's small but mighty is the brain stem. The brain stem sits beneath the cerebrum and in front of the cerebellum. It connects the rest of the brain to the spinal cord, which runs down your neck and back. The brain stem is in charge of all the functions your body needs to stay alive, like breathing air, digesting food, and circulating blood.

Goleman establishes the notion of an *emotional hijack*. The major saboteur of EQ, emotional hijacks occur when emotions take over conscious choice, are inappropriate in intensity or type to the situation, and/or are basically responsible for social difficulties whether in child or adult - «the emotional outburst» as it were! According to Goleman, «The hallmark of such a hijack is that once the moment passes, those so possessed have the sense of not knowing what came over them. This condition, according to the literature, is neurally based and long-thought to «originate in the amygdala, a center in the limbic system,» that part of the brain often thought of as the *emotional brain*. If the amygdala is severed from the rest of the brain, the result is a striking inability to gauge the emotional significance of events. Yet more recent neuroscientific research, however, points to the interplay between the amygdala and the neocortex (*the thinking brain*) as being actually the heart of emotional intelligence. Emotionally intelligent behaviour is now best described as that type of response that results from a neural interaction between the amygdala and the prefrontal neocortex insofar as the amygdala’s firing is tempered by firings from the left prefrontal neocortex. Citing LeDoux’s work, Goleman provides a description of this tripwire:
“A visual signal first goes from the retina to the thalamus, where it is translated into the language of the brain. Most of the message then goes to the visual cortex, where it is analyzed and assessed for meaning and appropriate response; if that response is emotional, a signal goes to the amygdala to activate the emotional centers. But a smaller portion of the original signal goes straight from the thalamus to the amygdala in a quicker transmission, allowing a faster (though less precise) response. Thus the amygdala can trigger an emotional response before the cortical centers have fully understood what is happening.” In nutshell, The amygdala can have us spring into action while the slightly slower - but more fully informed - neocortex unfolds its more refined plan for reaction.

1.9 NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Despite the rather large literature concerning emotional intelligence, the vast majority of studies concerning development and validation of emotional intelligence scales have been done in the Western countries. Cobb and Mayer (2000) stated, “To date there has been relatively little research suggesting the validity of emotional intelligence within educational, occupational, and other important life domains” Because the concept of emotional intelligence has been coined, defined and researched only within the last decade, the diversity of the literature as well as the breadth of study, exploration and research is somewhat finite. A small handful of psychologists have led the research on emotional intelligence, and it is their work that is cited, quoted, and built upon in professional journals and other literature on the topic. Also, because the
newness of the concept, the studies and findings are continuously shaping the recommendations of the research.

1.10 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To understand the role of Emotional Intelligence in organizations and leadership

2. To study the impact of Emotional Intelligence in workplace success

3. To examine the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and occupational success.

4. To examine the emotional intelligence competencies (if any) which are predictors of success?

1.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This area of research is relatively new (since the early 1990’s), with most of the work to date, definitional in nature. Only very recently has the research moved into how the construct of emotional intelligence impacts individuals and their performance. Within the area of emotional intelligence research, there exist few instruments to study it. Utilizing the emotional intelligence construct is a second limitation of this study. A wide variety of definitions of this construct
exist ranging from a very broad perspective inclusive of many personality characteristics, to a very narrow restrictive perspective.

1.12 CHAPTER SCHEME

Chapter 1    Introduction
This chapter gives an overview of ‘Emotional Intelligence’, how it evolved, and various models around emotional intelligence. The chapter then talks about relevance of emotional intelligence in organizations and in education. The chapter in the end talks about objectives of the study, significance of the study, research methodology and limitations of the study besides giving an overview of the chapter scheme of the dissertation.

Chapter 2    Literature Review
The review of literature covers various facets of emotional intelligence. The chapter discusses various theories of emotions, studies on ‘intelligence’, definitions of emotional intelligence, emotional intelligence in workplace success, role of emotional intelligence in organizations and emotional intelligence in leadership. The chapter also briefly talks about emotional intelligence training. The chapter includes research papers, studies conducted by the various international organizations and independent consultants, as well as specialist studies.
Chapter 3    Research Methodology

This chapter details the research definition, objectives and the scope of the study. Additionally, the chapter specifies the methodology followed for development of the questionnaires and schedule of questions, selection of sample, data collection and analysis.

Chapter 4    Data Analysis & Interpretation of Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Occupational Success

The chapter presents analysis of emotional intelligence measure and occupational success. The chapter explores a possible relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational success of individuals across industries and age groups.

Chapter 5

Summary, Findings, Limitations & Suggestions for Future Research

This chapter presents the summary of the research study, with the recommendations and impact of emotional intelligence on occupational success. The limitations of the study are also given along with suggestions for future research.