CHAPTER 3
APPLICATIONS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:
LITERATURE SURVEY

This chapter presents the literature survey revealing the significance of EI in everyday life and work place variables like occupational stress, conflict resolution, decision making, job satisfaction and job performance. Factors of occupational stress and EI competencies required in different professions are also discussed.

3.1 Applicability of EI in Every Day Life

As humans we need to handle frustration, manage stress, resolve conflicts and take decisions in our personal as well as professional lives on day to day basis. Therefore, since the conceptualisation of EI, many researchers and practitioners have sought to understand the relationship of EI with various life and work outcomes. Several studies have found that EI can have a significant impact on various elements of everyday living. Palmer, Donaldson, and Stough (2002) found that higher EI was a predictor of life satisfaction. Pellitteri (2002) reported that people higher in EI exhibited healthier psychological adaptation. Higher levels of EI are associated with an increased likelihood of attending to health and appearance, positive interactions with friends and family and owning objects that are reminders of their loved ones (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004).

Study by Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) found that higher EI correlated significantly with higher parental warmth and attachment style, while others found that those scoring high in EI also reported increased positive interpersonal relationships among children, adolescents and adults (Rice, 1999; Rubin, 1999). Negative relationships have likewise been identified between EI and problem behaviour. Salovey et al. (2001) found that higher EI was associated with lower self-reports of violent and trouble-prone behaviour among college students. Lower EI has been significantly associated with higher use of illegal drugs and alcohol, as well as increased participation in deviant behaviour like involvement in physical fights and vandalism (Brackett et al., 2004). Moriarty et al. (2001) found that adolescent male sex offenders have difficulty in identifying their own and others' feelings, two important elements of EI.
3.2 Emotional Intelligence in Workplace

Emotions are an integral and inseparable part of everyday organisational life. The experience of work is saturated with emotions, from moments of fear, anger, joy, frustration or grief to an enduring sense of commitment or dissatisfaction (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Apart from having to work on tasks given to them employees are also required to manage their emotions as part of their job (Zapf, 2002). A theoretical paper by Briner (1999) outlines reasons why the role of emotions in the workplace has generally been ignored in research. Firstly Briner highlights that the workplace has traditionally been viewed as a rational, logical and a non-emotional environment with its main purpose being the completion of specific tasks, such that emotions have been considered irrelevant or even unnecessary to effective workplace performance. Secondly, emotions are transient and therefore difficult to assess in self-report techniques such that many researchers and practitioners tend to avoid this area of study and instead focus on more easily measurable constructs such as attitude or satisfaction. Briner states that because of the popularisation of the construct of EI researchers have now started showing interest and are paying more attention to emotions at workplace.

Although EI is beneficial in many areas of life, the application of its usefulness has been most frequently documented in the professional workplace. Cherniss (2000a) outlines four main reasons for this-

i. Emotional intelligence competencies are critical for success in most jobs.

ii. Many adults enter the workforce without the competencies necessary to succeed or excel at their job.

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

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

Due to these reasons the relationship between EI and aspects of employee behaviour like leadership, managerial effectiveness, team work, organizational citizenship behavior, stress perception, psychological and physical health, conflict management, decision making, job satisfaction, commitment, job performance, teaching and learning has been of particular

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interest to many researchers. Research literature linking EI with some of the workplace variables relevant to this study are discussed in the succeeding sections of this chapter.

3.3 Emotional Intelligence in Conflict Management

Conflict is inevitable in a rapidly changing society. After all, two people can’t be expected to agree on everything at all times. Conflict triggers strong emotions and can lead to hurt feelings, disappointment, and discomfort. Conflict arises from differences. It occurs whenever people disagree over their values, motivations, perceptions, ideas, or desires. Sometimes these differences look trivial, but when a conflict triggers strong feelings, a deep personal and relational need is at the core of the problem—a need to feel safe and secure, a need to feel respected and valued. Since conflicts are inevitable, learning to deal with them in a healthy way is crucial. Review of the related literature and research reveal that conflict management requires skills that are emotion based. Therefore, EI is a more significant factor in conflict resolution as our ability to handle conflict depends on being connected to these feelings (Goleman, 2001). If we insist on finding solutions that are strictly rational, our ability to face and resolve differences will be impaired.

In a study by Regina Roberts of Delhi University in 2002 (cited by Singh, 2006) on executives of a multinational company found that managers with high EI had smoothing and collaborative styles (healthy styles) of conflict resolution and EI had no significant relation with forcing, compromising and avoiding styles of conflict resolution (unhealthy styles). Jordan and Troth (2004) found that individuals with high EI preferred to seek collaborative solutions when confronted with conflict. Study by Ming, L.F. (2003) on teaching staff of a college showed that EI level, gender and position affected faculty and staff members’ conflict-management styles. In addition, gender, academic rank and position influenced EI. The results revealed that both integrating and compromising styles had significant and positive relationships with EI. The findings also showed that self-motivation, managing emotions, and self-awareness of EI were significant predictors as EI competencies in predicting both the integrating and compromising conflict-management styles.

Morrison (2008) found that higher levels of EI in nurses positively correlated with collaborating and negatively with accommodating style of conflict management. Godse and Thingujam (2010) examined the relationship between personality, conflict resolution styles
and EI among technology professionals in India. The 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 favourable 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 results indicated that the IT professionals with higher perceived EI were likely to adapt better styles of conflict resolution in order to deal effectively with the situations.

3.4 Emotional Intelligence in Stress Management

The skills required for handling stress is another important aspect of EI as it helps people to meet their environmental demand and manage work pressure successfully. Stress at work has touched almost all professions. It is often termed as twentieth century syndrome, born out of high competition and its subsequent complexities. It is a state of affair involving demand on physical or mental energy which can disturb the normal physiological and psychological functioning of an individual. Occupational stress (also termed job stress or work stress) can be defined as the experience of unpleasant, negative emotions such as tension, anxiety, frustration, anger and depression resulting from aspects of work (Salami, 2010). The primary difference between occupational stress and many other forms of stress is the nature of the stressors and their interaction with the overall stress process (Chang, 2011).

3.4.1 Emotions and Stress

Lazarus (1999) suggested that stress and emotions are interdependent – where there is stress there is also emotion. Psychological stress is accompanied by negative emotions like anger, aggression, hostility, depression, anxiety and negative behaviours like panic attacks, mood swings and sleeplessness. Such negative emotions, especially chronic anger, anxiety or a sense of futility, can cause a disruption of work and of the task at hand. Negative moods and emotions release stress hormones that weaken our immune system and ultimately lead to poorer health outcomes which subsequently affects our performance. Organisational culture has been suggested to play a role in the experience and expression of emotions at work (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Zapf et al., 2001).

According to emotion-centred occupational stress model proposed by Spector and Goh (2001) if the event is perceived as stressful then negative emotions will arise, leading to one
or more of the three forms of strain (psychological, physical and behavioural). Continual experience of negative emotions in the workplace is likely to induce job dissatisfaction, a decline in organisational commitment, and increased withdrawal. Acknowledging that people work best when they feel good is crucial. It tends to make them feel more optimistic and enhances their mental efficiency, ensuring better understanding of information, flexible thinking and the ability to use good judgement in decision making and creativity (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). This ultimately leads to long-term sustainability and profit generation of the organisation (Mikolajczak, Menil & Luminet, 2008).

A stress condition can be real or perceived. The process of stress depends on the person’s appraisal of the situation. Different individuals react differently to the same stress conditions. It is created by what we think rather than by what has actually happened. Although stress in moderate doses (called eustress) is necessary as it gives an impetus to increase one’s performance and can actually stimulate one’s faculties to delve deep into and discover one’s true potential, but if the magnitude of the stressor exceeds individual’s capacity to cope, it leads to negative moods and emotions and excessive demands made upon the energy, strength and resources of a person leads to distress or burnout (Lazarus, 1984).

3.4.2 Consequences of Occupational Stress

Most researchers agree that strains resulting from occupational stress can be classified into three major types: 1) Psychological Strain: depression, fatigue, low self-esteem, anger, apathy, irritability, guilt, moodiness, boredom, accidents, withdrawal and burnout (Downs, Driskill & Wuthnow, 1990), job dissatisfaction, anxiety, dysphoria, complaints of insomnia and restlessness (Edwards, Caplan & Harrison, 1998). 2) Physical Strain: high blood pressure, high cholesterol level (Harrison, 1978), cardiovascular disease, hypertension, ulcers, asthma, and migraine headaches (Downs et al., 1990) and compromised immune system functioning (Edward et al., 1998). 3) Behavioural Strain: behavioural changes are among the earliest and most easily recognised signs of increases in stress (Quick et al., 1987). Research has associated increased cigarette smoking, increased alcohol and recreational drug abuse, violence, stuttering, and overeating as symptoms of behavioural strain (Edwards et al., 1998).
Therefore, it can be inferred that work-related stress of the employees consequently affects the efficiency of the organizations because when one is under stress his ability to carry out job responsibilities gets affected. Unresolved occupational stress results in low job satisfaction, poor work performance, psychological distress, unfocused attention and lack of motivation (Morris & Long, 2002), poor health, poor mental and physical well-being, absenteeism, turnover rate and intent to quit (Siu, 2002). It also has an indirect negative effect on organizational commitment (Aghdasi, Kiamanesh & Ebrahim, 2011).

3.4.3 Factors of Occupational Stress

Occupational stress may be caused by a complex set of reasons. Some of the most visible causes of workplace stress are - job insecurity, high demand for performance, meeting deadlines, increased workload, work-family conflicts, extremely long work hours, less salary, workplace culture, office politics and conflicts with colleagues. All these factors can actually leave an employee physically and emotionally drained. Cooper and Marshall (1978) identified over 40 interacting factors which could be identified as sources of work stress. They grouped these into categories and proposed six major causes of stress at work (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997; Cooper et al., 2001). These six major categories are discussed below.

i. Factors Intrinsic to the Job: Some of these factors as noted by Cooper and Cartwright are- poor working conditions, long hours, shift work, travel, risk and danger, new technology, work overload and work underload. Working conditions include aspects of the physical environment, such as lighting, speed of work required and office design. Work overload corresponds to a condition of excess demand (Karasek & Thorell, 1990). French and Caplan (1973) viewed work overload as being either quantitative (too much to do) or qualitative (too difficult to do). Job demands can be physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of one’s job that require sustained effort (cognitive and emotional). Lack of resources (physical, psychological, social or organizational) can lead to the feeling of work overload. On the other hand, job resources are functional in achieving work goals or stimulating personal development and growth (Bakker, et al., 2003).

ii. Role in the Organisation: Roles encompass the demands and behaviours associated with the job an individual performs. Some of the main role dysfunctions are: 1) Role ambiguity—when the individual has inadequate information about their work role. 2) Role conflict exists when the individual is ‘torn’ by conflicting job demands or when the individual is required
to do things that they do not want to do and that are not part of their job. 3) *Role overload* (similar to work overload) comprises the number of different roles an individual needs to fulfill and leads to excessive time demands and uncertainty as to the ability to perform these different roles adequately. 4) *Responsibility* can be differentiated into *responsibility for people* and *responsibility for things* (equipment, budgets, and buildings). As noted by Cartwright and Cooper (1997), too much responsibility exceeding the individual's belief that they are able to manage is a clear source of stress; however, a lack of responsibility may also be a source of stress (perception of work under-load). Responsibility for people has been identified as being particularly stressful.

**iii. Relationships at Work:** Unhealthy relationships with the people one works with (bosses, peers, subordinates) can lead to psychological strain in the form of lowered job satisfaction and to feelings of threat to one's well-being. Cartwright and Cooper (1997) suggest that the manner in which a manager supervises their subordinates is critical and if the manager considers personal relationships to be trivial or time consuming then the result will often be a serious relationship problem. They also hypothesise that stress amongst colleagues can arise from personality conflicts and feelings of competition, often described as the 'office politics'.

**iv. Career Development:** Two clusters of potential stressors in the area of career development: lack of job security (a fear of job loss, obsolescence or retirement) and status incongruity (reaching career ceiling, under or over-promotion). Strain is often caused by a lack of advancement in the organisation, however, it may also be present when employees feel promoted beyond their capabilities.

**v. Organisational Structure and Climate:** Lack of participation in decision-making processes; lack of a sense of belonging; lack of effective consultation; poor communication; restrictions on behaviour; and office politics are some of the problems that can threaten an individual’s freedom, autonomy and identity in the organization. Employee participation in the organisation is related to lowered turnover, increased productivity and job satisfaction (Cooper et al., 2001). Imbalance between efforts and reward or work-related benefits like salary, job security, and career growth opportunities, causes stress (Siegrist, 1999).
vi. Organisational Interface with outside: This category includes the interface between life outside and life inside the organisation and may consist of family problems, life crises, financial difficulties, conflict of beliefs and conflict with family demands. Changes in the family structure, increase of women in the workforce and changes in technology which enable the employee to perform work-related tasks in a variety of locations have blurred the boundary between life on and life off the job (Cooper et al. 2001).

3.4.4 Research Literature showing Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Occupational Stress

The negative effects of stress can be moderated by both individual (i.e. personality, personal stress tolerance levels) and organizational factors (i.e. supervisory support, sense of teamwork) (Chang, 2011). Teams which develop their EI are likely to have far more initiative in dealing with organisational challenges, are far better at addressing ongoing concerns such as stress, change and conflict and genuinely get more out of work (Welch, 2003). Slaski and Cartwright (2002) investigated the relationship between measures of emotional quotient, subjective stress, distress, general health and morale, quality of working life and management performance of a group of retail managers. Significant correlations in the expected direction were found, indicating that managers who scored higher in emotional quotient suffered less subjective stress, experienced better health and well-being, and demonstrated better management performance.

Nikolaou and Tsousis (2002) in their study on health professionals found a negative correlation between EI and stress at work, whereas, a positive correlation was found between EI and organizational commitment. Ogińska-Bulik (2005) explored the relationship between EI and perceived stress in the workplace and health-related consequences in human service workers. The results confirmed that employees reporting a higher EI level perceived a lower level of occupational stress and suffered less from negative health consequences. Several studies have found that EI is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and well-being (Mikolajczak, et al. 2008). Thus it can be expected that a person with high levels of emotional intelligence may experience less stress.

Gardner (2005) systematically examined the relationship between EI and the occupational stress process, including stressors, strains (health), and outcomes of stress (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) among 320 employees from different professions like
accounts, administration, analysts, consultancy, engineering, information technology, management, and teaching. The results of the study indicate that four dimensions of EI were particularly important in the occupational stress process: Emotional Recognition and Expression, Understanding Emotions, Emotional Management and Emotional Control. It was concluded that utilising EI was related to the experience of OS, and to the outcomes of OS (both health and attitudes), such that employees who reported using EI were less likely to report feelings of stress and ill-health and more likely to report feelings of job satisfaction and commitment.

Darolia and Darolia ((2005) in their study on 400 adults ranging from 25 to 40 years of age, found that subjects with high EI scored significantly high in Adaptive Coping Style whereas subjects with low EI had Avoidance Coping Style. Adaptive coping helps in reducing stress as a person makes necessary changes to suit the environment whereas avoidance coping increases stress as a person either denies the situation or he gives up. Employees with high EI are more likely to be able to reduce or transform the potential negative effects of job stress on job performance (Wu Yu-Chi, 2011).

Ramesar, Koortzen, & Oosthuizen (2009) studied the relationship between EI and stress management in a group of 105 managers from South African financial institution. The correlation and regression results indicate that stress management is a component of EI, while stress can be either an input or an out flow of EI or the lack thereof. Goswami and Talukdar (2013) explored the relation between EI and job stress among engineers at public sector organization in Assam. Regression analysis showed that influence of EI was significant in occupational stress level among engineers at managerial level.

3.5 Emotional Intelligence in Decision Making

Decision making is an active and unavoidable process taking place in human life on regular basis may it be personal or professional. A decision is a judgment after evaluating alternatives concerning different course of action in relation to a goal. Decision making is a major part of organizational life and conventionally it is believed that people high on IQ can take better decisions. But decision making does not take place in a vacuum for when a

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decision is made various psychological factors, organizational factors; information available and how it is communicated are at play. The moods and emotions that persons in authority experience in response to positive and negative workplace events have a significant effect on strategic decision-making processes and ultimately, organizational-level outcomes (Forgas, 1995; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Although the jobs in which role and responsibilities are well defined and the task is more of technical nature like computer programming, finance and accounts, there is less scope for analyzing emotions in decision making, but many organizational problems are poorly defined, emotionally laden and ambiguous having no single right answer. Solutions to these problems require emotional skills along with cognitive skills because they deal with complex situations involving people and emotions e.g., restructuring, retaining talent, resolving conflicts, improving productivity and efficiency (Zerbe, Ha’rtel & Ashkanasy, 2008).

While making a decision in complex situations due to the cognitive limitations relative to the complexity of the situation, human mind sets a minimally acceptable standard that must be met, and search only until the first available alternative is found that meets the threshold criterion (Simon, 1997). In such situations the autonomic responses associated with intuitions based upon previous experience and emotional states have the potential to guide decision-making and outcomes much before the conscious awareness can analyse all aspects of a problem (Klein, 1998) (refer to intuitive and analytical systems of information processing, chapter 2, pp 10). Therefore, intuitions are vital ingredients for business start-up and growth (Bilton, 2007; Kirby, 2002) because of the characteristic problems of the business environment like incomplete information, time pressure, ambiguity and uncertainty (Allinson et al., 2000).

### 3.5.1 Emotions as Antecedents and Consequences of Decisions

Traditional models of decision making have often included the implicit assumption that all decision making processes are inherently rational (Ashkanasy, 2004). But evidence from the field of neuropsychology supports the notion that emotions are able to assist decision making and the emotional brain is as involved in reasoning as is the thinking brain (Damasio, 1994; 1999). Dr. Antonio Damasio, neurologists at the University of Iowa College Of Medicine has made careful studies to understand the role of emotions in even the
most “rational” decision making. He found that in patients with damage to the prefrontal-amygdala circuit the decision making is terribly flawed and yet they show no deterioration at all in IQ or any cognitive ability. The revised EI model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) gave greater emphasis to the cognitive components of EI in the form of Emotions Direct Cognition by recognizing the role of emotions in thinking process and decision making.

In terms of the organisational literature, Hay and Hartel (2000) have argued that emotions are a large component of leaders’ decision making in certain situations. Emotions like Anger, sadness, joy/happiness appear to promote increased risk taking (Lerner & Keltner, 2001). Disgust, fear, anxiety appear to lead to more risk-adverse approaches (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). But it is also interesting to know that people in a negative affective state are motivated to spend more time and attention resources on information search and consideration of alternatives whereas people in a positive affective state, consider fewer alternatives, and evaluate decision alternatives more rapidly (Basso et al., 1996).

Anger is a complex emotion that can potentially lead to both functional and dysfunctional outcomes (Lerner & Tiedens, 2006). Mickel and Ozcelik (2008) made a qualitative study exploring anger triggers experienced and reported by business executives (age range 30-70 years) from various organizations and industries. According to the study the triggers of anger can be classified as:

i. **Self-related triggers:** Personally attacked about reputation or ability; Misperceived or misjudged about his/her ability; Ignored for his/her needs, desires, or opinions.

ii. **Other-related triggers:** Anger source’s work ethic (e.g., repeated poor job performance or lack of effort); Actions lacking integrity (e.g., deceives, lies, or betrays); Mistreatment of others (e.g., discriminating or yelling at others).

They found two distinct attitudes toward anger expression in the workplace -

i. **Integrated attitude:** anger can be instrumental and used accordingly to achieve goals.

ii. **Negative attitude:** anger should be suppressed and is not appropriate to express.

The results of the study revealed that (1) 42% of the business executives experienced anger in a decision-making process when they personally felt mistreated by the anger source, which aligns with the self-category. (2) 58% of the participants described their anger being triggered by issues related to the anger source’s behaviors toward work and others, which aligns with the other-category. (3) 50% of the study participants had a negative attitude, and
50% had an integrated attitude toward anger. (4) Interestingly, 100% of the participants experienced anger as a result of ethical issues related to people’s behavior.

### 3.5.2 Emotions in Ethical Decisions and Morality

Organizational culture can be “healthy” or “toxic” depending upon the moral or immoral decisions of the administrators (Zarbe, Hartel & Ashkanasy, 2008). Employee ethics have been linked with a number of counterproductive behaviours of great financial consequence to organizations, including absenteeism, sabotage, production and quality loss, theft, aggression, job withdrawal, and even insider trading (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). EI contributes significantly to perceptions of self and other’s ethics. Employees with EI skills like empathy and self-management are more likely to make ethical decisions (Deshpande, 2009). In his study Deshpande found that EI and ethical behaviour of peers and of managers of a not-for-profit hospital in the U.S. had a significant positive impact on ethical behaviour of physicians and nurses. Greene et al. (2001) demonstrated how ethical dilemmas can evoke emotions. They used functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) to view activity within brain centres associated with emotional processing when individuals were presented with moral dilemmas. More brain activity was found in emotion-related centres in the moral-personal condition than the moral-impersonal and non-moral conditions. The Stronger the dilemma, more is the experience of emotion which may interfere with or distract employees from job performance.

### 3.6 Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction

The degree to which an employee likes or dislikes an aspect of their job involves their feelings, (Muchinsky, 2000). Abraham (2000) deliberated that the social skills component of EI is related to positive interpersonal relationships and it increases the feeling of job satisfaction and decreases occupational stress. She further stated that these social skills foster networks of social relationships which in turn increase an employee’s commitment to the organization. A study by Fisher (2000) examined what previous studies of job satisfaction had failed to include – the role of emotion while working. Fisher described job satisfaction as an attitude with an affective component (emotions, feelings) and a cognitive component (judgement, belief).
Fisher hypothesised that emotions should be directly attributable to the job because emotions have a target and are often triggered by actual events in the workplace (being angry at someone, feeling frustrated because of an obstacle in reaching a goal, being proud of an accomplishment). Internal features of a job such as the relationship with supervisors and colleagues is likely to be related to emotion and therefore influence an employee’s perception of job satisfaction, more so than external features such as pay and promotion. Fisher reports that the experience of positive emotions is related to increased job satisfaction, and negative emotions is related to decreased job satisfaction. Fisher suggests that organisational efforts to improve emotions in the workplace may pay off in better attitudes from employees.

Further studies also support a positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction. Chiva and Alegre (2008) examined the relationship between EI and job satisfaction among blue-collar employees in Spain. The results suggested that emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to experience high levels of job satisfaction. Study by Cooper et al. (2001) on retail managers suggested that job satisfaction acted as a buffer against the negative health effects of stress. Bruck, Allen and Spector (2002) highlighted that increased conflict between the work and family life (in both directions) led to lower levels of job satisfaction in employees. Wong, Wong and Peng (2010) empirically investigated the potential effect of school leaders’ EI on teachers’ job satisfaction in Hong Kong. The study indicates that the teaching profession requires both teachers and school leaders to have high levels of EI.

3.7 Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance

Work performance often depends on the support, advice and resources provided by others (Seibert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001). EI may contribute to work performance (as reflected in salary, salary increase, and company rank) by enabling people to nurture positive relationships at work, work effectively in teams and build social capital. It also enhances work performance by enabling people to regulate their emotions so as to cope effectively with stress, perform well under pressure and adjust to organizational change. EI and performance link has been established in many studies. Some of them are mentioned below. An analysis of job competencies by Spencer and Spencer (1993) in 286 behaviours worldwide indicated that 18 of the 21 competencies in their generic model for distinguishing better performers were based on EI. In a study, data from more than 30 different behaviours
from banking, mining, geology, sales and health care industries documented that a number of EI competencies, qualities such as, achievement drive, developing others, adaptability, influence and self confidence distinguished top performers from average ones (McClelland, 1998). Cumming (2005) explored the relationship between EI and workplace performance with a sample of workers from New Zealand. In addition, she studied the relationship among demographic factors, EI and workplace performance. The results of her study suggested that a significant relationship exists between EI and workplace performance. The study did not show any significant relationships of EI with any of the demographic factors like gender, age, occupational groups and education.

Côté and Miners (2006) examined the relationship between EI, cognitive intelligence, and job performance on a sample of 175 managerial, administrative, and professional full-time employees of a large public university. Results found that cognitive intelligence moderated the association between EI and job performance. EI became a stronger predictor of job performance and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (e.g., defend the organization when other employees criticize it). Shanker and Sayeed (2006) conducted a research on 139 managers working in various organizations in Western India to establish a relation between EI of managers and their professional development. The managerial scores on various dimensions of EI were correlated with professional development indicators of managers, conceptualized in terms of number of promotions attained and the rated job success.

One of the most extensive studies on performance involved the effectiveness of 1,171 United State Air Force recruiters (Bar-On, Handley & Fund, 2006). These recruiters were divided into high-performing groups (those who met or exceeded 100% of their recruiting goals) and low performing groups (those who met less than 80% of their recruiting goals). The results indicated the EQ predicted 28% of the variance in the performance between the two groups. The EQ scores correctly classified 81% of the recruiters in the high-performing and low-performing groups. Furthermore, recruiters with high levels of EI had a greater ability to place recruits in positions that closely matched their knowledge and skills.

Boyatzis and Ratti (2009) in their study identified competencies that distinguished effective managers and leaders. Performance measures were collected as nominations from superiors and subordinates. Results revealed that emotional, social and cognitive intelligence competencies predict performance. More specifically, in the EI competency cluster,
effective executives displayed 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 main implication of the study was that competencies needed for managers to be effective can be identified.

Khokhar and Kush (2009) in their study explained the performance of 200 executives of Bharat Heavy Electrical Limited (BHEL) in the age range of 40 to 55 yrs on different levels of EI and provided a link between EI and effective work performance. Ismail, et al. (2009) conducted a study to examine the effect of EI in the relationship between OS and job performance. The outcome of the study clearly stated that relationship between OS and EI significantly correlated with job performance. Statistically, the results confirmed that the inclusion of EI in the analysis mediated the effect of OS on job performance. Won and Hur (2011) found that Emotional exhaustion was negatively related to job performance in terms of organizational commitment and job satisfaction and the mediating effect of emotional exhaustion was confirmed in the relationship between job performance and appraisals of emotions, optimism and social skills as factors in EI.

3.8 Different Jobs Require Different Levels of EI and Different EI Competencies

Some professions may require a great deal of EI while others may not (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Jobs that demand interaction with other people, or working in informal teams, or empathising with and understanding others require more EI (Singh, 2006). For example, leaders may need a higher degree of EI because of the very nature of their job, which requires them to interact with a large number of people, and empathize and understand their needs and desires. In contrast, jobs that can be executed individually, in structured or fixed ways like accountancy, finance, software development or scientific research may not require a great deal of EI.
In a research conducted by Singh (2003) after analyzing various professions on the basis of EI required, job requirements, job profile, stress experienced, and internal and external psychological factors, it was found that the hypothesis is true. On the basis of the results of the study, he categorized the 18 professions selected in the research into three clusters needing different levels of EI as follows:

Cluster I: Artist, Insurance, Advertisement and Social work: need extremely high level of EQ.

Cluster II: Teaching, Legal, Tourism, Politics, Business/Entrepreneurship & Police: need High level of EQ

Cluster III: Judiciary, Administration, Information Technology, Medicine, Banking, Engineering, Accountancy & Nursing: need average level of EQ

![Fig.3.1. Level of EI reported in different professions (Singh, 2003)](image)

A study was carried out by Mansi, 2002 (cited by Singh 2006) at University of Delhi in an apex financial institution on assistant managers (Group I) and managers (Group II). The data was collected from the various department of the organization. As it is a financial institution, assistant managers and managers both deal with economic transactions, accounts, finance & administrative work. Results revealed that 1) The EI of managers and assistant managers were statistically insignificant. 2) The means for assistant managers and managers on decision making variable were also found insignificant. 3) No significant difference was found between EI and decision making for the entire sample. These studies reveal that the link between EI and work performance is more significant in ‘people’ jobs. But many of the tough challenges in any job involve people rather than technology.
The EI competencies are *independent* (each contributes to job performance), *interdependent* (each draws to some extent on certain others with strong interactions), *generic* (different jobs make differing competence demands), *hierarchical* (the EI competencies build upon one another), *necessary but not sufficient* i.e. having an EI doesn't guarantee the competencies will be demonstrated (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 1999; Boyatzis & Ratti, 2009). For instance, Mayer et al. (2000b) pointed out that those high in achievement drive are often not conscientious about completing responsibilities and adhering to rules and that those high in self-confidence sometimes tend to take advantage of others. Thus, even with high EI a person may not have all emotional competencies and he may not require same kind of emotional competencies in different jobs/tasks (Seal, 2003; Singh, 2006). For example, success in sales requires the empathic ability to gauge a customer's mood and the interpersonal skills. Success in painting or professional tennis requires a more individual form of self-discipline and motivation. Teaching requires self-awareness, self-confidence, self-control, interpersonal skills, communication skills and empathy. Administrative job requires the emotional competency of trustworthiness, adaptability, conflict management, team work and collaboration.

### 3.9 Conclusion

Although emotional intelligence is equally useful in day today life, this chapter provides an overview of the role of emotion in workplace and the relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace variables like conflict management, stress management, decision making, job satisfaction and job performance. Systematic reviews of the role of emotions in stress process including the identification of major stressors in the workplace is also presented in this chapter. The concept of emotion in the workplace emerged primarily due to the work of Hochschild (1983) and her theory of emotional labour. Numerous theorists have advocated that emotions, conflicts, stress, decision making, job satisfaction and job performance are intertwined constructs and do not occur independently of one another. If the way an employee manages emotion at work is ignored, it is reasonable to assume that it will lead to physical, psychological and behavioural strain, irrational decisions, interpersonal conflicts and dissatisfaction culminating into reduced personal and organizational efficiency.
As the emotional system is much faster than the rational system no matter how intelligent a person is, his thinking and decision making abilities are greatly affected by his emotions and also by those of others. Thus the supremacy of EI becomes apparent in human functioning and decision making. Briner (1999) suggested that the construct of EI could provide opportunities for researchers to more thoroughly examine the role of emotions in the workplace. Effective handling of emotions in the workplace is important in terms of feelings of satisfaction and commitment. Findings suggests that having the ability to control strong emotions from affecting the way the employee behaves and interacts is the key to managing conflict at work. Perhaps it is due to this conscious control of strong emotions that employees become aware of when a situation is getting out of hand (by eliciting in them feelings such as anger, hostility, frustration) and they use these feelings as a warning to deal with those feelings and re-establish balance at the work. If organisations can begin to foster and encourage the use of EI in the workplace then the potential to increase employee wellbeing and job performance may be increased.