Chapter II

When dealing with people, remember you are not dealing with creatures of logic, but creatures of emotion.

~Dale Carnegie

Review of Literature
CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a brief review of the literature relevant to the study. The researcher has made an attempt to present a brief review of literature available which consists of articles and Research theses in the related area in a chronological order.

The review of literature reveals considerable disagreement over the nature of a research and proliferation of terms, definitions and measuring instruments. In this particular section, the researcher has presented a gist of some of the studies made previously, which are of relevance to the current study though they are not directly related to the study in terms of context, scope, and variables covered.

Mayer, John D.; Salovey, Peter; Caruso, David R.; Sitarenios, Gill (2001)\(^1\) in their study on “Emotional Intelligence as a Standard Intelligence” found that emotional intelligence (EI) meets traditional standards for an intelligence. They have attempted to find an answer to the traditional questions as to whether tests purporting to measure EI as a set of abilities is correct or otherwise. To address this issue the authors briefly restated their view of intelligence, emotion, and EI. They then present arguments for the reasonableness of measuring EI as ability. They have, through this research, indicated that correct answers exist, and summarized recent data suggesting that such measures are, indeed, reliable.

Kumkum Mukherji, Roma Puri\(^2\) in their article on “Emotional Intelligence and Self Monitoring Behavior” attempted to examine the possible relationship between different components of emotional intelligence and self-monitoring behavior. The sample of the study comprises 57 MBA final year students (both male and female) from Calcutta with an average age of 23 years. Emotional intelligence and self-monitoring behavior were measured with the help of standardized questionnaires. The findings indicated the
existence of a moderate but significant relationship between emotional intelligence and self-monitoring behavior, while emotional self-awareness was found to be negatively correlated with self-monitoring behaviour. They have established that contrary to the traditional belief, managerial success is found to depend largely on emotional intelligence, rather than intelligence, knowledge or skill. Technical skills or intelligence are not irrelevant, but mainly are 'threshold capabilities' or entry level requirements while emotional intelligence (which is a subjective feeling state that can influence one's perception, thinking and behavior) is important in achieving success over a longer period of time. They have also concluded that self-monitoring behavior refers to an individual's ability to adjust his/her behavior to external situational factors and is also believed to be contributing significantly to managerial success.

Mandell, B. and Pherwani, S. (2003)\textsuperscript{3} in their article on “Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership Style: A Gender Comparison” have examined the predictive relationship between EI and transformational leadership style, the gender differences within each construct, and any interaction effects between gender and EI. EI was found to significantly predict transformational leadership style. A significant difference was also found between the EI scores of male and female managers. Gender, however, did not predict a transformational leadership style over and above EI. The authors concluded that EI could be used to identify leaders who demonstrate positive transformational leadership qualities.

A K H Pau, R Croucher, R Sohanpal, V Muirhead & K Seymour (2004)\textsuperscript{4} in their study on “Emotional Intelligence and Stress Coping in Dental Undergraduates – A Qualitative Study” attempted to study the relation between emotional intelligence and stress management. They have found that strong emotions such as frustration, anger and hatred were associated with stress. Students whose test scores indicated that they had higher levels of emotional intelligence (EI), used reflection and appraisal, social and
interpersonal, and organization and time-management skills to cope with stress. Those with lower EI scores were engaged in health damaging behaviors such as smoking, drinking and risk taking.

Laird R. O. Edman and Sally Oakes Edman (2004)\(^5\) in their study on “Emotional Intelligence and the Honors Student” have attempted to relate emotional intelligence to the decision of first-year college students to enroll in an Honors program. A measure of emotional intelligence was devised, made up of four different Likert-type scales measuring different components of the construct. These scales were administered to 72 freshman students at a selective, private, liberal arts college. All the 72 students were eligible for the college’s Honors Program, but only 44 students chose to be a part of the Program. Discriminant Analysis confirmed that emotional intelligence, as measured by these 4 scales, was a significant predictor of the decision to enroll in the college Honors Program, predicting Honors Program involvement 76\% of the time. This research indicates that differences in emotional intelligence may be a significant factor discriminating between Honors Students and their equally academically adept peers.

Jordan, P. J. & Troth, A. C. (2004)\(^6\) in their study on “Managing Emotions During Team Problem Solving: Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Resolution” have examined the utility of EI, as measured by the Work group. Emotional Intelligence Profile - Version 6, for predicting individual performance, team performance, and conflict resolution styles. Participants working in 108 small teams were asked to complete a survival situation exercise in which they rank ordered 15 items according to their importance for survival. Results revealed that EI predicted performance at the group level, but not at the individual level. The authors have concluded that EI competencies predict successful problem solving of cognitive tasks in teams. The study also found that emotions are important in conflict resolution and contribute directly to team performance.
Ashkanasy, N. M. & Daus, C. S. (2005) in their article on “Rumors of the Death of Emotional Intelligence in Organizational Behavior Are Vastly Exaggerated” address a number of points raised by critiques. Although agreeing on several issues, they note that much of the criticism applies only to certain models/scales of EI and does not apply to all definitions of emotional intelligence. The article includes a brief summary of research in the field and rebuttals to arguments against the construct presented in this issue. The authors identify three streams of research: (1) a four-branch abilities test based on the model of emotional intelligence defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997); (2) self-report instruments based on the Mayer-Salovey model; and (3) commercially available tests that go beyond the Mayer-Salovey definition. In response to the criticisms of the construct, the authors argue that the protagonists have not distinguished adequately between the different theoretical definitions, and have inappropriately characterized EI as a variant of social intelligence. More significantly, the authors suggest that two of the critical authors assert incorrectly that EI research is driven by a utopian political agenda, rather than scientific interest. The authors argue, on the contrary, that EI research is grounded in recent scientific advances in the study of emotion; specifically regarding the role emotion plays in organizational behavior. They conclude that EI is attracting deserved continuing research interest as an individual difference variable in organizational behavior related to the way members perceive, understand, and manage their emotions.

Landy, F. J. (2005) in his study on “Some Historical and Scientific Issues Related to Research on Emotional Intelligence” traced early failed attempts to assess social intelligence and found that more modern research on EI in many cases either suspect or inadequately reported in the scientific literature. They have revealed that emotional intelligence, as a concept related to occupational success, existed outside the typical scientific domain. Much of the data necessary for demonstrating the unique association between EI and work-related behavior appeared to reside in proprietary
databases, preventing rigorous tests of the measurement devices or of their unique predictive value. For those reasons, the author argues that any claims for the value of EI in the work setting cannot be made under the scientific mantle.

Reilly, P. (2005)\(^9\) in his article on “Teaching Law Students How to Feel: Using Negotiations Training to Increase Emotional Intelligence” found that negotiation courses using traditional lectures combined with role plays and simulated exercises can be used to train students in understanding emotion and increasing their EI. The article defines emotion and EI, describes and analyzes one simulated exercise that has proven to be particularly potent in the classroom for teaching both the theory and practice of EI. This sets forth the rudimentary components of a possible curriculum for emotions training and concludes with reasons why law schools and other professional degree-granting programs can and should make training in emotions as part of its curriculum.

Rosete, D. & Ciarrochi, J. (2005)\(^10\) in their study on “Emotional Intelligence and Its Relationship to Workplace Performance” investigated the relationship between EI, personality, cognitive intelligence and leadership effectiveness. They assessed senior executives with an ability measure of EI (MSCEIT), a measure of personality (16PF5), and a measure of cognitive ability (the Wechsler abbreviated scale of intelligence, WASI). Leadership effectiveness was assessed using an objective measure of performance and a 360 degree assessment involving each leader's subordinates and direct manager. Correlation and Regression Analyses revealed that higher EI was associated with higher leadership effectiveness, and that EI explained variance not explained by either personality or IQ. The authors established the link between EI and workplace measures of leadership effectiveness.

Lyons, J. B. & Schneider, T. R. (2005)\(^11\) in their research on “The Influence of Emotional Intelligence on Performance” have examined the influence of EI on appraisals of stressful tasks and subsequent task performance. The study also examined the
relationship of ability-based EI facets with performance under stress. The authors expected high levels of EI would promote challenge appraisals and better performance, whereas, low EI levels would foster threat appraisals and worse performance. The research had undergraduates perform mental math and videotape speech tasks and measured their EI using the MSCEIT V2.0. The authors found that certain dimensions of EI were related to more challenge and enhanced performance, and that some EI dimensions were related to performance after controlling for cognitive ability, demonstrating incremental validity. This pattern of findings differed somewhat for males and females.

Alon, I. & Higgins, J. M. (2005) in their article on “Global Leadership Success Through Emotional and Cultural Intelligences” have found that the current rise of globalization, emotional and cultural intelligence are both important for successful cross-cultural leaders to excel. The authors found that emotions and their cues do not readily translate across borders, so emotionally intelligent behaviors become conditional on what is appropriate in the cultural setting. They have established that Global leaders can make the best use of EI and maximize success when they understand and work within diverse foreign environments.

Gabel, R. S., Dolan, S. L. & Cerdin, J. L. (2005) in their study on “Emotional Intelligence as Predictor of Cultural Adjustment for Success in Global Assignments” have studied the impact of EI on global managers. Global team managers handle business in various complex environments which may require them to use EI to understand, accept, or adapt to the norms of a foreign culture. Here, the authors hypothesize that EI is a strong predictor of cross-cultural success for international assignment managers. The authors revealed that cross-cultural adjustment plays an important role in the significant relationship between some dimensions of EI and subsequent success of internationally assigned managers. They have opined that EI assessments may be added to the traditional
selection criteria for international assignment managers to better predict managerial success.

Tsaousis, I. & Nikolaou, I. (2005)\textsuperscript{14} in their article on “Exploring the Relationship of Emotional Intelligence with Physical and Psychological Health Functioning” have investigated the relationship between EI characteristics, such as perception, control, use, and understanding of emotions, and characteristics of physical and psychological health. EI was measured with the TEIQ, an ability-based, self-report assessment tool, developed by the first author. In two separate studies, EI was compared with measures of general, physical or psychological health and health-related behaviors (smoking, drinking, exercising, etc.). EI was negatively associated with poor general health, smoking, and drinking behaviors. In addition, EI was positively correlated with exercising behavior. The author concluded that the results reinforce the importance of EI competencies in the context of general health and personal lifestyle.

Kiefer, T. (2005)\textsuperscript{15} in his research on “Feeling Bad: Antecedents and Consequences of Negative Emotions in Ongoing Change” examined how and why ongoing organizational change is experienced emotionally on an everyday basis. Three main antecedents to negative emotions in ongoing change are proposed: perceptions of an insecure future, perceptions of inadequate working conditions, and perceptions of inadequate treatment by the organization. Two outcome variables are also identified: trust in the organization and withdrawal from the organization. Findings reveal that ongoing changes are associated with negative emotions, and that this relationship is mediated by the three proposed antecedents. Important consequences of emotional experiences related to ongoing organizational change are identified.

Dulewicz, C., Young, M., & Dulewicz, V. (2005)\textsuperscript{16} in their article on “The Relevance of Emotional Intelligence for Leadership Performance” explored the relationship between EI, leadership, and job performance within the British Royal Navy.
Data were gathered from performance appraisal records and the Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ) consisting of three clusters, Intellectual (IQ), Emotional (EQ) and Managerial (MQ). The LDQ provides a mechanism through which respondents can determine their dominant leadership style within Engaging, Goal Oriented, or Involving styles. Results showed that IQ, EQ, and MQ are all highly significantly related to overall performance for the total sample, but only EQ and MQ are significant for Officers (i.e., individuals with high job rank such as Commander), and IQ and MQ for Ratings (i.e., individuals with low job rank such as Warrant). EQ made a greater contribution to overall performance, to Officer Leadership appraisal and to all three leadership styles than IQ or MQ.

Vince, R. (2006) in their article on “Being Taken Over: Managers' Emotions and Rationalizations During a Company Takeover” examined the relationship between emotion, management and organization. He has also examined as to how emotions are transformed by rationalizations. The author has found that managers' tendency to rationalize emotion creates additional emotional dynamics, which provide opportunities for organizing reflection. The study also found that managers carried a tension created from particular emotions (pain and shame) and their rationalizations of, or detachment from, these emotions. The study addressed how fears about personal position undermined the ability of managers to enact their authority and to act collectively within the organization. They concluded that there exists a relationship between collective emotional dynamics and the organization of reflection.

Zapf, D. & Holz, M. (2006) in their study on “Positive and Negative Effects of Emotion Work in Organizations” has defined Emotion Work. It is defined as emotional regulation required to display organizationally desired emotions by the employees. Studies found evidence indicating that emotion work is a multidimensional construct with both positive and negative health effects. The study examined the various aspects of
emotion work such as requirements to display positive and negative emotions and to be sensitive to clients' emotions, and the expression of emotions that are not felt. Authors have observed that emotional dissonance was a very stressful aspect of emotion work. The requirement to express negative emotions had little effect on burnout. Aspects of emotion work had both positive and negative effects on employees with varying degrees of emotional intelligence.

Giardini, A. & Frese, M. (2006)\(^\text{19}\) in their study on “Reducing the Negative Effects of Emotion Work in Service Occupations: Emotional Competence as a Psychological Resource” have found that there has been a lack of integration between the two concepts although emotion work and emotional competence focus on similar processes. The general hypothesis of this study was that emotional competence can be regarded as an important personal resource in emotion work because it moderates the relationships between work characteristics, emotional dissonance, and outcome variables. Data was collected on employees' working conditions, well-being, and peer ratings on emotional competence. The authors found support for most hypotheses. The authors have suggested that emotional competence can be regarded as a psychological resource that buffers the negative association between emotion work and well-being.

Petrides, K. V. & Furnham, A. (2006)\(^\text{20}\) in their study on “The Role of Trait Emotional Intelligence in a Gender-Specific Model of Organizational Variables” investigated the relationships between trait EI and four work environment variables including perceived job control, job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Increased perceived job control indicated lower job stress and higher job satisfaction. Decreased job stress was related to higher organizational commitment. Many gender differences were found in the model. For example, age was negatively related to control and commitment in the female sample. Trait EI had specific, rather than
widespread, effects in the model. The discussion focuses on implications in the workplace.

Sy, T., Tram, S., & O'Hara, L. (2006)\textsuperscript{21} in their research on “Relation of Employee and Manager Emotional Intelligence to Job Satisfaction and Performance” examined the relationships among food service employees' EI, their managers' EI, employees' job satisfaction, and employees' job performance, as assessed by manager ratings using an adopted version of an instrument developed by Heilman et al. (1992). Results found that employees' EI, as measured by a 16-item self-report instrument developed by Law et al. (2004) was positively associated with job performance and satisfaction. In addition, managers' EI had a stronger positive correlation with job satisfaction for employees with low EI than for those with high EI. A similar pattern was found for job performance; however, the effect did not meet traditional standards of significance. These findings remained significant after controlling for the Big Five personality factors. The authors concluded that managers' EI makes an important difference to employees who possess low EI.

Barbuto, J. E., & Burbach, M. E. (2006)\textsuperscript{22} in their study on “The Emotional Intelligence of Transformational Leaders: A Field Study of Elected Officials” have explored the relationship between EI, as measured by a self-report instrument developed by Carson et al. (2000), and transformational leadership, as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Participants were 80 elected public officials in the United States and 3 to 6 direct-report staffers for each leader. The direct-report staffers functioned as raters in the present experiment. Results revealed that the leaders' EI shared significant variance with self-perceptions and rater-perceptions of transformational leadership. Results also found a stronger relation between EI and transformational leadership in leader self-reports than in rater reports, and this finding might be best explained by the common method bias. The findings across methods indicate a modest
relationship between EI and transformational leadership. According to the EI subscales, empathetic response is the most consistent antecedent of transformational leadership behaviors.

Rode, J. C., Monney, C. H, Arthaud-Day, M. L., Near, J. P., Baldwin, T. T., Rubin, R. S., & Bommer, W. H. (2006)\textsuperscript{23} in their study on “Emotional Intelligence and Individual Performance: Evidence of Direct and Moderated effects” have examined the effects of EI, as measured by the MSCEIT, on individual performance, as indicated by group behavior effectiveness, public speaking effectiveness, and academic performance (cumulative GPA). Controlling for general mental ability and personality, EI explained unique incremental variance in judges' performance ratings only on public speaking effectiveness. However, the interaction of EI and conscientiousness explained unique incremental variance in public speaking and group behavior effectiveness, as well as academic performance. The study revealed that EI-performance relationships were stronger at high levels of conscientiousness than at low levels. The authors have concluded that the effects of EI on performance are more indirect than direct in nature and individuals in the workplace must not only have EI, but must also be motivated to use it.

Lopes, P. N., Grewal, D., Kadis, J., Gall, M., & Salovey, P. (2006)\textsuperscript{24} in their study on “Evidence that Emotional Intelligence is Related to Job performance and Affect and Attitudes at Work” examined the relation between EI, as measured by the MSCEIT, and workplace outcomes of 44 analysts and clerical employees from the finance department of a Fortune 400 insurance company. The results revealed that high EI employees received greater merit increases and held higher company ranks than their counterparts. The authors have further found that, these employees also received better peer and/or supervisor ratings of interpersonal facilitation and stress tolerance. With few exceptions, relations between EI and workplace outcomes remained statistically significant after
controlling for other predictors, including age, gender, education, verbal ability, the Big Five personality traits, and trait affect.

Kerr, R., Garvin, J., Heaton, N., & Boyle, E. (2006)\textsuperscript{25} in their study on “Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness” have studied on the relationship between EI, as measured by the MSCEIT, and managerial effectiveness, as assessed via subordinate ratings on an attitude survey detailing questions relating to supervisor performance. A total of 38 supervisors (37 males and 1 female) and 1,258 subordinates from a large manufacturing organization participated in the investigation. The authors found that the total MSCEIT score displayed a strong positive correlation with supervisor ratings. The results indicate that 15.2 % of the variation in supervisor ratings can be predicted by the total MSCEIT score. With regard to the MSCEIT domain scores, the Experiential EI domain, which includes perceiving and using emotions, was found to be highly correlated with supervisor ratings, whereas the reasoning EI domain, which includes understanding and managing emotions, displayed no significant correlation.

Singh, S. K. (2007)\textsuperscript{26} in their study on “Role of emotional intelligence in organizational learning: An empirical study” examined the relationships as well as the contribution of EI, as measured by the ECI 2.0, on organizational learning (OL), as measured by Organizational Learning Diagnostic Scale. Results based on a sample size of 280 employees from a company in India depicted EI as being positively and significantly related with the three phases of OL - innovation, implementation, and stabilization - and with the five mechanisms of OL - experimentation, mutuality, planning, uses of temporary systems, and competency mechanisms. The author has concluded that organizations need to continuously invest resources in providing employees with needs-based training for both development and sustenance of emotional competencies. The competitive edge of organizations depends on the EI of their
employees. The author has also spelt out ways and means to manage employees in a way that creates and maintains organizational learning.

Rego, A., Sousa, F., Cunha, M. P., Correia, A., & Saur, I. (2007) in their article on “Leader Self-reported Emotional Intelligence and Perceived Employee Creativity” have examined the relationship between leaders' EI and creativity of their teams. A sample of 138 top and middle managers from 66 organizations operating in the European Union was analyzed. EI was assessed by a self-report scale consisting of six dimensions: understanding one's emotions, self-control against criticism, self-encouragement (use of emotions), emotional self-control (regulation of emotions), empathy and emotional contagion, understanding other people's emotions. Leaders reported the creativity of their team employees (in the aggregate) anonymously. Results revealed two main findings: (a) leaders' EI explains significant variance of employee creativity; (b) leader's EI dimensions with higher predictive power on employee creativity are self-control against criticism and empathy. The authors have concluded that emotionally intelligent leaders behave in ways that stimulate the creativity of their teams.

Singh, S. K. (2007) in his article on “Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Leadership” investigated the relationship between EI, as measured by the ECI 2.0, and leadership effectiveness, as measured by the Organizational Leadership Questionnaire, among 340 software professionals of a large company in India. EI was positively and significantly related to organizational leadership for both genders. Results revealed no significant differences between male and female software professionals in terms of EI and overall leadership effectiveness. The Relationship Management aspect of EI was found to be the most important predictor of leadership. The author concluded that employees need to develop their relationship skills in order to become effective leaders.

Dries, N., & Pepermans, R. (2007) in their study on “Using Emotional Intelligence to identify high potential: A Metacompetency Perspective” have found the
utility of EI, as measured by the EQ-i, to identify high potential managers. Participants were 51 high potentials and 51 "regular" managers, matched onto one another by managerial level, gender and age. The EQ-i subscales of assertiveness, independence, optimism, flexibility and social responsibility appeared to be "covert" high-potential identification criteria, separating between high potentials and regular managers. The authors have established that using EI - or at least some of its subscales - in identifying high potentials may well contribute to the validity of such processes.

Hopkins, M.M, O'Neil, D.A., & Williams, H.W. (2007) in their article on “Emotional Intelligence and Board Governance: Leadership Lessons From the Public Sector” examined the relationship between EI and effective school board governance. They have assessed this using the Board Self Assessment Questionnaire which consists of descriptive behavioral statements that measure individual and collective progress in six practice domains (i.e., making decisions, functioning as a group, exercising authority, connecting to the community, working towards board improvement and acting strategically). Each statement in the questionnaire was coded for the presence or absence of 18 EI competencies defined in the ECI. Inter-rater reliabilities were established and confirmed. In addition, current and former school board members in two urban areas rank-ordered the most critical EI competencies for effective board governance and offered explanations for their most highly-rated competencies. The authors revealed that a set of six core competencies are universal across the six board practice domains: transparency, achievement, initiative, organizational awareness, conflict management, and teamwork and collaboration. Each board practice domain was also characterized by one or two key EI competencies. The authors have concluded that EI competencies are critical factors for effective school boards.

Jennings, S. & Palmer, B. R. (2007) have conducted a research on “Enhancing sales performance through emotional intelligence development”, amongst front line sales
managers and sales representatives of Sanofi-Aventis, a pharmaceutical company in Australia. The participants were put through a six-month learning and development program on EI designed to enhance their sales performance. The EI and sales revenue of participants were measured before and after the program and compared to that of a control group. The EI of the participants, as measured by the Genos EI Assessment, was found to improve by a mean of 18%, while that of the control group decreased by 4%. In addition, the total sales revenue of the participants was found to increase by an average of 12% in comparison with the control group. The authors have concluded that EI development training can result in improvements in sales revenue.

Mukti Shah and Nutankumar S. Thingujam (2008)\(^2\) in their study on “Perceived Emotional Intelligence and Ways of Coping among Students” have explored the coping skills of students in relation to emotional intelligence. The sample comprised of 197 students, between the age of 18 and 25 years. Participants completed self-reported measures of emotional intelligence and ways of coping. The authors found that appraisal of emotions in the self was positively correlated with plan-full problem solving and positive reappraisal coping styles. Appraisal of emotions in others was positively correlated with plan-full problem solving and positive reappraisal. Emotional regulation of the self was positively correlated with planfull problem solving, confronting coping, self-controlling, positive reappraisal and with distancing, but negatively correlated with escape avoidance. No gender differences were found in perceived emotional intelligence and ways of coping except for self-control, where males reported higher than females.

Kafetsios, K., & Zampetakis, L. A. (2008)\(^3\) in their study on “Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction: Testing the Mediatory Role of Positive and Negative Affect at Work” have studied on affectivity in the workplace by testing for links between EI, affect at work and job satisfaction. Participants were 523 educators in Greece who completed the Wong Law Emotional Intelligence Scale. The results demonstrated that EI
is an important predictor of work affectivity and job satisfaction. Results also indicated that positive and negative affect at work substantially mediate the relationship between EI and job satisfaction with positive affect exerting a stronger influence. Among the four EI dimensions, use of emotion and emotion regulation were significant predictors of affect at work, whereas perceiving others' emotions was uniquely associated with job satisfaction.

Koman, E. S., & Wolff, S. B. (2008) in their study on “Emotional Intelligence Competencies in the Team and Team Leader: A Multi-Level Examination of the Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Team Performance”, have examined the relationships among team leader EI competencies, as measured by the ECI 2.0, team level EI, as assessed using the Group Emotional Intelligence measure, and team performance which was determined using a subjective measure (i.e., asking upper level officers to evaluate multiple teams within the command over time) and objective measures (i.e., percentage of raw material waste; number of accidents; and percentage of flight objectives met). A total of 349 aircrew and maintenance military team members participated, representing 81 aircrew and maintenance teams. The authors reported that team leader EI is significantly related to the presence of emotionally competent group norms (ECGN) on the teams they lead, and that ECGN are related to team performance. The authors have suggested three main implications for practice: 1) employing leaders with developed EI competencies increases both their own personal performance as well as that of the teams they lead, 2) one means through which organizations can develop emotionally competent groups is to develop or hire emotionally competent managers who purposefully focus on developing ECGNs, and 3) in addition to developing emotionally competent first line leaders, organizations should develop emotionally competent executive leaders because each individual on the executive management team influences the development of ECGNs on the teams he or she leads.
Hopkins, M. M., & Bilimoria, D. (2008) in their article on “Social and Emotional Competencies Predicting Success for Male and Female Executives” have examined the relation between emotional and social intelligence competencies, as measured by the 360-degree version of the ECI 2.0, and organizational success, as determined by annual performance and potential ratings. Participants were 105 top-level executives in one financial services organization. The authors found no significant differences between male and female leaders in their demonstration of emotional and social intelligence competencies. The most successful men and women were also more similar than different in their competency demonstration. However, gender did moderate the relationship between the demonstration of these competencies and success. Male leaders were assessed as more successful even when the male and female leaders demonstrated an equivalent level of competencies. Finally, four competencies significantly separated the most successful male and female leaders from their typical counterparts: Self Confidence, Achievement Orientation, Inspirational Leadership and Change Catalyst.

Ozcelik, H., Langton, N., & Aldrich, H. (2008) in their study on “Doing Well and Doing Good: The Relationship Between Leadership Practices That Facilitate A Positive Emotional Climate and Organizational Performance”, investigated the relationship between leadership practices that facilitate a positive emotional climate (PEC practices) and organizational outcomes, after controlling for competition, age of firm, turnover and new hires rate. PEC practices included being sensitive to employees' emotional needs, encouraging employees by giving positive feedback, offering opportunities for employees' advancement, and taking initiatives to create a teamwork environment and a positive emotional climate between workers. In the first wave, the authors collected data regarding the PEC practices from 229 entrepreneurs and small business owners operating in British Columbia, Canada. The data on outcome variables,
i.e. revenue, strategic growth, and outcome growth were collected in the second wave, 18 months later. The authors have revealed that PEC practices were positively related to revenue, strategic, and outcome growth and accounted for 12 percent of the variance in revenue and 8 percent of the variance in outcome growth. The authors in their findings indicated that leadership practices that facilitate a positive emotional climate in an organization can make a difference in organizational-level outcomes.

Law, K. S., Wong, C. S., Huang, G. H., & Li, X. (2008)\(^{37}\) in their study on “The Effects of Emotional Intelligence on Job Performance and Life Satisfaction for the Research and Development Scientists in China” have examined the relation between EI, IQ, as measured by the Wonderlic Personnel Test, life satisfaction and job performance, as determined based on the company’s formal evaluation system that evaluates performance with one of six alphabetical grades (C to A). The participants were 102 scientists working at a large computer company in Beijing, China. EI was measured using the MSCEIT and WLEIS, a 16 item self-report measure of EI developed for Chinese respondents. Results revealed that job performance was not related to IQ or any of the MSCEIT dimensions, but significantly related to two dimensions of the WLEIS. After controlling for four demographic variables and IQ, the WLEIS had incremental predictive validity for both job performance and life satisfaction, whereas the MSCEIT had incremental predictive validity for life satisfaction only. They have demonstrated that on top of IQ, WLEIS scores still account for about 10% of overall job performance. The mean scores of the four MSCEIT dimensions were significantly below the mean score of 100 for U.S. respondents and raise doubts about the validity of the MSCEIT to measure the EI of Chinese respondents.

Ayoko, O. B., Callan, V. J., & Hartel, C. E. J. (2008)\(^{38}\) in their article on “The Influence of Team Emotional Climate on Conflict and Team Members’ Reactions to Conflict” have integrated features of conflict, reactions to conflict, and team EI climate,
as measured by the Work Group Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP). The participants were 528 employees in 97 organizational teams. Results revealed that teams with less-well-defined EI climates were associated with increased task and relationship conflict and increased conflict intensity. In addition, team EI climate, especially conflict management norms, moderated the link between task conflict and destructive reactions to conflict. The authors concluded that team leaders and members need to be aware of their team members' reactions to conflict. More specifically, teams that are experiencing destructive reactions to conflict need training in skills related to empathy, emotion management, and conflict management norms. The application of these skills in the team environment is expected to assist team leaders and members in minimizing conflict and in managing conflict for team effectiveness.

Céleste M. Brotheridge, & Raymond T. Lee(2008)\textsuperscript{39} in their editorial article in Journal of Managerial Psychology, special issue on managing emotions, have highlighted as to how the past decade has seen a growing understanding of how emotions are intertwined with, and embedded in, all aspects of organizational life. The traditional stereotype of the detached and singularly cognitive-focused Mr Spock-like manager has been replaced by one in which managers are expected to be more well-rounded, "fully human" individuals. The authors have dealt on how managers, in considering the role of emotions and emotional skills, need to apply it in everyday managerial work.

Adeyemo, D. A. (2008)\textsuperscript{40} in his research on “Demographic Characteristics and Emotional Intelligence Among Workers in Some Selected Organizations in Oyo State, Nigeria” has investigated the relationship between demographic variables and EI, as measured by the WEIP. The participants were 215 workers randomly drawn from selected organizations in Nigeria. Correlation Analysis showed a significant relationship between EI and two of the independent variables - gender and working experience. Females and experienced workers had higher EI scores. However, no significant relationship was observed between age, salary grade, marital status, educational
qualification and EI. The author, on the basis of the findings, had recommended that organizational training and development programs which encompass aspects of EI should be inculcated for new employees to compensate for their lack of adequate experience.

Weng, H.C., Chen, H.C, Chen, H.J, Lu, K., & Hung, S.Y. (2008)\(^{41}\) in their article on “Doctors' Emotional Intelligence and the Patient-Doctor Relationship” have explored the associations among patients' trust, patient-doctor relationship (PDR), and doctors' EI as measured by WLEIS, a 16 item self-report EI measure. A total of 994 outpatients and 39 doctors representing 11 specialties participated in the study. In addition to the doctors, three nurse directors rated doctors' EI, using the same scale. The authors have found that there was no significant association between a doctor's self reported EI and patient-rated trust and the PDR. However, nurse-rated EI of doctors was positively associated with patient trust and the PDR. The authors have reported that 360 EI tests may be a better evaluation of doctors' EI than self-report measures and that EI coaching for doctors is needed to optimize the relationship with the patients as outcome of the study.

Liu, L.Y., Prati, M., Perrewé, P.L., & Ferris, G.R. (2008)\(^{42}\) in their study on “The Relationship Between Emotional Resources and Emotional Labor: An Exploratory Study” have examined the effects of EI and negative affectivity on emotional labor which is defined as the act of managing emotions and emotional expressions in order to be consistent with organizational 'display rules' to ensure service excellence. Emotional labour strategies include deep acting (i.e., acting authentically) and surface acting (i.e., suppressing the real emotions). The 33-item Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT; Schutte et al., 1998) was used to measure the EI of 574 employees and managers from 29 stores of an 87-year-old American retail chain. Authors have found that EI was positively related to deep acting, while negative affectivity was positively related to surface acting. Authors have concluded that in order to promote deep acting which could
lead to positive customer outcomes, employers must increase employees' EI by offering regular EI training and development programs.

Chiva, R., & Alegre, J. (2008) in their study on “Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction: The Role of Organizational Learning Capability” have examined the relationship between EI, as measured by the SREIT, and job satisfaction. Data were collected from blue-collar employees working for ceramic tile manufacturers in Spain. The authors suggest that emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to experience high levels of job satisfaction. They have also found that organizational learning capability (OLC), defined as a set of stimulating factors that facilitate organizational learning (e.g., experimentation, risk taking, interaction with the external environment, dialogue and participative decision making), plays a significant role in determining the effects of EI on job satisfaction. They have concluded that job satisfaction is affected by the correlation between individual EI and certain working conditions.

Brundin, E., Patzelt, H., & Shepherd, D.A. (2008) in their study on “Managers' Emotional Displays and Employees' Willingness to Act Entrepreneurially” have attempted to draw on the literature of emotions and entrepreneurial motivation to analyze how and why emotional displays of managers influence the willingness of employees to act entrepreneurially using data from 31 entrepreneurially oriented firms. The findings revealed that managers' displays of confidence and satisfaction about entrepreneurial projects enhance employees' willingness to act entrepreneurially, whereas displays of frustration, worry, and bewilderment, respectively, diminish it. However, negative moods may be functional in cases where the situation is complex and risky and direct attention to details is necessary. The authors have found that the findings are in line with the EI framework that maintains that emotionally intelligent managers are able to use emotions in order to enhance cognitive processes among employees. In other words, managers' display of emotion may put employees in good or bad moods. By being aware of the
consequences of displaying positive or negative emotions, and by being able to be more flexible and alter their displays, managers can impact employees' work performance.

Stein, S.J., Papadogiannis, P., Yip, J.A., & Sitarenios, G. (2009) in their study on “Emotional Intelligence of Leaders: A Profile of Top Executives. Leadership and Organization” have examined the EI scores of executives in comparison with the general population and then investigated the executive group's EI scores in relation to various organizational outcomes such as net profit, growth management, and employee management and retention. The EQ-i was administered to a sample of 186 executives (159 males and 27 females) belonging to one of the two executive mentoring associations, the Young Presidents' Organization (YPO) and the Innovators' Alliance (IA). A series of questions relating to pre-tax operating profits over the past three years, previous year's net profit, and various business challenges were asked of each executive. The authors concluded that top executives differed significantly from the normative population on the EQ-i in eight of the 15 EQ-i subscales. Executives who possessed higher levels of empathy, self-regard, reality testing, and problem solving were more likely to yield high profit-earning companies, while Total EQ-i was related to the degree to which a challenge was perceived as being easy with respect to managing growth, managing others, and training and retaining employees. The authors concluded that the findings will enable researchers and practitioners to better understand what leadership differences and similarities exist at various organizational levels. These profiles further aid in human resource initiatives such as leadership development and personnel selection.

Cheung, F.Y., & Tang, C.S. (2009) in their study on “The Influence of Emotional Intelligence and Affectivity on Emotional Labor Strategies at Work” have investigated how affectivity, as measured by the positive and negative affectivity Scales (PANAS) and EI, as measured by the Wong and Law EI Scale, influence the use of emotional labor strategies at work among 486 Chinese employees. Emotional labor
strategies were measured by the Emotional Labor Scale which consists of seven items that measure surface acting (e.g., “I fake a good mood when interacting with customers”), four items on deep acting (e.g., “I try to actually experience the emotion that must be shown to customers”), and three items on the expression of naturally felt emotion (e.g., “the emotion that I express to customers is genuine”). The results revealed that regulation of emotion was a particularly important EI dimension in influencing the use of deep acting. The use of deep acting is preferred as it is often found to relate to positive job outcomes. According to the authors, organizations should implement strategies, including personnel selection or training, to ensure that employees possess this core emotional competency.

Momeni, N. (2009)\(^{17}\) in his study on “The Relation Between Managers’ Emotional Intelligence and the Organizational Climate They Create” has studied the relation between the EI of managers and the organizational climate that they create. Thirty managers from car manufacturing companies in Iran were randomly selected as a sample. Managers were assessed using a Farsi-translated version of the ECI-360. Employees completed a modified version of the Organizational Climate Inventory which measured five dimensions that affect climate in the workplace: credibility, respect, fairness, pride, and camaraderie. The author revealed that the higher a manager's EI, the better the climate in the workplace. Among the four EI dimensions, social awareness and self-awareness have the greatest influence on organizational climate. He concludes that organizations should focus on hiring managers with high emotional and social competence and also provide EI training and development opportunities to managers to enable them create a positive organizational climate.

Quoidbach, J., & Hansenne, M. (2009)\(^{48}\) in their study on “Impact of Trait Emotional Intelligence on Nursing Team Performance and Cohesiveness” have investigated the relationship between EI, performance, and cohesiveness in 23 nursing
teams in Belgium. EI was assessed using the modified version of the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale and cohesiveness with the Group Cohesiveness Scale. Nursing team performance was measured at four different levels: job satisfaction, chief nursing executives' rating, turnover rate, and health care quality. The authors found that the results do not support the generalization that all components of EI relate to all measures of performance; however, the data clearly supported a relationship between Emotional Regulation and an important aspect of team performance (i.e., health care quality). Emotion Regulation was also positively correlated with group cohesiveness. Emotion Appraisal was negatively correlated with the health care quality provided by teams. Finally authors concluded that emotional Regulation may provide an interesting new way of enhancing nursing teams' cohesion and patient/client outcomes. They have suggested that training on emotion regulation skills during team-building exercises might be more effective than focusing only on exercises to create long-term cohesiveness.

Boyatzis, R.E., & Ratti, F. (2009) in their research article on “Emotional, Social and Cognitive Intelligence Competencies- Distinguishing Effective Italian Managers and Leaders in a private Company and Cooperatives” tried to identify competencies that distinguish effective managers and leaders in Italy. Performance measures were collected as nominations from superiors and subordinates. The authors through the result revealed that emotional, social and cognitive intelligence competencies predict performance. More specifically, in the EI competency cluster, effective executives showed more initiative, while effective middle level managers showed more planning than their less effective counterparts. Similarly, in the social intelligence competency cluster, effective executives were more distinguished in networking, self-confidence, persuasiveness and oral communication. These are all addressing assertive and influencing processes. Meanwhile, effective middle level managers distinguished themselves with empathy and group management. These appear to be key competencies in addressing internal processes,
whereas effective executives seem to be focused on the external environment. The authors concluded that competencies needed for managers to be effective can be identified for development.

Ramo, L.G., Saris, W.E., & Boyatzis, R.E. (2009) in their study on “The Impact of Social and Emotional Competencies on Effectiveness of Spanish Executives” have assessed the relationship between EI- as measured by the ECI, personality- as measured by the NEO-FFI, and job performance- as determined by superior and peer nominations. The participants were 223 employees of three medium-sized Spanish organizations that were involved in a competency management project based on emotional and social competencies. The authors revealed that both emotional and social competencies and personality traits are valuable predictors of job performance. They have concluded that competencies are more powerful predictors of performance than global personality traits.

Deshpande, S.P. (2009) in his article on “A Study of Ethical Decision Making by Physicians and Nurses in Hospitals”, has investigated the impact of EI, ethical behavior of peers, ethical behavior of hospital managers and on the ethical behavior of 180 not-for-profit hospital employees in the U.S. EI was measured using a 16-item scale developed by Law et.al. (2004). The results revealed that EI, ethical behavior of peers and managers had a significant positive impact on ethical behavior of employees. Thus, the author concluded that hospitals can expect employees with EI skills like empathy and self-management, to be more likely to make ethical decisions. The author also found that these are skills that can be tested during the hiring process, maintained via training and development programs, and reinforced during performance appraisals.

Wong, C.S., Wong, P.M., & Peng, K.Z. (2010) in their research on “Effect of Middle-Level Leader and Teacher Emotional Intelligence on School Teachers' Job Satisfaction” investigated the potential effect of school leaders' (i.e., senior teachers) EI, as measured by the 16-item scale developed by Wong and Law (2002), on teachers' job
satisfaction in Hong Kong. In Study one, 107 teachers were asked to list the attributes of successful senior teachers/mentors in their schools. In Study two, 3866 school teachers and middle-level leaders were surveyed on their EI and job satisfaction level. For the 3866 teachers, the correlation between their EI and job satisfaction scores was 0.30. Middle-level leaders' average EI was significantly related to the average of ordinary frontline teachers' job satisfaction (r = 0.21). The authors found that school teachers believe that middle-level leaders' EI is important for their success, and a large sample of teachers surveyed also indicated that EI is positively related to job satisfaction. The authors recommended that the teaching profession requires both teachers and school leaders to have high levels of EI. Practically, in selecting, training and developing teachers and school leaders, EI should be one of the important concerns.

Cherniss, C., Grimm, L.G., & Liautaud, J.P. (2010) in their study on “Process-designed Training: A New Approach for Helping Leaders Develop Emotional and Social Competence” evaluated the effectiveness of an EI leadership development program. The study utilized a random assignment control group design. The participants were 162 managers from nine different companies. There were nine different groups with nine managers in each group. Each group was required to follow the identical process. Trained moderators led the groups during year 1, but during year 2 a group member served as moderator. The outcome measure was the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), a multi-rater measure of social and emotional competencies. Outcome data were collected before the program started, one year later, and two years later. Results indicated that after two years the intervention group had improved more than the controls on all ECI variables. The authors have offered recommendations for future research on the mechanisms underlying the process-designed group strategy and contextual factors that optimize results. They have found that leadership development based on a process-
designed group strategy appears to be more economical and consistent in its delivery than more traditional approaches such as workshops or executive coaching.

Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010) in their study on “Emotional Intelligence: An Integrative Meta-analysis and Cascading Model” have analyzed multiple studies to examine relationships between Emotional Intelligence, performance, cognitive ability, personality, race and sex. The study utilized the two main frameworks of EI: (a) specified set of constructs pertaining to the recognition and control of emotion (i.e., ability-based EI), and (b) as an umbrella term for a broad array of constructs that are connected only by their no-redundancy with cognitive intelligence (i.e., mixed-based EI). The authors have revealed that the relationship between ability-based EI and job performance was inconsistent (e.g., EI positively predicts performance for high emotional labor jobs only). They also suggest to choose the EI measure very carefully as different measures seem to predict different things and some may have adverse impact due to gender and race subgroup differences.

Godse, A.S. & Thingujam, N.S. (2010), in their article on “Perceived Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Resolution Styles Among Information Technology Professionals: Testing the Mediating Role of Personality”, examined the relationship between personality, conflict resolution styles and EI among 81 technology professionals in India. Results revealed that EI was significantly correlated with the integrating style of conflict resolution (i.e., involving the exchange of information and differences toward a solution favorable to both parties), negatively correlated with the avoiding style (i.e., withdrawal from the situations) and not correlated with the dominating, compromising or obliging style. The authors concluded that IT professionals with higher perceived EI are likely to adapt better styles of conflict resolution in order to deal effectively with the situations and thus EI is an important factor to effectively resolve conflict in the workplace.
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