

CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:

Emotion is a subjective feeling and the experience of emotions varies from person to person. What do happiness, fear, anger, affection, shame, disgust, surprise, lust, sadness, elation and love have in common? These are emotions, which directly affect our day to day life. For long, it has been believed that success at the workplace depends on level of intelligence or intelligence quotient (IQ), as reflected in our academic achievements, exams passed, marks obtained, etc. In other words, our intellectual credentials in doing well in school, holding an engineering degree or even an advanced computer degree, obtaining high scores in an IQ test, are instances of intelligence of the academic variety. But how bright are you outside the classroom, faced with life's difficult moments? Here you need a different kind of resourcefulness, termed as emotional intelligence (EQ), which is a different way of being smart.

Emotional intelligence is what gives a person a competitive edge. Even in certain renowned business establishments, where everyone is trained to be smart, the most valued and productive managers are those, who have strong traits of emotional intelligence and are not necessarily those with the highest I.Q.

Emotional traits are factors that are most likely to ensure success in your marriage or your love affair, or ensure that you attain dizzy heights in your business. The lack of emotional intelligence explains why people who, despite having a higher IQ have been such utter failure and disastrous in their personal and professional lives. An analysis of the traits of persons high on IQ but low on EQ yields the stereotype of a person who is critical, condescending inhibited and uncomfortable with others. In contrast, persons high on emotional intelligence are poised, outgoing, committed to other people and worthy causes, sympathetic and caring, having a rich and fulfilling emotional life, comfortable with themselves, others and the social universe they inhabit. It is often said, that a high IQ may assure you a top position, but it may not make you a top person.

Everyone knows that high IQ is no guarantee for success, happiness or virtue, but until emotional intelligence, which could only guess why? Goleman's brilliant report from the frontiers of psychology and neuroscience offers startling new insight into our "two minds" - the rational and the emotional - and how they together shape our destiny. Goleman calls this concept emotional intelligence.

The harmony between emotional and rational mind constitutes emotional intelligence, and is the key to a richer and more fulfilling life, as shown in figure 1.1

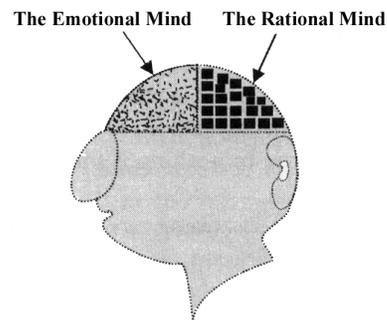


Figure 1.1: The Human Mind

The emotional mind is the source of basic emotions, such as anger, sadness, fear, lust, surprise, disgust and so on. Earlier species, including humans, operated exclusively with the emotional mind, that is, the old sub cortical limbic system lying beneath the gray matter. The rational mind is centred in the neo-cortex, the outer part of the brain, and allows humans to plan, learn and remember. Historically, the subtler part of the brain, or the neo-cortex, developed about a million years ago.

THE HEAD AND HEART CONCEPT:

It is very important to understand that emotional intelligence is not the opposite of intelligence, it is not the triumph of head over heart, it is the unique intersection of both. The definition of emotion, intelligence and especially, of the three parts of our mind – affect/emotion, cognition/thinking, volition/motivation, emotional intelligence combines affect with cognition, emotion with intelligence.

Emotional intelligence then is, the ability to use your emotions to help you solve problems and live a more effective life. Emotional

intelligence is only part of a solution. It is head working with the heart.

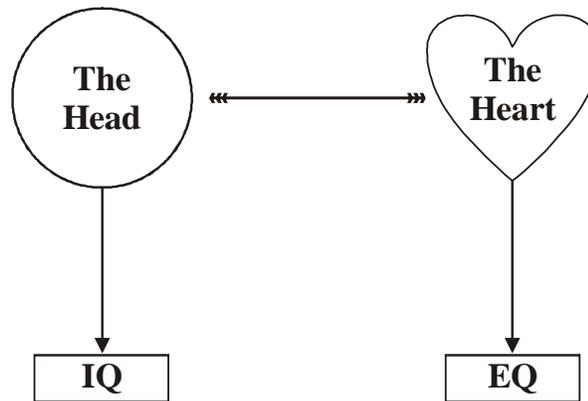


Figure-1.2: Combined work of head and heart

ORIGINS OF THE CONCEPT:

The most distant roots of emotional intelligence can be traced to Darwin's early work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and second adaptation. In the 1900s, even though traditional definitions of intelligence emphasized cognitive aspects, such as memory and problem solving. Several influential researchers in the intelligence field of study had begun to recognize the importance of the non-cognitive aspects. For instance, as early as 1920, Thorndike used the term social intelligence to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people. He defined social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and Girls to act wisely in human relations."

Similarly in 1940, Wechsler described the influence of non-intellective factors on intelligent behaviour, and further argued that our models of intelligence would not be complete until we can

adequately describe these factors. In 1983, Gardner's *Frames of mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligence* introduced the idea of multiple intelligence, which included both interpersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and Intrapersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations). In Gardner's view, and traditional types of intelligence, such as IQ, fail to fully explain cognitive ability. Thus, even though the names given to the concept varied, there was a common belief that traditional definitions of intelligence are lacking in ability to fully explain performance outcomes.

The first use of the term "Emotional Intelligence" is usually attributed to Payne's doctoral thesis, "A Study of Emotion: Developing Emotional Intelligence" from 1985. However, prior to this, the term "emotional intelligence" had appeared in Leuner (1966). Greenspan (1989) also put forward an emotional intelligence model, followed by Salovey and Mayer (1990), and Goleman (1995).

As a result of the growing acknowledgement by professionals towards the importance and relevance of emotions to work outcomes, the research on the topic continued to gain momentum, but it was not until the publication of Goleman's best seller *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*, that the term became widely popularized. Gibb's 1995 Time magazine article highlighted

Goleman's book, and was the first in a string of mainstream media interest in emotional intelligence. Thereafter, articles on emotional intelligence began to appear with increasing frequency across a wide range of academic and popular outlets.

A brief history of emotional intelligence shall be quite clear with the help of this box which is given below:

A BRIEF HISTORY OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:

1920s - Thorndike describes the concept of "social intelligence" as the ability to get along with other people.

1940s - Wechsler suggests that affective components of intelligence may be essential to success in life.

1950s - Humanistic psychologists, such as Maslow, describe how people can build emotional strength.

1975 - Gardner publishes *The Shattered Mind*, which introduces the concept of multiple intelligence.

1985 - Payne introduces the term emotional intelligence in his doctoral dissertation entitled "A study of emotion: developing emotional intelligence; self-integration: relating to fear, pain and desire (theory, structure of reality, problem-solving, contraction/expansion, tuning in/coming out/letting go)."

1987 - In an article published in *Mensa Magazine*, Beasley uses the term "emotional quotient." It has been suggested that this is the first published use of the term, although Reuven Bar-On claims to have used the term in an unpublished version of his graduate thesis.

1990 - Psychologists Salovey and Mayer publish their landmark article, "Emotional Intelligence," in the journal *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*.

1995 - The concept of emotional intelligence is popularized after publication of psychologist and New York Times science writer Daniel Goleman's book *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*.

Covey (1996), author of seven habits of highly successful people writes, that the material on emotional intelligence is something we know intuitively. According to him, emotional intelligence deals with another range of capacities, such as interpersonal relations, kinesthetic capacity, conceptual and creative thinking, perspective, proportion and correlation.

Cooper and Sawaf (1997), in their book *Executive EQ*, say, that emotional intelligence rests on four pillars on cornerstones. In this model they explain emotional intelligence out of the realm of psychological analysis and philosophical theories, into the realm of direct knowing, exploration and application. The four cornerstones are:

1. Emotional Literacy: This builds a locus of self-confidence through emotional honesty, energy, emotional feedback, intuition, responsibility and connection.

- 2. Emotional Fitness:** Emotional fitness strengthens authenticity, believability, resilience, expanding your circle of trust and capacity for listening, managing and making the most constructive discontent.
- 3. Emotional Depth:** Emotional depth explores the way to align life and work with a unique potential and purpose, and to back this with integrity, commitment and accountability, which in turn, increases influence without authority.
- 4. Emotional Alchemy:** Emotional alchemy extends creative instincts and capacity to flow with problems and pressures, and to compete for the future by building capacity to sense more readily, and access the widest range of hidden solutions and untapped opportunities.

Cartwright and Salloway (2007) defined emotional intelligence as "Emotional Intelligence is the ability to understand, accept and recognize our own emotions and feelings, including their impact on ourselves and other people, and to use this knowledge to improve our own behaviours as well as to manage and improve our relationship with others."

COMPONENTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:

'General Intelligence' is composed of cognitive intelligence, which is measured by IQ, and emotional intelligence, is measured by

EQ. The well functioning, successful, and emotionally healthy individual is one, who possesses a sufficient degree of emotional intelligence and an average or above average EQ scores. The higher the EQ score, the more positive is the prediction of general success in meeting environmental demands and pressures. On the other hand, lack of success and the existence of emotional problems cause deficiency, evident in these factors (Skills) over a period of time.

The components of emotional intelligence are discussed below:

1. Intrapersonal:

(a) Assertiveness: *Assertiveness is the ability to express feelings, beliefs, and thoughts, and defend one's rights in non-destructive manner.* Assertiveness is composed of three basic components: (1) The ability to express feelings (to accept and express anger, warmth, and sexual feelings), (2) The ability to express beliefs and thoughts openly (being able to voice opinions, disagree, and to take a definite stand, even if it is emotionally difficult to do, and even if one has something to lose by doing so), and (3) The ability to stand up for personal rights (not allowing others to bother you or take advantage of you).

(b) Self-Actualization: *Self-actualization pertains to the ability to realize one's potential capacities.* Getting involved in pursuits that lead to a meaningful, rich, and full life, manifests this component

of emotional intelligence. Striving to actualize one's potential involves enjoyable and meaningful activities, and can mean a life long effort and an enthusiastic commitment to long term goals. Self-actualization is an ongoing, dynamic process of striving towards maximum development of one's abilities, capacities, and talents. This factor is associated with persistently trying to do one's best and trying to improve oneself in general.

(c) Independence: *Independence is the ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in one's thinking and actions and to be free from emotional dependency.* Independent people are self-reliant in planning and making important decisions. They may, however, seek and consider other people's opinions before making the right decision for themselves in the end; consulting others is not necessarily a sign of dependency. Independence is essentially the ability to function autonomously versus needing protection and support. Independent people avoid clinging to others in order to satisfy their emotional needs. The ability to be independent rests on one's degree of self-confidence, inner strength, and desire to meet expectations and obligations, without becoming slave to them.

(d) Self-regard: *Self-regard is the ability to respect and accept oneself as basically good.* Respecting oneself is essentially like the way one is. Self-acceptance is the ability to accept one's perceived positive and negative aspects, as well as one's limitations and

virtues. This conceptual component of emotional intelligence is associated with general feelings of security, inner strength, self-assuredness, self-confidence, and feeling of self-adequacy.

(e) Emotional Self-awareness: Emotional self-awareness *is the ability to recognize one's feelings*. It is not only the ability to be aware of one's feelings and emotions, but also to differentiate between them, to know what one is feeling and why, and to know what caused the feelings. Serious deficiencies in this area are found in alexithymic (inability to express feeling verbally) conditions. The accuracy of emotional assessment surveys depends, to some degree, on at least a moderate ability here. This EQ skill is also manifested by people, who purposely seek feedback about their performance in life, or in the job.

2. Interpersonal:

(a) Interpersonal Relationship: Interpersonal relationship skill involves *the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationship, that is characterized by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection*. Mutual satisfaction includes meaningful social interchanges that are potentially rewarding and enjoyable. Positive interpersonal relationship skills are characterized by the ability to give and receive warmth and affection and to convey intimacy to another human being.

(b) Social Responsibility: Social responsibility *is the ability to demonstrate oneself as a cooperative, contributing and constructive member of one's social group.* This ability involves acting in a responsible manner, even though one may not be benefitted personally. Socially responsible people have social consciousness and a basic concern for others, which is manifested by being able to take on community-oriented responsibilities. This component relates to the ability to do things for, and with others, accepting others, acting in accordance with one's conscience, and upholding social values.

(c) Empathy: Empathy *is the ability to be aware of how to understand, and to appreciate the feelings of others.* It is, "tuning in" (being sensitive) to what, how, and why people feel the way they do. Being empathic means, being able to "read emotionally" the other people. Empathetic people care for others and show interest and concern for others.

3. Adaptability:

(a) Problem Solving: Problem solving aptitude *is the ability to identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions.* Problem solving is multiphasic in nature and includes the ability to go through the process of (1) sensing a problem and feeling confident and motivated to deal with it effectively, (2) defining and formulating the problem as clearly

as possible (gathering relevant information), (3) generating as many solutions as possible (brainstorming), and (4) making a decision to implement one of the solutions (weighing the pros and cons of each possible solution and choosing the best course of action). Problem solving is associated with being conscientious, disciplined, methodical, and systematic in preserving and approaching problems. This skill is also linked to a desire to do one's best and to confront problems, rather than avoiding them.

(b) Flexibility: *Flexibility is the ability to adjust one's emotions, thoughts, and behaviour to changing situations and conditions.* This component of emotional intelligence refers to one's overall ability to adapt oneself to unfamiliar, unpredictable, and dynamic circumstances.

(c) Reliability Testing: *Reliability testing is the ability to assess the correspondence between what is experienced and what objectively exists.* Testing the degree of correspondence between what one experiences and what actually exists, involves a search for objective evidence to confirm, justify, and support feelings, perceptions, and thoughts. Reality testing involves 'tuning in' to the immediate situation, attempting to keep things in the correct perspective, and experiencing things as they really are, without excessive fantasizing or daydreaming about them. The emphasis is pragmatism, objectivity, the adequacy of one's perception, and

authenticating one's ideas and thoughts. An important aspect of this factor is the degree of perceptual clarity, when trying to assess and cope with situations; it involves the ability to concentrate and focus when examining ways of coping with situations that arise. Reality testing is associated with a lack of withdrawal from the outside world, a tuning into the immediate situation, and clarity in perception and thought processes.

4. Stress Management

(a) Impulse Control: Impulse control *is the ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive, or temptation to act.* It entails the capacity for accepting one's aggressive impulses, being composed, and controlling aggression, hostility, and irresponsible behaviour. Problems in impulse control are manifested by low frustration tolerance, impulsiveness, anger control, abusiveness, loss of self-control, and explosive and unpredictable behaviour. Sometimes this skill is also called self-regulation or delaying gratification. It involves self-control and the ability to handle our emotions.

(b) Stress Tolerance: Stress tolerance *is the ability to withstand adverse events and stressful situations without "Falling apart" by actively and positively coping with stress.* It is the ability to weather difficult situations without getting too overwhelmed. This ability is based on (1) a capacity to choose course of action for coping with stress (being resourceful and effective, being able to come up with

suitable method and knowing what to do and how to do it) (2) an optimistic disposition towards new experiences and changes in general, and towards one's ability to successfully overcome the specific problem at hand (a belief in one's ability to face and handle these situations), and (3) a feeling, that one can control or influence the stressful situation (keeping calm and maintaining control). This component of emotional intelligence is very similar to what has been referred to as "ego strength" and "positive coping". Stress tolerance includes having a repertoire of suitable responses to stressful situations. Stress tolerance is associated with the capacity to be relaxed and composed, and to calmly face difficulties, without being carried away by strong emotions.

5. General Mood

(a) Optimism: *Optimism is the ability to look at the bright side of life and to maintain a positive attitude, even in the face of adversity.*

Optimism assumes a measure of hope in one's approach to life. It is the positive approach to daily living. Optimism is the opposite of Pessimism, which is a common symptom to depression.

(b) Happiness: *Happiness is the ability to feel satisfied with one's life, to enjoy oneself and others, and to have fun.* Happiness combines self-satisfaction, general contentment, and the ability to enjoy life. This component of emotional intelligence involves the ability to enjoy various aspects of one's life, and life in general. Happy

people often feel good and are at ease during work and leisure both; they are able to "let their hair down", and enjoy the opportunities for having fun. Happiness is associated with a general feeling of cheerfulness and enthusiasm.

HOW EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IS ACQUIRED:

Emotional intelligence is learnt through the social learning process. At no point of time in human life does someone tell him/her how to understand him/her and others, or how to handle interpersonal relations. This is what every one of them is expected to learn on his/her own and use these concepts in personal and professional life.

Knowledge of emotional intelligence is taken for granted in society without realising that they were never formally exposed to such concepts. To put it simply, no formal education or knowledge is imparted to teach these concepts, abilities or competencies. This has created a strange situation. When a person grows up in society or the workplace, family and others expect him to have adequate and appropriate knowledge of these concepts.

There is a widespread belief in developing societies, that intelligence has to do with thinking, analysing, remembering, comparing, applying, appearing for exams, obtaining high marks, and so on. These qualities, it is argued, lead to top positions, lucrative pay packages, palatial houses, imported cars, security, success and

holidays. Consequently, people work hard to develop their IQ and ignore their EQ.

Almost all over the world, most children spend 10 to 15 years of their life learning how to develop their academic skills. In the process, emotions are either completely or largely ignored and there is no effort to inculcate them in our personal and professional life. It is unfortunate that we make no plan or conscious effort to impart emotional skills to our future generations. The average person is using the outdated technique of 'trial and error' to solve emotional problems. Many of you still believe that your EQ is something you will, anyway, achieve with time, and there is no urgent need to acquire it right now.

There appears to be a dichotomy between the head and the heart. People are being asked to master competencies, personal traits or a set of habits for effective and superior job performance. Why is it, that management experts find these concepts to be of utmost importance, and every workshop has detailed lectures on them? Others join them by saying that in schools and colleges, they were taught various subjects like history, political science, mathematics, chemistry, economics and geography only. And now they were being told that knowledge of these academic subjects was not adequate, and that they should have knowledge of psychological skills to handle ticklish circumstances in life.

Why were these psychological skills not introduced to them at an early stage if these were so important for personality development? And suddenly at this late stage of life, experts were teaching them how to handle their boss, their spouse, their neighbour and even themselves. They were being educated on how to control anger, frustration, anxieties, stress and burnout. Others lamented that they learned these competencies through informal sources and experimented in their own way.

To solve these issues, the psychological skills should have been taught in educational institutions in the early stages of life. But unfortunately in all developing countries, the emphasis even today is on academic factor, rather than emotional factor. With the passage of time, it has been realised that emotional factors are as important as academic factors, and in most cases, more important.

1. Development of Emotional Intelligence in Early Age:

Emotional development starts early in life and is closely related to child development. Healthy emotional development of children is vital to their ability to learn, when young, and to their success and happiness as adults. Experience shows that the emotional development of children has by and large been neglected, especially in under developed and developing countries. As a result, children often bear the brunt of emotionally unskilled individual parenting and rigid cultural and religious tradition. It would be worthwhile to examine the

psychology of child development to understand emotional development. Childhood is a unique window on time, when a child's mental frame can actually be sculpted by parental example. Emotional intelligence offers parents' guidance in recognising and nurturing emotional intelligence in their children, both within the home and outside.

To excel in life, a child needs to master the art of emotional intelligence. Furthermore, it is believed that having a high IQ in today's world is not really discounted, but a high emotional intelligence is what is becoming increasingly popular. In many advanced countries, traditional education is increasingly tilting towards academic achievement, and as a result, children may have to face a great deal of emotional pressure and frustration. In developing countries the concept of emotional intelligence, which emphasises emotional education, has gained significance. It shows the way to break the IQ myth and move towards a multifaceted and balanced education.

2. Development in Maturity Level:

The process of developing emotional intelligence is not too difficult. Nevertheless, it is widely believed that it is not simple either, despite all the knowledge about emotional intelligence. In fact, according to latest scientific research, emotional intelligence may be even more important than IQ. The good news about emotional

intelligence is that, unlike IQ, it can be improved by a thoughtful life. In a serendipitous fashion, life offers innumerable chances to tone your emotional competence.

In the normal course of a lifetime, emotional intelligence tends to be more aware to improvement, as people learn of their emotions, to handle distressing emotions effectively, to listen and empathize, in short, as you become more mature your emotional intelligence increases. To a large extent, maturity itself describes this process of becoming more intelligent about your emotions and relationships. In a comparison between several hundred adults and adolescents, it has been found that the adults, across the board, had higher emotional intelligence. An evaluation of the emotional intelligence of men and women of ages varying from the teens to the 50s revealed small, but steady and significant increase in their emotional intelligence with advancing age.

MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:

There are three main models of Emotional Intelligence:

- I. Ability Emotional Intelligence models
- II. Mixed models of Emotional Intelligence
- III. Trait Emotional Intelligence Model

I. The ability based model:

Salovey and Mayer's conception of Emotional Intelligence strives to define Emotional Intelligence within the confines of the

standard criteria for a new intelligence. Following their continuing research, their initial definition of emotional intelligence was revised to: "The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth".

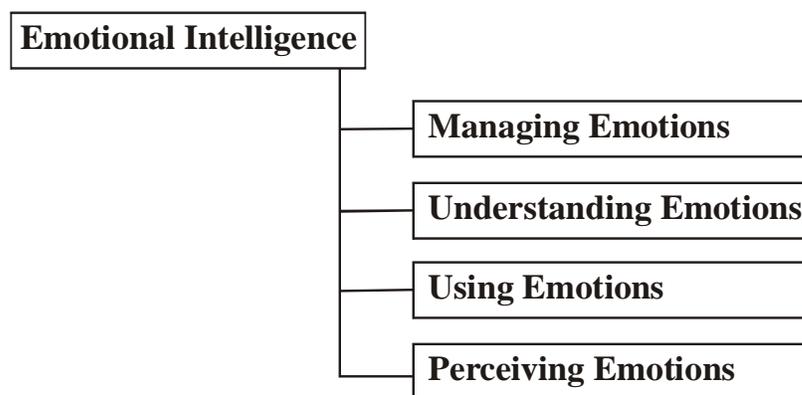


Figure-1.3: Mayer's Salovey's Ability model of Emotional Intelligence

The ability based model views emotions as useful sources of information, that help one to make sense of and navigate the social environment. The model proposes, that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviors. The model proposes that emotional intelligence includes 4 types of abilities.

(a) Perceiving Emotions: Perceiving emotions is the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts- including the ability to identify one's own emotions.

Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.

(b) Using emotions: Using emotions is the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.

(c) Understanding emotions: Understanding emotions is the ability to comprehend emotion language and to "appreciate" complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.

(d) Managing emotions: This is the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others: Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

Measurement of the ability based model

Different models of Emotional Intelligence have led to the development of various instruments for the assessment of the construct. While some of these measures may overlap, most researchers agree that they tap slightly different constructs. The

current measure of Mayer and Salovey's model of Emotional Intelligence is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), it is based on a series of emotion-based problem-solving items. Consistent with the model's claim of emotional intelligence as a type of intelligence, the test is modeled on ability-based IQ tests. By testing a person's abilities on each of the four branches of emotional intelligence, it generates scores for each of the branches as well as a total score.

Central to the four-branch model is the idea, that Emotional Intelligence requires attunement to social norms. Therefore, the MSCEIT is scored in a consensus fashion, with higher scores indicating higher overlap between an individual's answers and those provided by a worldwide sample of respondents. The MSCEIT can also be expert-scored, so that the amount of overlap is calculated between an individual's answers and those provided by a group of emotion researchers.

II. Mixed models of Emotional Intelligence:

(A) The Emotional Competencies (Goleman) model

Goleman defined emotional competence "a learned capability based on emotional intelligence, that results in outstanding performance at work: (Goleman, 1998). To be adept in an emotional competence like customer service or conflict management, requires an underlying ability in emotional intelligence fundamentals, specifically,

social awareness and relationship management. However, emotional competencies are learned abilities having social awareness or skill. Managing relationship does not guarantee that we have mastered the additional learning required to handle a customer adeptly or to resolve a conflict justly, that we have the potential to become skilled at these competencies. Emotional competencies are job skills that can, and indeed must, be learned.

Table 1.1
Current Version of Boyatzies, Goleman and Rhee (2002)
Emotional Intelligence Framework

	Self Personal competence	Other Social competence
Recognition	Self-awareness <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional self-awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence 	Social awareness <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empathy • Service orientation • Organizational awareness
Regulation	Self-Management <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Adaptability • Achievement drive • Initiative 	Relationship Management <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing others • Influence • Communication • Conflict management • Leadership • Change catalyst • Building bonds • Teamwork & collaboration

Table 1.1 represents the current version of Boyatzies, Goleman and Rhee's emotional intelligence framework. Twenty competencies fall in four clusters of general emotional intelligence abilities. The framework illustrates, for example, that we cannot demonstrate the competencies of trustworthiness and conscientiousness without mastery of the fundamental ability of self-management or the competencies of influence, communication, conflict management, and so on, without a handle on managing relationships.

This model is a refinement of the model he used in 1998. That earlier framework identified five domains, or dimensions of emotional intelligence, that comprised twenty-five competencies. Three dimensions – self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation describe the personal competencies, that is, knowing and managing emotions in oneself. Two dimensions – Empathy and social skills-describe social competencies, that is, knowing and managing emotions in others as shown in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2:

Earlier Emotional Intelligence framework of Daniel Goleman

<p>(A) Personal Competencies</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Self Awareness (Knowing one's internal state, preferences, resources and intuitions) 2. Self Regulation & Managing Emotions (Managing one's internal states, impulses & resources) 3. Motivation (Emotional tendencies that guide or facilitate reaching goals)
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(B) Social Competencies	1. Empathy (Awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns) 2. Social Skills (Adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others)
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Measurement of the Emotional Competencies (Goleman) model:

Two measurement tools are based on the Goleman model:

- 1) The Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), which was created in 1999 and the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI), which was created in 2007. The ECI is a 360 degree tool designed to assess the emotional and social competencies of individuals in organizations. The test is based on emotional competencies identified by Goleman in working with Emotional Intelligence (1998). The ECI measures 18 competencies organized into four clusters, namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. The ESCI measures 12 competencies organized into four clusters, self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness and relationship management. The ESCI covers the emotional competencies that matter most for outstanding and effective performance. The use of the ECI and the ESCI is limited to accredited, comprehensive feed back to their clients. The instruments are designed for use only as development tools, not for hiring or compensation decisions (Wolff, 2006).
- 2) The Emotional Intelligence Appraisal, is a skill-based self-report or 360 degree assessment of emotional intelligence (EQ) developed as

a measure of emotionally competent behaviour that provides an estimate of one's emotional intelligence. Twenty-eight items are used to obtain a total EQ score to produce four composite scale scores, corresponding to the four main skills of Goleman's model of emotional intelligence. The Emotional Intelligence Appraisal was created in 2001 by Bradberry and Greaves and available in both booklet and online format, allowing participants to choose their preferred method of test taking.

The Emotional Intelligence Appraisal has been validated against the ability-based assessment of emotional intelligence called the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), based on the model first proposed by Mayer and Salovey in 1990. The result indicated a positive, but non-significant correlation between the Emotional intelligence Appraisal and the MSCEIT. This suggests a distinction between the construct measured by these assessments, as one is ability-based and the other is skill-based.

(B) The Bar-On model of Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI)

Bar-On (2006) developed one of the first measures of emotional intelligence that used the term Emotion Quotient. He defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Bar-On posits that emotional

intelligence develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy. Bar-On hypothesizes that individuals with higher than average E.Q.'s are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also notes that a deficiency in emotional intelligence can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Problems in coping with one's environment are thought, by Bar-On, to be especially common among those individuals lacking in the sub-scales of reality testing, problem solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person's general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one's potential to succeed in life.

Measurement of the ESI Model

The Bar-On Emotion Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), is a self-report measure of emotional intelligence developed as a measure of emotionally and socially competent behavior, that provides an estimate of one's emotional and social intelligence. The EQ-i is not meant to measure personality traits or cognitive capacity, but rather the mental ability to be successful in dealing with environmental demands and pressures. One hundred and thirty three items (questions or factors) are used to obtain a Total EQ (Total Emotional Quotient) and to produce five composite scale scores, corresponding to the five main components of the Bar-On model. The EQ-i has been found to

be highly susceptible to faking (Day & Carroll, 2008; Grubb & McDaniel, 2007).

III. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Model

Petrides and colleagues (2007) proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability based model and a trait based model of Emotional Intelligence. Trait Emotional Intelligence is "a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality". In lay terms, trait Emotional Intelligence refers to an individual's self-perceptions of his emotional abilities. This definition of emotional intelligence encompasses behavioral dispositions and self perceived abilities and is measured by self-report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait Emotional Intelligence should be investigated within a personality framework. An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy.

The trait Emotional Intelligence model is general and subsumes the Goleman and Bar-On models discussed above. The conceptualization of Emotional Intelligence as a personality trait leads to a construct that lies outside the taxonomy of human cognitive ability. This is an important distinction in as much as it bears directly on the operationalization of the construct and the theories and hypotheses that are formulated about it.

Measurement of the Trait Emotional Intelligence model

There are many self-report measures of Emotional Intelligence, including the EQi, the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT), the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT), a measure by Tett, Fox, and Wang (2005). From the perspective of the trait Emotional Intelligence model, none of these assess intelligence, abilities, or skills (as their authors often claim), but rather, they are limited measures of trait emotional intelligence (Petrides et al. 2007). The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) is an open-access measure that was specifically designed to measure the construct comprehensively, and is currently available in 15 languages.

The TEIQue provides an operationalization for Petrides and colleagues' model that conceptualizes Emotional Intelligence in terms of personality. The test encompasses 15 sub-scales organized under four factors: Well-being, Self-control, Emotionality, and Sociability. The psychometric properties of the TEIQue were investigated in a recent study on a French-speaking population, where it was reported that TEIQue scores were globally normally distributed and reliable.

The researchers also found that TEIQue scores were unrelated to nonverbal reasoning (Raven's matrices), which they interpreted as support for the personality trait view of Emotional Intelligence (as opposed to a form of intelligence). As expected, TEIQue scores were

positively related to some of the Big Five personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness) as well as inversely related to others (alexithymia, neuroticism).

JOB SATISFACTION:

Job satisfaction is one of the most crucial but controversial issues in the fields of education, industry, occupation and organisation. Psychologists, sociologists, economists and administrators in these fields find themselves baffled over the problem of professional satisfaction. Job satisfaction is widely accepted psychological aspect of effective functioning in any profession. Job satisfaction has been defined by different thinkers in different ways.

Job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee. In a narrow sense, these attitudes are related to the job and are concerned with such specific factors as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, advancement opportunities, recognition of ability, fair evaluation of work, social relations on the job, prompt settlement of grievances, fair treatment by employer, and other similar items. An attitude of an employee can be considered as a readiness to act in one way rather than another in connection with specific factors related to a job.

One of the biggest preludes to the study of job satisfaction was the Hawthorne studies. These studies (1924-1933), primarily credited

to Mayo of the Harvard Business School, sought to find the effects of various conditions (most notably illumination) on workers' productivity. These studies ultimately showed that novel changes in work conditions temporarily increase productivity (called the Hawthorne Effect). It was later found that this increase resulted, not from the new conditions, but from the knowledge of being observed. This finding provided strong evidence that people work for purposes other than pay, which paved the way for researchers to investigate other factors in job satisfaction.

Hoppock (1935) in his classic work, job satisfaction, reviewed thirty-two studies and commented, that though, there was much opinion about job satisfaction, there were not too many factual studies. For him, job satisfaction is, any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say, "I am satisfied with my job." Job satisfaction refers to an overall affective orientation on the part of individuals towards work roles which they are presently occupying. This conceptualisation implies that job satisfaction is a unitary concept, and that, individuals may be characterised by some sort of vaguely defined attitude towards their total job situation. To say that job satisfaction is a unitary concept, however, does not imply that causes of this overall attitude are not multi-dimensional. Obviously, a person may be satisfied with one dimension of the job and dissatisfied with another. The

assumption underlying the present view is that it is possible for individuals to balance these specific satisfactions against the specific dissatisfactions, and thus, to arrive at a composite satisfaction with the job as a whole.

Vroom (1982) defined job satisfaction as workers emotional orientation toward their current job roles. Similarly, Schultz (1982) stated that job satisfaction is essentially the psychological disposition of people toward their work. Lofquist and Davis (1991), defined job satisfaction as "an individual's positive affective reaction of the target environment... as a result of the individual's appraisal of the extent to which his or her needs are fulfilled by the environment". According to Inavcevich and Matteson (1999) job satisfaction results from the perception people have of their jobs and the degree to which there is a fit between the individual and the job. Job satisfaction is therefore, a work-related attitude. Attitude comprises thoughts, feelings and intentions to act.

DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION:

Job satisfaction is a multi-variable and indescribable concept. There are number of factors that influence job satisfaction. These factors can be classified into following two categories.

- a) Organizational determinants
- b) Personal determinants

a) The organizational determinants

The organizational determinants of job satisfaction play a very important role. The employees spend major part of their time in organisation, so there are number of organisational factors that determine job satisfaction of the employees. The job satisfaction in the organizations can be increased by organising and managing the organisational factors. The organisational determinants of job satisfaction are as follows:-

i) Wages: Wage can be described as the amount of reward that a worker expects from the job. Wages are an instrument of fulfilling the needs, as every worker expects to get an appropriate reward. The wages are supposed to be fair, reasonable and equitable. A feeling of job satisfaction is felt by attaining fair and equitable rewards.

ii) Nature of Work: The nature of work has significant impact on the job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is highly influenced by the nature of work. Employees are satisfied with job that involves intelligence, skills, abilities, challenges and scope for greater freedom. Job dissatisfaction arises with a feeling of boredom, poor variety of tasks, frustration and failures.

iii) Working Conditions: Employees are highly motivated with good working conditions, as they provide a feeling of safety, comfort and

motivation. On contrary, poor working condition brings out a fear of bad health in employees.

iv) Job Content: Factors like recognition, responsibility, advancement, achievement etc can be referred to as job content. A job that involves variety of tasks and less monotonous results delivers greater job satisfaction. A job that involves poor content produces job dissatisfaction.

v) Organisational Level: The jobs that are at higher levels are viewed as prestigious, esteemed and opportunity for self-control. The employees that are working at higher level jobs express greater job satisfaction than the ones working at lower level jobs.

vi) Opportunities for Promotion: Promotion can be reciprocated as a significant achievement in the life. It promises and delivers more pay, responsibility, authority, independence and status. So, the opportunities for promotion determine the degree of satisfaction to the employees.

vii) Work Group: There is a natural desire of human beings to interact with others, and so, existence of groups in organisations is a common observable fact. This characteristic results in formation of work groups at the work place. Isolated workers dislike their jobs. The work groups make use of a remarkable influence on the satisfaction of employees. The satisfaction of an individual is dependent largely on

the relationship with the group members, group dynamics, group cohesiveness and his own need for affiliation.

viii) Leadership Styles: The satisfaction level on the job can be determined by the leadership styles. Job satisfaction is greatly enhanced by democratic style of leadership. It is because democratic leaders promote friendship, respect and warm relationships among the employees. On contrary, employees working under authoritarian and dictatorial leaders express low level of job satisfaction.

b) Personal Determinants

The personal determinants also help a lot in maintaining the motivation and personal factors of the employees to work effectively and efficiently. Job satisfaction can be related to psychological factors, and so, numbers of personal factors determine the job satisfaction of the employees. They are as follows:-

i) Personality: Personality is made up of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviours that make a person unique. Personality arises from within the individuals and remains fairly consistent throughout life. An accumulation of psychological literature suggests, job satisfaction is significantly correlated with the individuals personality.

ii) Age: Age can be described as a noteworthy determinant of job satisfaction. It is because, younger age employees possessing higher

energy levels are likely to be having more job satisfaction. In older age, the aspiration levels in employees increase. They feel completely dissatisfied in a state where they are unable to find their aspiration fulfilled.

iii) Education: Education plays a significant determinant of job satisfaction, as it provides an opportunity for developing one's personality. Education develops and improves individual wisdom and evaluation process. The highly educated employees can understand the situation and assess it positively, as they possess persistence, rationality and thinking power.

iv) Gender Differences: The gender and race of the employees plays important determinants of job satisfaction. Women, the fairer sex, are more likely to be satisfied than their male counterpart even if they are employed in small jobs.

THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION:

There are numerous theories attempting to explain job satisfaction, but three conceptual frameworks seem to be more prominent in the literature. The first is content theory, which suggests that job satisfaction occurs, when one's need for growth and self-actualization are met by the individual's job. The second conceptual framework is often referred to as process theory, which attempts to explain job satisfaction by looking at how well the job meets one's

expectations and values. The third conceptual group includes situational theories, which proposes that job satisfaction is a product of how well an individual's personal characteristics interact or mesh with the organizational characteristics. Each of the three theoretical frameworks has been explored and reviewed by countless scholars and researchers. The main theories and theorists from each framework are as follows:

(I) Content Theories:

(a) Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory:

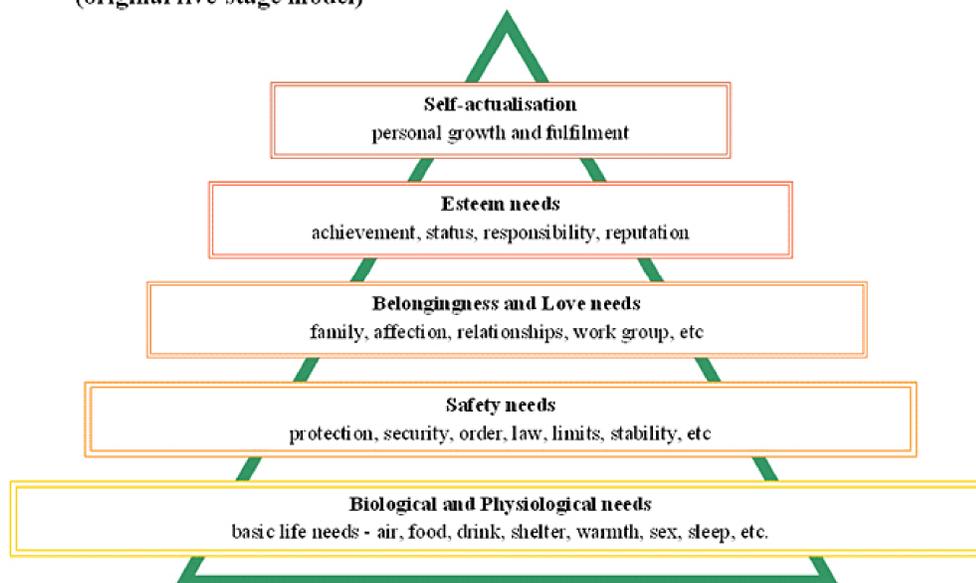
When discussing human needs, growth, and self-actualization, one cannot look far before studying Maslow and his "hierarchy of needs". Maslow's (1954, 1970) traditionalist views of job satisfaction were based on his five-tier model of human needs.

Maslow proposes that people typically are continuously in a motivational state, but the nature of motivation is fluctuating and complex; further, human beings rarely reach a state of complete satisfaction except for a short time. As one desire becomes satisfied, another arises to take its place, and as this desire becomes satisfied, another replaces it, so on and so forth. This never-ending sequence gives rise to Maslow's theory of motivation, in which a hierarchy of needs is postulated. This theory has its central feature that the concept of human needs is generally ordered in terms of their relative potency as human motivators.

Maslow's need hierarchy theory has enjoyed widespread acceptance, particularly in the writings of many prominent organizational theorists e.g., Argiris (1953), Mc Gregor (1969), Schein (1965). It has been used to explain such diverse issues as why pay can become unimportant and why self-actualization seems to be very important to people today.

Maslow's (1943, 1954, 1970) hierarchical model is composed of five level classification of human needs, and a set of hypotheses about how the satisfaction of these needs affect their importance. The five need categories are explained as follows:

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs
(original five-stage model)



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According to Maslow (1970), the five need categories exist in a hierarchy of prepotency, such that the lower or more basic needs are inherently more important (prepotent) than the higher or less basic needs. Need No. 2 does not dominate unless need No. 1 is reasonably satisfied. Need No. 3 does not dominate until need Nos. 1 and 2 are reasonably achieved, and so on. It means, until physiological needs are met, social and psychological needs do not operate.

The characteristic features of Maslow's theory are given below:

- The higher needs are a late, evolutionary development.
- The higher the need, the less imperative it is for sheer survival, the longer gratification can be postponed.
- Living at the higher need level means greater biological efficiency, greater longevity, less disease, better sleep, appetite etc.
- Higher needs are less urgent, subjectively.
- Higher need gratification produces more desirable subjective results, i.e., more profound happiness, serenity and richness of inner life.
- Pursuit and gratification of higher needs present a general healthward trend.
- Higher needs require better outside conditions (economic and educational, etc.) to make them possible.

- Satisfaction of higher needs is closer to self-actualisation than is for lower need satisfaction.

Maslow (1970) suggests that the various levels are interdependent and overlapping. In addition, he points out that individuals may jumble the order and importance around. It may be commented here that though there is a reasonable support for the hypothesis that to some extent human needs do have some hierarchical order, questions have been raised regarding the generality of Maslow's formulation. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) seriously question the theory that motivation in human work is primarily predicted on a hierarchy of needs.

(b) Herzberg's Dual Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction:

Herzberg (1974) suggested that the work itself could serve as a principal source of job satisfaction. Herzberg's theory recognized that work characteristics generated by dissatisfaction were quite different from those created by satisfaction. He identified the factors that contribute to each dimension as "motivators" and "hygienes."

This theory was hypothesised by studying two hundred engineers and accountants. During the structural interview, they were asked to describe a few previous job experiences in which they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their jobs. They were also asked to rate the degree to which their feelings had been

influenced for better or for worse by each experience which they described. The distinction between two kinds of factors were noted on analysis of results.

Job satisfaction consisted of two separate independent dimensions: the first dimension was related to job satisfaction and the second dimension to job dissatisfaction. These dimensions are not opposite ends of the same continuum, but instead represent two distinct continua. Those job characteristics that are important for and lead to job satisfaction but not to job dissatisfaction, are classified as 'satisfiers' or 'motivators,' while those that are important for and lead to job dissatisfaction, but not to job satisfaction, are classified as 'dissatisfiers' or 'hygienes' or 'maintenance.' Motivators contributed to satisfied feelings, whereas, hygienes contributed to dissatisfied feelings. The first set of factors i.e. intrinsic, includes job content; job itself, achievements and recognition, promotion, responsibility, advancement and psychological growth. Another set of factors i.e., extrinsic, include job context, working conditions, salary, supervision, job security, status and company policy.

Hertzberg et al. (1959) observed that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were two separate distinct and independent feelings. They are unipolar dimensions. The opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction, and the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction. The traditional view conceives satisfaction and dissatisfaction as

bipolar dimensions, according to which absence of one indicates the presence of other.

Traditional View (Bipolar dimension)

Dissatisfaction ----- Satisfaction

Two-factor theory (Unipolar dimension)

Satisfiers

No satisfaction ----- Satisfaction

Dissatisfiers

Dissatisfaction ----- No dissatisfaction

Second two-factor theory states that satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not exist on a continuum running from satisfaction through neutral to dissatisfaction. Two independent continuum exist; one running from satisfied to neutral and another running from dissatisfied to neutral as given below:

Satisfied ----- Neutral

Dissatisfied ----- Neutral

According to Herzberg (1966), a person can be very satisfied and very dissatisfied at the same time. The theory implies, that factors such as working conditions cannot increase or cause satisfaction, they can only affect the amount of dissatisfaction that is experienced.

Thus the theory argues that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction result from different causes. Satisfaction depends on motivators, while dissatisfaction is the result of hygiene factors.

(II) Process Theories:

Grunebery (1979) said that Process Theories attempt to explain job satisfaction by looking at expectancies and values. This theory of job satisfaction suggests that workers select their behaviours in order to meet their needs. Within this framework, Adams (1963) and Vroom (1982) have become the most prominent theorists. Adams' suggested, that people perceive their job as a series of inputs and outcomes. Inputs are factors such as experience, ability and effort, while outcomes include things like salary, recognition, and opportunities.

(a) Equity Theory of Adam: Equity theory is essentially a social comparison theory, in which an individual evaluates his input versus output derived from a given situation relative to those of an other, where this other may be another person, a class of people, an organisation, or the individual himself relative to his experiences from an earlier point in time. To the extent that an individual perceives an imbalance in this relationship (i.e. inequity), it is postulated that he will experience dissatisfaction and be motivated to engage in some kind of activity which will restore equity. This relatively simple notion has its roots in the social exchange theories of Homans (1961), Thibaut and Kelley (1959). Thus far it has been applied to the organisational sphere by Blau (1965), Jecques (1961), Schein (1965), Weick (1969) among others, and most formally by Adams (1963,

1965) with this latter variant, latter being extended by Pritchard (1969).

The governing principle of equity theory would seem to be "to give equal value for value received" (Adams, 1965). In an organisational context, what one gives i.e. the input includes such factors as age, seniority, experience, education, demonstrated past experiences etc. While common outputs include pay, praise, promotion, increased responsibility and the like. As Pritchard (1969) has noted, almost any factor (e.g., salary) may be considered as an output or outcome, depending on the circumstances. This equity theory proposes that people seek social equity in the reward they expected for performance.

(b) Vroom's Valence Instrumentality Expectancy Theory (VIE Theory):

Vroom's (1964) theory of job satisfaction was similar in that it looked at the interaction between personal and workplace variables, however, he also incorporated the element of worker's expectations into his theory. The essence of this theory is, that if workers put forth more effort and perform better at work, then they will be compensated accordingly.

This theory goes under several names, including expectancy theory, instrumentality theory, path goal theory and valence-

instrumentality-expectancy theory. Expectancy/valence theory is the second process theory that can be classified as a process-theory in contrast to a content theory primarily because it attempts to identify relationships among variables in a dynamic state as they affect individual behaviour. This system orientation is in direct contrast to the content theories, which have attempted largely to specify correlates of motivated behaviour. In expectancy/valence theory, like equity theory, it is the relationship among inputs that is the basic focal point rather than the inputs themselves.

The expectancy/valence model is also a cognitive theory of job satisfaction. Individuals are viewed as thinking, reasoning beings who have beliefs and anticipations concerning future events in their lives. Drawing heavily on the earlier works of Lewin, Tolman and Peak and as discussed by Miner and Dachler (1973), these theories have as their central theme the assumption, that behaviour in organisations is viewed as a function of the interaction of personality, e.g. ability, values, needs, expectations, instrumentalities and role demands; and general environment, e.g., organisational contingencies, environmental constraints, supervision, job or task requirements.

(III) Situational Theories:

This situational occurrences theory emerged in 1992, when Quarstein, McAfee, and Glassman stated, that job satisfaction is determined by two factors: situational characteristics and situational

occurrences. Situational characteristics are things such as pay, supervision, working conditions, promotional opportunities, and company policies, that typically are considered by the employee before accepting the job. The situational occurrences are things that occur after taking a job, that may be tangible or intangible, positive or negative, positive occurrence might include extra vacation time, while negative occurrences might entail faulty equipment or strained co-worker relationship is a product of both situational factors and situational occurrences.

Other Theories of Job Satisfaction:

(a) Reference Theory of Job Satisfaction:

As an alternative to the theoretical formulation of job satisfaction, Smith (1976) proposes that job satisfaction is a function of the perceived characteristics of a job in relation to an individual's frame of reference. A particular job condition, on the basis of this theoretical position, can be a satisfier, dissatisfier, or irrelevant depending on conditions in comparable jobs, conditions of other people of the same qualifications and past experiences as the individual, as well as on numerous situational variables of the present job. Thus, according to this view, job satisfaction is not an absolute phenomenon but is relative to the alternative available to the individual.

(b) Need-Fulfillment Theory of Job Satisfaction:

Schaffer (1953) formulated need fulfillment theory of job satisfaction. The need fulfillment Theory of Job satisfaction is that (a) a person is satisfied if he gets what he wants, and (b) the more he wants something, or the more important it is to him, the more satisfied he is when he gets it, and the more dissatisfied he is when he does not get it. There are two models that utilize this kind of framework, one is subtractive model and the other multiplicative model, but both conceptualize job satisfaction as a direct function of the extent to which an environment corresponds to one's need structures.

The subtractive model proposes, that job satisfaction is a direct negative function of the discrepancy between a person's needs and the extent to which the environment provides satisfaction of those needs. On the other hand, multiplicative model proposes that the job satisfaction is a function of the multiplication of a person's needs and the degree to which the job fulfils these needs. There are several studies that support these models.

(c) Need Gratification Theory of Job Satisfaction:

Need Gratification theory has been proposed as an alternative to the two factor theory of job satisfaction by Worf (1970). In this theory, wolf introduces the consideration of the individual's psychological needs (Maslow) and their influence on the relationship between job

elements and satisfaction. Job motivation can be considered as a sub-classification of general motivation; as such it follows the principles of need hierarchy. The individual actively seeks to gratify his active need or needs, essentially ignoring both the lower level needs that are already gratified and higher level needs that have not yet emerged. Dissatisfaction results either from the frustration of the gratification of an active need or from an interruption or threatened interruption to the continued gratification of previously gratified (lower level) needs. Satisfaction results from the gratification of any need; however, satisfaction is greater when a previously ungratified need is gratified than when a previously gratified need is gratified on an on-going basis.

According to this theory, both context and content elements can serve as both satisfiers and dissatisfiers. For persons whose lower level needs are largely gratified and whose higher level needs are active, context elements will be essentially unrelated to increased satisfaction since the associated needs have been gratified on an on-going basis. Context elements will be strongly related to decreased satisfaction for such persons, however, when the level of on going gratification of the related lower level needs is threatened. For these persons, content elements will be strongly related to both increased and decreased satisfaction, the level of satisfaction fluctuating directly with the degree of which the related higher level needs are gratified.