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LITERATURE REVIEW

The present chapter addresses the literature surrounding; Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Stress and Employee Commitment; and the role of each on work related outcomes. It also explores the inter relationships between the three constructs of the study and lays a foundation for the development of the research hypothesis.

Emotional Intelligence- Evolution & Review of Literature

2.1 Intelligence to Emotional Intelligence

➢ In 1920, Thorndike concluded that human beings possess various kinds and forms of intelligence; one form of these was called social intelligence which he explained as the ability to understand individuals and to act wisely in human relations [42].
➢ David Wechsler (1958) explained intelligence as, an individual’s ability to be rational and effective in dealing with his environment [43].
➢ Howard Gardner (1983) further defined intelligence into two basic parts; “interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence”. The former being the capacity to deal with other people; and the latter being the capacity to understand oneself. Gardner said that both these intelligences were different from the various types of intelligence that can be measured by using I.Q. tests [44].
➢ Researchers, Salovey and Mayer originally embarked on the studies around social intelligence and concluded that their research on, Emotional Intelligence heavily delved on the concept of, “social intelligence” that was given by the previous researchers [45]. They believed that both concepts were similar in nature and were based on similar foundations of
human behaviour. They found that some people were better at dealing with their emotions and regulating them, than many others.

➤ Daniel Goleman (1998) in his research on emotions took heavily from Salovey and Mayer’s manuscript on the developing concept of Emotional Intelligence and related it to, “workplace success” [16]. His bestselling books on Emotional Intelligence gave the concept household awareness. Goleman’s Emotional Intelligence model has received huge appreciation and it forms the basis of diverse studies, in the field of Emotional Intelligence.

➤ Boyatzis and Sala (2004) defined Emotional Intelligence in terms of one’s knowledge of emotional information for effective and superior work performance [46].

2.2 Models of Emotional Intelligence

Popular models of Emotional Intelligence can be classified into two parts:

I. Ability Models of Emotional Intelligence: these models Emotional Intelligence explain EI in terms one’s natural capacities and natural abilities that exist from birth.

II. Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence: these models explain Emotional Intelligence as a mixture of abilities, personality traits and characteristics which over time can be developed towards Emotional Intelligence competencies in individuals.

2.2.1 Mayer-Salovey-Caruso’s Model: Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence

Salovey & Mayer explained Emotional Intelligence on two basic paradigms. The first was that; intelligence relates to the ability to carry out abstract reasoning with the help of emotions and the second being that; the basic emotions are universal throughout the world [27]. The researchers proposed that Emotional Intelligence can be understood as an, “experiential ability” and “strategic ability” [47].
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1. *Experiential ability* was explained as one’s capacity to perceive, respond and manipulate emotional information. This could be done even without necessarily understanding them.

2. *Strategic ability* was explained as the ability to be able to understand one’s emotions and carefully manage them without having to necessarily perceive or fully experience them.

Each of these areas is further divided into two branches.

1. **Experiential ability: Emotional perception & Emotional assimilation**

   I. *Emotional perception*: one’s ability to be aware of one’s own genuine emotions and to be able to express his to others.

   II. *Emotional assimilation*: the ability to be able to recognize all the different emotions that one feels at a point in time and also recognize the impact of each on one’s thought process.

2. **Strategic ability: Emotional understanding & Emotion management**

   I. *Emotional understanding*: the ability to understand complex and multiple emotions and focusing on the transitions from one to the other.

   II. *Emotion management*: the ability to understand if one should be related or connected or form a disconnect from any emotion that he experiences; depending on the situational demand [48].

2.2.2 Bar-On’s Model: Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Reuven Bar-On researched on a mixed model of *Emotional Intelligence* and suggested that *Emotional Intelligence* comprised of both, “*ability*” and “*personality*”; factors.

He was the first researcher to use the word *"Emotion Quotient"*, to measure one’s *Emotional Intelligence* [49].

*Ph.D. Thesis*
Bar-On’s Model of Emotional Intelligence

Bar-On’s model explains intelligence in the terms of, ones self and interpersonal intelligence along with a focus on stress and general moods [50]. He suggested that above average EQ would help an individual to deal with environmental demands and achieve success at work. He explained Interpersonal abilities to do with ones relationship with the external environment, his level of empathy and understanding [51]. Bar-On was of the opinion that both, “emotional & Cognitive Intelligence”; both contribute to an individual’s basic general intelligence and his of being successful in life [50].

2.2.3 Goleman & Boyatzis Model of Emotional Intelligence

Goleman defined emotional competence as, “a learned capability based on Emotional Intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work” [16]. He believed that there is a major role of emotional competencies in various professions that involve emotional labor, service and relationship management. He affirmed that Emotional Intelligence competencies are capable of determining one’s potential for learning the practical skills and job capabilities [52] [53].

As Goleman started his research on Emotional Intelligence, he initially proposed two basic competencies which were; “personal” and “social competencies”. Personal competencies included; Self-Awareness, Self Regulation, and Motivation and social competencies included Empathy and Social Skills.

Eventually in the year 2000, with the help of Stastical insights of two researchers Richard Boyatzis and Rhee, Goleman’s model was re investigated and revised [54]. After researching on a sample of six hundred working professionals, the EI competencies were re clubbed into four main clusters as under:
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I. Self-Awareness
II. Self-Management
III. Social Awareness
IV. Relationship Management.

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|                   | Emotional Self-Awareness
|                   | Accurate Self-Assessment
|                   | Self-Confidence
| Regulation        | Self-Management     | Relationship Management |
|                   | Self-Control        | Developing Others |
|                   | Trustworthiness     | Influence         |
|                   | Conscientiousness   | Communication     |
|                   | Adaptability        | Conflict Management|
|                   | Achievement Drive   | Leadership        |
|                   | Initiative          | Change Catalyst   |

*Source: Emotionally Intelligent Workplace (2003), edited by Cary Cherniss and Daniel Goleman, chapter 3.*

Figure 1.1 Goleman’s Model of Emotional Intelligence

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The competencies of the framework can be described as follows [57]

I. Self-Awareness: Includes Emotional Self-Awareness, Accurate Self-Assessment, and Self-Confidence.

1. Emotional self-awareness is described as the ability of an individual to identify his own emotions clearly, by recognizing the base of such feelings and the triggers that are responsible for the same.
2. Accurate self-assessment refers to be able to assess oneself in full capacity of strengths, weaknesses and limitations.
3. Self confidence is an evaluation of one’s competencies and establishment of one’s self respect and worth.

II. Self-Management: Includes emotional self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, optimism, achievement orientation and initiative [57].

1. Emotional self-control is the ability to keep one’s disruptive emotions and impulses under control.
2. Trustworthiness refers to one’s continuing standards of honesty and integrity.
3. Conscientiousness denotes the capability of taking responsibility for personal performance.
4. Adaptability is the ability to be flexible when faced with change. Optimism refers to viewing the world or situations at hand in a positive manner.
5. Achievement orientation refers to an optimistic effort to improve performance.
6. Initiative is the ability to take anticipatory actions before a problem, obstacle, or opportunity are visible.

III. Social Awareness: It includes empathy, organizational awareness, and service orientation [57].

1. Empathy is about understanding and knowing other people’s feelings, needs and concerns.
2. Organizational awareness is the ability to read the current of emotions correctly, and understand political power relationships in groups.
3. **Service orientation** is the ability to identify others’ unstated needs and concerns while focusing one’s efforts on others.

4. **Developing Others**: Sensing what others need in order to develop, and bolstering their abilities.

5. **Leadership**: Inspiring and guiding groups and people

IV. **Relationship Management**: It includes helping others develop, inspirational leadership, influence, communication, catalyzing change, conflict management, fostering collaboration and teamwork [56]. Assisting others in their development involves the ability to read others’ developmental needs and foster their abilities.

1. **Inspirational leadership** refers to the ability to inspire people to collaborate together for a common goal.

2. **Influence** is the ability to persuade, convince, or impact others by managing emotions effectively in other people.

3. **Communication** is the ability to listen openly, and send clear messages effectively to others.

4. **Changing catalyst** refers to being able to recognize the need for change and take initiatives in response to those changes.

5. **Conflict management** is the ability to deal wisely with difficult individuals or groups of people and mitigate tense situations with diplomacy and strategy.

6. **Building bonds** refers to the ability of building and continuing close and good relationships with a variety of people.

7. **Teamwork and collaboration** is the ability to work cooperatively with others to accomplish shared goals.

2.2.4 Dalip Singh: Emotional Intelligence in the Indian Context

Dalip Singh’s (2003) *Emotional Intelligence construct* consists of three psychological areas; *Emotional Sensitivity, Emotional Maturity, and Emotional Competence* [57].
Singh bases his model on the premise that the understanding of Emotional Intelligence in the Indian context is different from the existing model of Goleman; which is more apt in the western culture. Singh argues that the degree of Power Distance and Collectivism in the Indian culture is different from the western culture as Indians are taught to interpret emotions as an intellectual exercise; rather than an emotive response (Singh, 2003).

His model of Emotional Intelligence has the following three dimensions:

1. **Emotional maturity (EM):**
The construct can be classified as under:

   I. **Self Awareness:** the ability to be aware and recognize the different feelings that arise from within oneself, keeping in mind one’s strength and weaknesses

   II. **Developing others:** The ability to recognize the importance and contribution of others by appreciating their opinion and point of view. Also, encouraging them to participate.

   III. **Delaying Gratification:** the ability to exercise self control and to delay the satisfaction of instantaneously reacting to a particular situation. It also involves being patient and taking time to judge the consequences before reacting.

   IV. **Adaptability and Flexibility:** the ability to sense situations and know how and when to take the lead and when to follow. (Singh, D., 2003).

2. **Emotional competency (EC):**

   I. **Tackling Emotional Upsets:** This refers to the ability to handle inferiority complexes and tackle conflicts and frustrations that one may encounter etc. It also emphasizes on the ability to deal with negative emotions that one experiences and to be able to deal with stress and burnout.

   II. **High self esteem:** This refers to the ability to be optimistic and having a positive attitude.
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III. Tactful response to emotional stimuli: This refers to the ability to be able to deal practically with emotional prompts that arise from within oneself and the environment. It could also involve manipulation of others responses accordingly.

IV. Handling egoism: This refers to the ability to be able to deal with ego problems by letting go of self interest, as per situational demands.

3. Emotional sensitivity (ES):

I. Understanding Threshold of Emotional Arousal: This refers to the ability to be receptive to emotions of low intensity and to be able to be aware of the relationship between feelings and actions.

II. Empathy: This refers to the ability to sense the feelings of others, without getting emotionally carried away and accept how other people feel without getting carried away by personal emotions.

III. Improving Inter-personal Relations: This refers to the ability to built strong interpersonal relationships that are based on trust, confidence and reliance.

IV. Communicability of Emotions: This refers to the ability to communicate positive emotions to others.

2.3 Measures of Emotional Intelligence

This section explains the various research instruments that have been developed as measures of Emotional Intelligence that this research studies.

2.3.1 The Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test

The (MSCEIT) was developed by Meyer and Salovey, to measure Emotional Intelligence. The test is a self report measure and measures the scores of the four branches in the model, along with two scores of the broad areas and eight individual task scores [58]. The test further provides three supplementary scores. The test has been standardized on a sample of appx. 2000
individuals [59]. The test has a high reliability with .90 and 90 for consensus and .88 and .86 for expert scoring, in the area of experiential and strategic abilities respectively. The four branches also have high reliability between 0.76 to 0.91 [60]. Many Studies have shown that the MSCEIT has discriminant, convergent, predictive and incremental validity.

2.3.2 The Emotional Quotient Inventory

The EQ-I, has been devised by Bar-On; as a measure of Emotional Intelligence. This test is also a self report measure. The test is based on a five point likert scale and comprises of a total of 133 items that give a total composite score of the five branches and fifteen subscales of his model; namely, Intrapersonal Emotional Quotient, Interpersonal Emotional Quotient, Adaptability Emotional Quotient, Stress Management Emotional Quotient, and General Mood Emotional Quotient. The test can be administered on individuals who are 17 years of age or elder [49]. This scale has good reliability and validity [61].

The Cronbach’s alpha for the scale is between 0.69 to 0.86 for all subscales; with an overall internal consistency coefficient of 0.76 [49].

2.3.3 Emotional & Social Competence Inventory

The (ESCI) has been developed by Prof. Richard Boyatzis and Dr. Daniel Goleman and has been supported and published by the Hay Group. The inventory is a “360” that tries to assess the sets of competencies that differentiate outstanding from average performers. The test comprises of three basic inventories; Emotional Competency Inventory and the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal [62] [63].

2.3.3.1 Emotional Competency Inventory:

This scale has been developed by Goleman and is based on the self assessment measure of Boyatzis that measures Emotional Intelligence and leadership competencies. The scale is a holistic (360 degree) multi rater based scale that records the
responses of one’s superiors, subordinates, peers and self. The test gives a score by measuring the scores on the twenty competencies in Goleman’s EI Model. Each respondent is finally given a set of two basic ratings for each competency which is a self rated score and the others rated score [53].

2.3.3.2 Emotional Intelligence Appraisal:

This scale is by researchers Travis Bradberry and Jean Greaves. The scale is based on Goleman’ model of emotional intelligence. The scale is a self report measure and consists of 28 items that measure all the four facets of Goleman’s EI model [62].

2.4 Keywords to describe Emotional Intelligence

A review of literature highlights some of the most important dentitions that have been given to explain the concept of emotional intelligence.

- Mayer & Salovey (1997) have defined Emotional Intelligence in terms of the ability to, “understand emotions, and to regulate emotion”, for one’s personal growth. Their research focused on the four essential dimensions of Emotional Intelligence in dealing with Emotional Intelligence and growth [3].
- Goleman (1998) described Emotional Intelligence as, as an ability that helps an individual to recognize his own feeling and the feelings of others for, “managing emotions well within us and in our relationships” [16]. Goleman focused on the aspect of motivation and workplace success by using emotional competencies while dealing with colleagues at work.
- Freedman et. al. (1998) have described Emotional Intelligence as in terms of an ability of, being ware and choosing how one should think and respond to emotional stimulus. Freeman focussed on aspects consciously feeling and behaving in a certain way [64].
Bar-On (1997) defined Emotional Intelligence as one’s ability to, “deal”, challenges posed by one's immediate environment and circumstances, which will be instrumental in helping predict success in life. The focus was again on the success that one gets by dealing adequately with others, through the intelligent display of emotions [49].

Singh (2003) explains Emotional Intelligence as the ability of an individual to, be able to adequately respond to emotional stimuli that the individual feels from within himself and sometimes his immediate environment [57].

Chadha (2005) suggested that all intelligence has an emotional base and Emotional Intelligence means an appropriate use of one’s emotions for accomplishing, “personal goals”. Chadha referred to emotions as a base of all intelligence and behaviour, highlighting the importance of emotional competence [65].

Chabungbam (2005) described Emotional Intelligence as the ability of a person to, “handle immediate impulses”, such that he can deal with, “frustrations”. The role of emotions in handling setbacks and unexpected challenges was highlighted. The focus was on self monitoring and controlling instant urges to react” [66].

Malekar (2005) defined Emotional Intelligence as, the ability that helps one in “awareness of self and managing emotions by using empathy” for developing oneself through and building, “strong relationship”. The focus of was on leveraging Emotional Intelligence for building stronger relationships [67].
2.5 Emotional Intelligence and Work Place Related Outcomes

Emotional Intelligence has been researched in the context of the advantages that it has in terms of work related outcomes such as performance, commitment and other work related behaviours [68].

Boyatzis (1982) conducted a research on 100 managers from 12 different organizations and concluded that the, “self-assessment”; competency of Emotional Intelligence was related to superior performance [69].

Snarey & Vaillant (1985) attempted to study the role of intelligent display of emotions in determining life success of 450 boys in Massachusetts. A longitudinal study of 40 years was conducted. Two third of the boys were from welfare families, who participated. Out of this one third had an IQ below 90. The results confirmed that the Emotional Intelligence quotient had little relation to personal success in life events; and more in terms of one’s capability to handle emotions and frustration, and form interpersonal relationships [70].

Spencer, L. M., Jr., & Spencer, S (1993) [71] studied a sample of 300 senior executives of 15 global organizations. The results of the study showed that a remarkable difference between top and average performance could be stemmed from emotional competencies such as: influence, team leadership, organizational awareness, self-confidence, achievement drive and leadership, [72].

Stauffer (1997) explored Goldman’s studies of career progressions of graduates of Harvard Business School. Goleman established that graduates with higher emotional quotient were heading better positions in the organizations; than individuals with a higher intelligence quotient (IQ) [73].

Goleman (1998) researched and suggested that competencies of EI can be developed in individuals over time. Training can also be used to develop Emotional Intelligence in adults [16]. Boyatziz (2002) conducted a series of longitudinal studies that showed that the EI competencies of individuals are changed over a period of two to five years [56]. On a sample of employees from 200 companies, it was found that technical skills and cognitive ability, formed a basis for
one third of the difference in performance levels, whereas two third difference was accounted for by emotional competencies [16].

Bachman et al. (2000) conducted a study on the average goal attainment of most successful debt collectors in a large collection agency in period of 3 months. There comparison was done with another group of collectors whose average was much lower. The result showed that Emotional Intelligence competencies of self-awareness, independence and optimism were much higher in the most successful collectors of the department.

Various researches that attempted to study the relationship of Emotional Intelligence with age and experience. The results showed that Emotional intelligence was significantly and positively related to demographic factors such as age and experience [19].

Cherniss et al. (2001) used a case study method to analyze the failure of American Express (US) financial advisors in developing financial plans that include life insurance policies. Most agents were found to be averagely low on Emotional Intelligence competencies. Research suggested implementation of emotional competence programs and making sure that the programmers have the right fit of emotional competence that leads to effective performance. After a successful implementation taking two and a half years, a remarkable increasing trend in sales of policies was seen [74].

Bhalla, S. & Nauriyal, D. K. (2004) found that Emotional Intelligence had a major role to play in the success of an individual and is also potentially useful in understanding and predicting individual performance at work [75].

Cummings (2005) explored the relation of Emotional Intelligence with demographic factors and workplace performance on a sample of workers from New Zealand. He concluded that there exists a significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and workplace performance but there is no relation between demographic factors such as gender, age occupational groups, education and Emotional Intelligence [76].

Chabungban (2005) researched on the relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Performance and Stress. His research showed that the development of emotional intelligence can be useful reducing stress and increasing performance [66]. Similar results were confirmed by (Singh
& Singh, 2008) who studied the annual KRA performance scores of 240 managers in the Indian manufacturing industry and found that Emotional Intelligence was helpful in dealing with stress and was a valid predictor of high performance scores [77].

Hede (2006) attempted to introduce the concept of a hypothetical shadow group, as he explained the nature of intergroup conflict and resulting stress in a group. He concluded that the natural self of a person is comprised of two prime binary opposites; the overt and the shadow self. When threatened by an emotional situation the shadow self completely engulfs the overt self as a result of which each member of the group operates under the influence of the shadow group. He affirmed that individuals who are high in emotional intelligence are aware about the interplay of the shadow and the overt and are capable of remaining in the overt state to prevent undesirable consequences [78].

Studies have shown that organizations seek to hire and retain employees with high Emotional Intelligence. It is suggested that organizations should incorporate Emotional Intelligence into daily practices of organizational life, by training for Emotional Intelligence, revising selection and placement practices, counselling and encouraging constructive behaviours through the organization’s performance appraisal and reward structure [79].

Chiva & Alegre, (2008) analysed the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and job satisfaction. The results showed that Emotional Intelligence was strongly linked to job satisfaction and job satisfaction was further linked to higher performance [80].

Similar results were confirmed by Khokhar and Kush (2009) who examined the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and work performance on a sample of working professionals. The results of the study showed that the executives who had higher levels of Emotional Intelligence also had better performance scores [81].

Moon (2010) studied the relationships between Emotional Intelligence and the four factor model of cultural intelligence. The study confirmed that both emotional quotient & cultural quotient were related with a set of capabilities such as in cross-cultural interactions, personal.
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competence, self-awareness, and self-management. Thus, it was concluded that Emotionally Intelligent individuals would be more efficient in adapting to cross cultural settings [82].

Cheung & Tang. (2010) explored transformational leadership and its relationship to Emotional Intelligence on a sample of academic leaders with an aim to map the impact of cross cultural differences in a leaders’ academic and leadership practices. The results established that there was a strong positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence competencies and cross cultural leadership practices [83].

Boyatzis et al. (2010) suggested that emotional and social Intelligence were important in predicting the effectiveness and performance of professional jobs; in many countries of the world. The study concluded with highlighting the importance of Emotional Intelligence of a manager in understanding the emotional cues of others in order to effectively interact and lead [84]

Crowne at al. (2013) examined the three forms of intelligence: social intelligence (SI), Emotional Intelligence (EI) and cultural intelligence (CQ) and established an interrelation between all the three concepts [85]. Online surveys were collected from 467 students in business courses in the United States. Analyses were conducted using Principal Component Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling. Using AMOS, multiple models of the relationship among these intelligences were developed to determine, as hypothesized, if social intelligence was super ordinate to emotional and cultural intelligences, which are presented as distinct but overlapping constructs. Findings did support Emotional Intelligence and cultural intelligence being distinct but related. A series of models were developed to support the various propositions presented and to show the evolution of ideas which contributed to the final integrated model.
2.6. Organizational Stress – Evolution & Review of Literature

2.6.1 Stress and Stressors

Selye explained stress as a, “nonspecific response to damage of any kind of stress” [86]. Later, he used the term, “stressor” to designate the stimulus that provoked the stress response [87]. Stress can be categorized into positive and negative aspects. Positive stress is also called eustress and can be defined as a pleasant or curative stress that helps a person to perform better, given the situational demands. The General Adaptation syndrome considers eustress as a part of the initial indication of the alarm and reaction in the body, but problem seems to arise when ones resources are completed depleted and result in a burnout. Negative stress is reached by the body when the body alarms are ignored and the body heads towards a burnout. A big challenge for organizations now is to create an environment that equips employees with well suited coping mechanisms and programs in fruitful stress management.

2.7 Work Place Stress: Interactional and Transactional Models

Cox and Griffiths (2000) make a distinction between two types of psychological model of work stress: interactional or structural approaches, and transactional or process models [88].

Interactional models focus on the structural characteristics of the stress process, i.e. which stressors are likely to lead to which outcomes in the workplace. They talk between the associations of work characteristics with the psychology of the individual. In popular literature, many studies differentiate between the causes and symptoms of work related stress and personal stress. Most importantly, that what is stressful for one person may be of little effect on others. Therefore, the concept of stressor and coping is individualistic in nature. Examples of such models are Demand Control Support Model and Hackman and Oldham’s Characteristics Model (1980).
Transactional models are more cognitive, and focus on the dynamic relationship between individuals and their environment in terms of mental and emotional processes [89]. Transactional models analyse the subjective perceptions of the environment and relate coping to cognitive and appraisal factors based on individual capacity. Examples of such models are Lazarus and Folkman Cognitive Theory of Psychological Stress and Coping and Cox’s Transactional Model of Occupational Stress.

2.8 Organizational Role Stress

Udai Pareekh’s model of Role Stress measures ten factors of organizational stress namely, Inter-role distance (IRD), Role stagnation (RS), Role expectation conflicts (REC), Role erosion (RE), Role overload (RO), Role isolation (RI), Personal inadequacy (PI), Self-role distance (SRD), Role ambiguity (RA), Resource inadequacy (RIN). The model has been widely referred by researchers to study types of stressors in Indian organizations [90].

2.9 Difficulty in categorizing Stress

A major problem in devising causal models is the limitations faced in categorizing stress. Hinkle explained that the term, ‘stress’ is used differently through different literatures and disciplines; for example, in Social scientists would analyse the effects of stress and the disturbances caused in emotional reactions that are caused, scientists in the field of biology would be more concerned with aspects of organisms and ecosystems. Various individual differences are involved in the process of stress inception and coping; such as; personality, self esteem, locus of control, coping style, hardiness, type A, attribution style, demographics, expectations, preferences, commitment, health related factors and abilities and skills [91]. Briner et al. (2004) propose that stressors are not even stressors if the individual does not, “perceive them as such” [92].
2.10 Keywords from Definitions of Stress

- Hans Selye (1997) explained stress in terms of a response that “cannot be specified” but requires bodily change. He expanded his definition later and explained stress in terms of, “individual perception” and Physical damage as a result of the bodies general over adaptation to the stressors [21].

- Lundgren (1978) explained stress as, “discrepancies between the ways in which individuals view themselves, the ways in which they perceive others as responding to them and the ways in which others actually do evaluate them”. These discrepancies relate to characteristics of self-esteem and image [93].

- Cannon (1986) discovered the stress response and initially called the “the emergency response,” or "the militaristic response." Canon explained that a steady balance or equilibrium is homeostasis; which gets upset when a person faces the strain of an external demand. The body attempts at all times to preserve a steady state of homeostasis.

- Lazarus (1993) explained stress as a condition or feeling experienced when a person perceives that, “environmental demands exceed the personal and social resources that the individual is able to mobilize”. He focused more on stress being a condition in which individual energies deplete and cause one to feel enervated and exhausted. These can be closely studied in respect to the homeostasis approach of stress [94].

- Holyroyd and Lazarus (1982) Explained stress in terms of, “a psychological judgment”; by the individual when he perceives that the, the demands of the environment exceed his potential resources [95].

- Steinberg and Ritzmann (1990) explained stress in terms of an, “under load or overload of matter, energy or information” [96] .They also focused on under load as a factor constituting to stress. Haviovic & Keenan (1991) on the same lines researched on the role of individual differences in the perception and inception of individual stress.

- Levi (1996) explained stress in terms of the various demands (stressors) on an individual that create a disparity in the fit between what we are presently capable of providing versus what is demanded of us” [97].
Davis, (1997) explained stress as, “Incompatible behaviour due to multiple expectations or obligations associated with a single social role” [98].

2.11 Organizational Stress and Workplace Outcomes

Sehgal (1997) studied the effect of Role Stress on the level of Job Involvement. It was found that Role Erosion (RE), Resource Inadequacy (RIN) and Inter-Role Distance (IRD) were dominating contributors of role stress that reduces work involvement. It was also found that avoidance style of coping was used more frequently than approach style of coping [99].

Nelson, and Quick (1998) explored the various reasons of work stress in organizations. The researchers have identified four basic factors which are; Role Factors, Job Stressors, Physical Stressors and Interpersonal Stressors [100]. They explained Role based factors causing stress by virtue of an expectation set that is placed on an individual within an organization; especially if these are confusing, ambiguous or conflicting. Job stressors are explained as factors related to the basic quality and quantity of work performed as well as the feedback and appraisals that individuals receive regarding their job performance. Physical Stressors are explained as stressors that affect the senses, such as light, noise, vibration, smell, temperature, etc. Interpersonal Stressors are the factors that deal with one’s inability to manage and cope with co workers, friends, family and all associates in general.

Beehr et al. (2001) studied the congruence between sources of the Stressor and Social Support [34]. A sample of 117 respondents was chosen. Two social support measures were used; mainly social support from the supervisor and from the co workers. The results showed that the congruence between the sources of stressors and of social support appeared to make little difference in determining the moderating effect of social support on the relationship between stressors and strain. It was seen that Role Ambiguity (RA) and Role Overload (RO) originating from the supervisor, were positively related to stress.

Michailids, M.P., Elwkai, M.E., (2002) studied factors contributing to workplace stress in the fast-food industry. The Occupational Stress Indicator was used for examining these factors with
a sample size of 100 respondents working in different fast food restaurants. It was found that factors such as, *ones Feeling about their job, Behaviour, Interpretation of Events around them and Coping Differences* contributed to the reasons for stress. There was significant difference in the perception of stress between women and men as well as individuals in managerial and non-managerial positions with regards to their *Personality*, the degree of *Ambition and Dedication* they possess [101].

Bocchino et al.(2003) studied the congruence between *Personal and Organizational Values (P-OC), perceived psychological contract violations (PCV), and work stress* in the context of age, gender, and job tenure. The results of the study showed that employees reporting higher levels of psychological contract violations are more likely to experience *Organizational Stress*. Male Employees were reported to show higher amounts of stress and to have been in their current jobs and with the company relatively longer.

Aziz (2004) examined the levels of organizational *Role Stress* among women in the IT private sector organizations. The ORS Scale was used on a sample of 256 women professionals. Amongst the major stressors, it was seen that, Resource *inadequacy (RIN)* was ranked as the most potential stressor and was followed by *Role Overload (RO) and Personal Inadequacy (PI)*. It was seen that there was significant difference in the stress levels of professionals who were not married and married [102].

Rydstedt, Devereuxb & Furnhamc (2004) studied the *Lay Theories* of stress. The researchers aimed at studying the lay beliefs concerning work stress and perceived strain. A sample of 2270 was used to build on an earlier study lay beliefs were assessed by a scale consisting of 36 items. Factor analysis gave a solution with five factors on perceived causes and four factors of perceived alleviation of work stress. Significant relations were found between *Lay Beliefs* of work stress and *Perceived Mental Strain* as well as *Job Stress* [103].

Loosemore & Waters (2004) studied the influence of *gender on Workplace Stress* levels in the construction industry. The studies significantly found that overall; men experience slightly higher levels of stress than women. Using the OSI model results, mean scores were calculated
for both men and women respondents and a homoscedastic two sample test was used to test for significant differences. While exploring the basic sources of stress, they found that men get more stressed by risk taking, disciplinary matters and implications of mistakes, redundancy, and career progression. Women on the other side were more affected with factors such as, opportunities for personal development, rates of pay, keeping up with new ideas, business travel and the accumulative effect of minor tasks [104].

Sharma, E. (2004) examined the role and causes of stress in the lives of doctors working in private and public hospitals. Role overload (RO) and Role Conflict (RC) were seen to be the major reasons of stress [105]. Robert K.et.al., (2009) studied and formulated the following stress-related work outcomes: ‘job satisfaction’, job-related anxiety and depression and errors/near misses. The research highlighted six key areas of work design that, if not properly managed, are associated with poor health and well-being, lower productivity and increased sickness. These were; Job Demands, Control Systems, Support Systems, Personal Relationships at Work, Role & Change Management [106].

Torkelson & Muhonenb (2004) studied the relationship between Coping and Health Problems in the context of gender and levels in the organization. Data was collected from a sample of 279 women and men (100 managers and 179 non-managers) at a sales department in a Swedish telecom company. The nature of work for both men and women were kept similar. The analysis showed that with the level and gender kept controlled, there was no relation between problem-focused strategies and health. On the other hand, emotion-focused strategy of seeking emotional support was associated with fewer health problems. It was observed that the coping mechanisms of individuals were related to the levels that they held. At senior levels, similar coping strategies were used where as at non managerial levels, conventional coping patterns were used [107].

Michailidis M, Georgiou Y., (2005) researched on the levels of Organizational Stress on a sample of 60 employees working in the banking sector. The analysis was carried out by using the Occupational Stress Indicator (OSI). The results of the study showed that stress was inversely correlated with the levels of emotional intelligence [108].

Drafke in his book,” The Human Side of Organizations”; enlists the various workplace stressors that impede performance. He found Performance Related Factors relating to anxiety, poor planning or goal setting, unclear job requirements, little recognition of performance, insufficient
authority and low morale. Environmental Factors such as excessive work demands, Insecurity of job responsibility, organization politics, working conditions, peer pressure, ineffective communication. Leadership Factors such as Inconsistent managers, criticism, and unsupportive boss. Role related Factors involving an under use of skills, work overload and under load and inadequate equipment [109].

Dasgupta & Kumar (2009) analyzed the sources of Role Stress among a sample of female doctors working in Shimla. The study revealed that Self-Role Distance (SRD), inter-role distance (IRD), Role Stagnation (RS), Role Ambiguity (RA), Role Overload (RO), Role Isolation (RI), Role Expectation Conflict (REC) and Role Inadequacy (RI) are the major sources of role stress. The study also showed that there was no significant difference among the male and female doctors, except on the parameters of inter-role distance (IRD) and role inadequacy (RI). The male doctors were found to have greater mean scores on these two parameters [110].

Neelamegam & Asrafi (2010) identified & measured the levels of stress of bank employees that was resultant of the changes in the banking sector due to policy changes, globalization and liberalization, increased competition from the entrance of more private (corporate) sector banks. A sample of 74 was selected from cadres of the employees including technicians from Dindigul block. The study established that stress levels were negatively correlated to years of service and qualification levels. Incongruent Roles, Insults and Long Work Hours were identified as major factors of work related stress [20].

Smith (2011) studied the effect of demographic and diversity statistics on stress and highlighted that here is a need to establish a unified definition of perceived stress as it means different things to different people. [111] Wirtz et al. (2013) Investigated whether occupational role stress is associated with differential levels of the stress hormone. Findings suggested that occupational role stress in terms of role uncertainty acts as a background stressor that is associated with increased HPA-axis reactivity to acute stress [112].
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2.12 Employee Commitment - Background, Evolution & Review of Literature

Organizational commitment can be understood in many respects. Researchers have reviewed the concept with various parameters in mind. This understanding has developed by keeping various considerations that can be related to Job Satisfaction and Performance. Known researchers; [113][26] [114]; have given constructs that make a strong case for understanding commitment behaviours. We first start by reviewing the historical background of the construct of organizational commitment.

2.13 Evolution of Commitment

Models of Organizational Commitment capture the different perspectives of organizational settings and the application of organizational commitment to work related outcomes. Eminent models classify organizational commitment as either one-dimensional or multidimensional.

2.13.1 Commitment as Side Bets

Howard Becker (1960) [115] explained Organizational Commitment as, the relationship between employee and organization that are based on the, “contract” of economic exchange behaviour. He explained that most committed employees have invisible investments called, “side-bets” [116]. Thus; if any one were to leave, the bets would not be claimed. He also suggested that economic costs accrue over a period of time that makes it more difficult for the person to leave work. Organizational commitment was also identified as a major predictor in explaining voluntary turnover [117].

2.13.2 Commitment as Affective Dependence

Porter et al. (1974) explained Organisational Commitment in terms of the employee’s identification and involvement with their organisation [26]. Mowday et al. (1979) explained this further by referring to behavioural and attitudinal aspects of a committed employee. Attitudinal commitment is also referred to a mind set in which individuals believe that their individual goals
are the same as those of their organisation [117]. Thus commitment was summed up in terms of having faith and belief in the values of the organizations, a readiness to put in efforts for betterment of the organization and a desire to be loyal and maintain employment.

2.13.3 Commitment as a Multi-Dimensional Construct

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) focused on *psychological attachment* that depended on two important aspects, namely *identification* and *internalization* with the organization. These researchers defined commitment as a sense of attachment that an individual feels for the organization. O'Reilly and Chatman support this attachment in terms of encouraging Organizational Citizenship Behaviours [113].

O’Reilly and Chatman’s model

O’Reilly and Chatman’s (1986) model focuses on the paradigm that *Organizational Commitment* can be explained in terms of the various attitudes and degree of *likes* and *dislikes* that people hold towards their organizations. They also explain how these attitudes can be developed by the organizations.

The model explains three forms in which organizational can be understood, mainly:

- **Compliance:** This happens when ones’ attitudes and corresponding behaviours are adopted in order to gain specific rewards in an organization.
- **Identification:** This happens when an individual accepts his organizational values and accepts to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship in the future.
- **Internalization:** This happens when the organization’s influence is internalized because the attitudes and behaviours of the employee in the organizations are congruent with existing values. The employee’s psychological attachment can reflect varying combinations of these three psychological foundations (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

2.13.4 Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment - Meyer and Allen (1991)
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Having established an understanding of the construct, a congruence of these diverse views can be established with Meyer and Allen’s (1991) *Three Dimensional Model of Organizational Commitment*.


![Diagram of Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment]

Figure. 2 Three Component Model of organizational Commitment: Meyer & Allen

The Three Component model explains the three types of commitment as *Affective, Continuance,* and *Normative Commitment*. The model attempts to analyze and explain the various forms of commitment that had evolved through various historic constructs. After having reviewed various aspects of commitment, the researchers suggested that there should also be another aspect added to the research of commitment, which should be termed as Normative Commitment [41].

I. **Affective Commitment** was explained in terms of, “One’s emotional attachment with the organizations whereby there is identification and involvement with the values of the organization”, (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

II. **Continuance Commitment** is defined as ones readiness to be a part of the organization and remain in it due to the “non-transferable” investments that are there. (Meyer & Allen, 1991). These Non-transferable investments include things such as relationships with other employees or retirement etc.
III. **Normative commitment** is defined in terms of a, “generalized value of loyalty and duty” that emerges from our natural norms of being raised in the society that includes various commitments to religion and family”.

**Congruence of the definition variables with the three dimensional model of commitment**

The review of various definitions highlights the variables that have been used by the researchers to explain the concept of Organizational Commitment. The following section attempts to group the variables used to define Organizational Commitment; according to a similarity in their explanation and application. These diverse explanations can be grouped together and studied in congruence to Allen & Meyer’s Model of Organizational Commitment.

### 2.14 Definitions of Organizational Commitment

Broadly, it was seen that three groups evolved. The grouping has been done on the following basis:

- **Group 1: Emotional Alliance** with the organization, Identification with organizational values and loyalty towards the organization.
- **Group 2: Feeling of Obligation to continue** employment and duty towards the role.
- **Group 3: Non-transferable investments** and side bets and associated with the costs of leaving.

**Group 1: Definitions focusing on, “Emotional Alliance, Identification with organizational values and loyalty towards the organization”**.

The following definitions explain aspects of commitment in terms of emotional attachment and involvement with the values of the organization. They also emphasize the importance of interpersonal relationships and an overall attachment of the employee with the organization.
Buchanan (1974) described commitment as the, “affective attachment”, that one has with his workplace. This research focused on explaining commitment in terms of pure attachment between the organization and the employee [118].

O’Reilly et al. (1986) described commitment by focusing on the “psychological bond that ties the employee to the organization”. They said that these particular views can be studied parallel to inherent loyalty that the employee feels towards the organization along with his inclination to go beyond the call of his duty for his organization [113].

Porter et al. (1974) defined three major components of organizational commitment in terms of one’s idealised loyalty, belief in the values of organization and a willingness to work [25].

Maume (2006) described commitment as the “willingness to work hard to improve the organization”. He viewed commitment in terms of the employee’s desire to perform better. Commitment was thus seen as an energizing force that would help in bringing about efficiency in performance [119].

Cohen & Kirchmeyer (1995) explained Organizational commitment in terms of an individual’s, “dedication and loyalty” to one’s organization [36].

Meyer & Allen (1991); O’Reily & Chatman (1986), defined Affective Commitment in terms of feelings of emotional attachment; that an employee feels towards his organization.

Kanter, (1968) explained commitment in terms of, “Loyalty to employer”. Sheldon, (1971) explained commitment as the “identification with, or attachment to, the organization”. Both the researchers emphasized on the relational aspect of organizational commitment [120].

Hall, Schneider, & Nygren (1970) explained commitment as an, “integration”; of individual and organizational goals. This analysis laid emphasis on coming together of mutual interests of both parties [121].

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Group 2: Definitions focusing on, “feeling of duty and Obligation to continue employment”.

The following definitions define aspects of commitment in terms of a, “a sense of duty that one feels for the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) explained this commitment with their definition of normative commitment as, “a feeling of obligation”.

Sheldon (1971) explained commitment as an attitude that is related to one aligning his identity with his organization. This creates an, “obligatory relationship” for the employee to remain in the workplace [123].

Bolon (1997) explained commitment as an individual’s feeling of obligation to their workplace. The explanation of the term obligation emphasized the fact that commitment was a sense of, “compulsion”; explained this commitment as Normative commitment [124].

Marsh & Mannari, (1977) explained that a committed employee considers it ethically correct to be associated with the organization in context of the amount of satisfaction that they have derived over years from it. The emphasis was on the aspect of it being, “morally right” to continue working in the organization [125].

Meyer & Allen (1997) explained normative commitment in terms of the beliefs held by a individual in exchange of certain obligations from the organization [126].
Group 3: Definitions focusing on, “investments and costs associated with leaving the organization”.

The following definitions explain commitment as the readiness to be a part of an organization and to remain in it; due to the acknowledgement of “non-transferable” investments and perceive loss of opportunities; that keep an employee from leaving the organization.

- Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972) explained commitment in terms of, “side-bets or investments”. They emphasized on the economic benefits to both parties; the organization and the employee [116].
- Kanter (1968) established that commitment was related to the benefits that one gets by being a part of the organization and the costs that one would incur if he leaves it. Thus commitment was perceived as a loss of opportunities that kept an individual working in a certain job [120].
- Reichers (1985) emphasized on the mutually beneficial non-transferable investments for the employee that include direct and indirect employment benefits. According to them, continuance commitment had a trade off for the employee, in terms of benefits for their services to the organization [127].

2.15 Organizational Commitment and work related outcomes

In a study conducted by Blau and Boal (1987) on the attrition levels of a group of employees, working in the insurance sector; it was seen that higher levels of commitment was found in employees who demonstrated lower levels of turnover and absenteeism form the job [13]. Conducted on employee commitment have found that there is a significant and high correlation between turnover and employee commitment [25].They found that employees with lower levels of Organizational Commitment; were more likely to leave than their counterparts. Guest (1991) suggests that high levels of organizational commitment are associated with lower turnover and absence. He bases his conclusion on the possibility of the fact an employee could have certain
levels of dissatisfaction with some aspects of the job but on the whole; he could be highly committed to his organization [129].

Meyer & Allen (1991) found that employees who were more committed to their organizations, usually had high performance expectations from themselves; which also lead to better performance [41]. Though, performance and commitment may not be directly related but commitment had a relationship with factors like value attached to performance; such as the appraisal process, value of job performance and control over processes and rewards. Further to this, in one study it was found that one’s performance was positively impacted by ones levels of continuance commitment. Where as in another study, researchers studied the commitment levels of police officers in Pakistan and found that normative commitment has significant and positive relationship with the performance of police officers [130].

Borman & Motowidlo (1993) explained two different types of behaviours in context to employee performance behaviours. The first being performance behaviours and the second being citizenship behaviours. Task performance behaviours include those behaviours which encourage an employee to achieve the specific task given to the employee, whereas citizenship performance behaviours are the ones which help in setting up a social and psychologically supportive environment that can be instrumental in helping perform important and core or task activities. It was established that committed employees showed high citizenship performance behaviours [131].

Kacmar et al. (1999) examined variables such as age and gender, job satisfaction and turnover as antecedents of organizational commitment. The researchers reported a positive relationship of age and job satisfaction with organizational commitment and a negative relationship of turnover intentions with organizational commitment [132].

Herscovitch & Meyer (2002) conducted a study using meta analysis to find the existing relationship between the three forms of commitments and identify their antecedents, correlates, and consequences in Meyer and Allen’s, “Three-Component Model” (1991). The results of the study showed that Affective, Normative and Continuance Commitment were negatively related.
to employee turnover. And his withdrawal cognition, apart from this Affective commitment was most strongly correlated to organization-relevant performance and employee-relevant outcomes. Thus they emphasized that affective commitment was the strongest source of compliance that an individual develops with an organization. Normative commitment had a weak correlation with performance and Continuance commitment was negatively related to all the mentioned outcomes [133].

Jones et al. (2005) researched on commitment and configural organizational theory. The researchers concluded that employees with strong affective commitment believe that their values match those of their employers and feel emotionally attached to their organization. They concluded that the social exchange framework formed by the exchange of good treatment by the firm; strengthens attachments and leads to favourable job performance [105].

Yongkang (2014) examined the relationship between various role stressors such as role role ambiguity, overload and conflict, amongst government officials in china amongst 220 employees. The results showed a significant and positive relationship between time pressures and conflict and overload. It was further seen that role ambiguity was had a positive impact on anxiety levels of the individual [134].

2.16 Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Stress

Various studies have emphasised the benefits of applying Emotional Intelligence for Stress management [135].

Klohnen (1996) suggested that there are many benefits of applying Emotional Intelligence in the workplace for increasing the tolerance for stress, better people management skills and more effective performance [136].

Abraham (2000) studied the relationship between Stress and Emotional Intelligence. She concluded that Emotional Intelligence was inversely proportional to lower levels of perceived stress, positive conflict styles and other measures of positive adaptations in difficult work environment [137].
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Thingujam and Ram (2000) researched on making an Indian adaptation of the Emotional Intelligence scale. The results of the study showed that most dimensions of *Emotional Intelligence* had a negative correlation with *trait-anxiety*, and a strong and positive correlation with *coping* and *social relations* [138].

Slaski and Cartwright (2002) researched on the relationship between various factors such as emotional quotient, subjective stress, general health, morale, quality of working life and management performance. A sample of 224 managers of a retail organization in Ireland was selected. The results of the study showed a negative correlation between emotional quotient and subjective and a positive correlation between emotional quotient and other factors such general health, morale, quality of working life [139].

Nikolaou, Ioannis; L.Tsaousis (2002) studied the relationship between *Emotional Intelligence* and *stress* among medical professionals working in mental health. 212 participants were selected and were subjected to the Organization stress screening tool and an Emotional Intelligence questionnaire. The results of the study showed that *Emotional Intelligence* was negatively correlated to *Stress* and positively related to *Affective Commitment* [112].

Chabungban (2005) found that stress can be costly both to the organization and individual if left unnoticed. By developing *Emotional Intelligence*, *Stress* can be reduced and *productivity* automatically increases. *Emotional Intelligence* can also help employees to control negative *emotions, frustration and obstacles and help them to feel motivated, confident and empathize and respond well* [65].

Kulshrestha et al. (2006) researched on the relation between the *subjective well being* and *locus of control* to *Emotional Intelligence* among Indian executives. The sample of the study was 150 executives of different job strata of professionals in automobile companies. The results of the study reveal that *Emotional Intelligence* and *Locus of Control* have significant correlation with *subjective well being* [140].

Shulman & Hemenover (2006) studied the effect of *Emotional Intelligence* on the predicted psychological health. The participants completed measures of perception, *Understanding and Regulation Of Emotions, Psychological Well Being and Emotional Distress*. The scales were
completed for the second time. The results showed that dispositional *Emotional Intelligence* is related to health outcomes cross-sectionally and are strong predictors of health [141].

Day, Therrien and Carroll (2005) researched on the ability of emotional intelligence’s to predict health outcomes pertaining to stress and strain. The study explored the relationships among EI (as assessed by a trait-based measure, the EQ-i) daily hassles, psychological health and strain factors [38].

Singh & Singh (2008) conducted a research on 312 medical professionals, 174 males and 138 females’ doctors, to find the impact of *Emotional Intelligence* on to the perception of *Role Stress*. Results showed that no significant difference exists in levels of *Emotional Intelligence* and perceived *Role Stress* between genders, but negative significant relationship exists between *Emotional Intelligence* and organizational *Role Stress* for all the medical professionals and both the genders [76].

### 2.17 Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment

Mowday, Steers & Porter (1979) researched on the relationship between personal characteristics and employee commitment [117]. The results of the study found that there was significant influence of personal characteristics on one’s commitment levels in the organization. Furthermore, Allen & Meyer, (1991) [41]. In another study, Buchanan, (1974), and Schneider et al. (1977) established a positive relationship of work tenure and age with organizational commitment. Meyer & Allen, (1997), also confirmed that having good interpersonal relationship among group members ensured high levels of commitment [118].

Studies have shown the positive impact of development oriented systems on the commitment levels of employees in the IT industry, [142] [143] [144]. A system focused on employee development created a sense of attachment and belonging. It would also give the employee a chance to grow and would prompt him or her to contribute more to the company's goals.
Nikolaou & Tsaousis (2002) examined the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Commitment by selecting a sample of 212 employees working in mental health institutions. The results of the study showed a significant and positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Affective commitment [112].

Kakkar, G. (2004) in his study highlighted that workplaces that endured in creating positive work emotions flourished better off than the other ones; being that Emotional Intelligence is a strong facilitator of positive emotions. He said that emphasis on perception and emotional understanding in an organization will improve the working of the organization [145].

Poon (2004) studied the moderating effect of Emotional Perception (sub-part of EQ) on Career Commitment and Career Success. A sample of white-collar employees from different occupations and organizations in Malaysia were surveyed. Statistical techniques like Moderated multiple regression were used. The results showed that career commitment predicted objective career success in terms of salary and career satisfaction. The relationship between career commitment and success (salary) level was contingent on the level of emotional perception in individuals. The study showed that emotional perception does not moderate the role between career commitment and satisfaction, i.e. committed people will be satisfied regardless of emotional perception [146].

Sinha & Jain (2004) conducted a study on Emotional Intelligence and its influence on relevant outcomes. The study surveyed 352 managers in India in order to examine the relationship between EI and job elated factors. They reported that the dimensions of Emotional Intelligence were positively related to commitment, satisfaction, turnover intentions and job trust [147].

Sharma, J. (2005) studied the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and organizational commitment amongst the working professional in the manufacturing industry, who had at least 10 years of work experience. The findings revealed that employees, who were more emotionally intelligent, were also more committed. Such employees also went beyond the call of duty to meet organizational responsibilities [148].

Dimba & Obonyo (2009) researched on Emotional Intelligence as a predictor of external and internal job satisfaction and organizational commitment in a sample of 80 employees from a
range of industries. *Emotional Intelligence* was assessed using the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test. Regression analyses were calculated using each workplace variable (external job satisfaction, internal job satisfaction and organizational commitment) as the dependent variable and the five components of EI as the predictors. The results support the existence of a relationship between certain aspects of EI and job satisfaction [149]. Employees who are more satisfied with the external features of their job (eg. salary, physical environment, management, co-workers) reported higher levels of *emotional management* and *emotional control*. Similarly employees who were more satisfied with the internal features of their job (eg. amount of autonomy and responsibility, variety in work) reported higher levels of *emotional management* and *emotional control*, along with higher levels of *emotional recognition* and *expression*.

Rangriz & Mehrabi (2010) studied the relationship between emotional *intelligence*, *organizational commitment* and *employee performance*. A sample of One hundred working professionals was selected for the study [150]. The results of the study showed that *Emotional Intelligence* could be used for increasing organization *commitment* and *employee performance* in the organization. The same result was found by the researchers in another study [151].

### 2.18 Evaluation of literature Review

Through the review of literature; three major characteristics of both industries are drawn from researches and industry trends:

I. Use of Emotions to deliver effective service in both industries

II. The inculcation of Organizational Stress due to emotional labor in both industries

III. Low levels of Employee Commitment characterized by high levels of attrition in both industries.

Keeping the above challenges in mind, the current study seeks to analyze the relationships between the three constructs i.e. Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Stress and Employee Commitment and their impact on each other.

Overall, the review of literature shows that there are very few studies exploring the relationship between the three study variables; Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Stress and Employee
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Commitment. Also, very few studies analyse the impact of Emotional Intelligence on separately on different Role stressors and different types of Organizational Commitments; particularly in the Indian Service Industry. Moreover, most studies pertaining to Emotional Intelligence are based on views of American Researchers. The present study analyses the construct by taking into account; both American and Indian perspectives on Emotional Intelligence; and developing an integrated construct.

The literature establishes a relevant case for inculcating the development of Emotional Intelligence competencies in the employees of both sectors. Individuals with higher emotional intelligence are seen to have more successful careers and interpersonal relationships. Emotional Intelligence is also seen to be strongly linked and correlated to job satisfaction and higher performance.

Emotional Intelligence is seen to be strongly and negatively linked to perception of stress. It is seen that individuals with higher Emotional Intelligence suffer less subjective stress. Various role stressors are seen to be affected by aspects of emotional intelligence such as Self Awareness, Self Management, Social Awareness and Relationship Management. In terms of organizational commitment, it is seen that High levels of commitment lead to several favourable organizational outcomes such as reduced turnover, absenteeism, increased levels of morale and motivation and job satisfaction. Emotional Intelligence is seen to have a positive correlation with Affective Commitment and Normative Commitment and no relationship with Continuance Commitment.