CHAPTER 2
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
OF THE STUDY
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This chapter is divided into four parts. Part I tries to explain what are emotions, why emotions are important in workplace, roots and history of emotional intelligence, and different models of emotional intelligence. It also discusses briefly the different instruments used for measuring EI and whether EI can be developed. Part II attempts to explain the concepts of stress and what is organisational role stress. Part III tries to give a brief theoretical framework on emotional intelligence – stress relationship and Part IV contains a review of literature on the topic.

Part I

2.1.1 Emotions

Any discussion on Emotional Intelligence (EI) has to begin with a clear understanding of the term emotion. An emotion is a psychological feeling, usually accompanied by a physiological reaction. Emotions are either pre-programmed (genetic) or learned and they can be manifested in various ways, such as by facial expressions, tone of voice, and actions that reflect the emotions. According to the functional theory of emotions of Oatley and Johnson-Laird (1987) there are five emotions basic to all human beings: Happiness, anxiety, anger, sadness and disgust.

According to Webster’s Dictionary emotion means a moving of the mind or soul; excitement of the feelings, whether pleasing or painful; disturbance or agitation of mind caused by a specific exciting cause and manifested by some sensible effect on the body. It is customary to look at emotion as a stimulus-response mechanism. An emotion thus is a patterned bodily reaction of either protection, destruction, reproduction, deprivation,
incorporation, rejection, exploration or orientation, or some combination of these, which is brought about by a stimulus (Robert Plutchik 1970).

According to Buck, D (1995) emotion is the process by which motivational potential is ‘realised’ or ‘read out’, when activated by challenging stimuli. In other words, emotion is ‘read out’ mechanism carrying information about motivational system.

Emotions are triggered by the arousal and appraisal of anything that impacts on values. Ortony, Clore and Collins (1988) view emotions as valenced reactions to stimuli, that is, as reactions tied to appraisals or evaluations of desirability. This is much the same as saying that emotional arousal arises from emotive stimuli being very positively or very negatively appraised against values.

Although the exact definition of emotion differs widely among researchers, there is a general agreement that emotion consists of three distinct aspects: physiological arousal, emotional expression, and emotional experience (Malalesta, C.Z & Izard, C.E, 1984).

According to Segal (2000), our Intelligence Quotient (IQ) may help us to understand and deal with the world at one level, but we need our emotions to understand and deal with ourselves and, in turn, others. Without an awareness of our emotions, and without the ability to recognise and value our feelings, we cannot get along well with other people.

2.1.2 Importance of emotions in workplace

Emotions play an important role in thinking and decision making process. Psychologists Gordon Bower (1981) and Isen, A (1987) have studied the interaction of mood and thinking for many years. They have found that emotions influence our thinking in different ways. Positive emotions tend to
open us to our environment for exploration and discovery. The broaden and build theory of Frederickson, B.L. (2001) suggests that positive emotions do more than make us feel good. Positive emotions expand our thinking, help generate new ideas, and encourage us to consider possibilities. Generally, pleasant or positive emotions motivate us to explore the environment, broaden our thinking, and enlarge our repertoire of behaviours. Positive emotions dare us to be different. It helps us see new connections and generate new and novel solutions to problems.

Negative emotions are also important, as they can enhance thinking in very useful and practical ways. Some of the effects of negative mood or emotion on thinking include providing a clear focus, allowing details to be examined more efficiently and motivating a more efficient search for errors. Negative emotions call for us to change what we are doing or thinking. They narrow our field of attention and perception, and they motivate us to act in very specific ways (Forgas, J.P, 2000). This means that whatever are the emotions, positive or negative, we have to acknowledge them as important and use them effectively.

The team members in organisations share moods and emotions, both good and bad, with better moods improving performance (Tolterdell, et al, 1998). The positive mood of the team leader at the workplace promotes workers’ effectiveness and fosters retention (George & Bettenhausen, 1990). How managers feel has much to do with how they influence people. This is so because emotions can be transferred from individual to individual intentionally and through this process a particular mood can be spread to a group of individuals. So the mood of the individuals holding important positions in organisations has an important role in influencing the group. Staw and Barsade (1993) proved that, how managers feel is a useful indicator and predictor of organisational performance. Barsade et.al (2000) has also demonstrated that
how a management team feels has a direct impact on a company's earnings. Barsade proved that a top management team that shares a common, emotional outlook that is positive would have 4 to 6 percent higher market-adjusted earnings per share than companies whose management team consists of members with diverse emotional outlooks (Barsade et al., 2000). Emotions and moods can assist our thinking, enhance our problem solving, and aid reasoning. According to Ekman, (2003) those who are able to harness moods and alter them are more likely to engage in creative thinking.

Organisations are notorious for their attempts at controlling emotions, especially the display and expression of emotions. In many service-oriented jobs, employees are explicitly taught to suppress their feelings and to put on a happy face; it is termed as "emotional labour". There are a few ways through which people try to display the emotions that their employer demands. One is through surface acting, when you feel one way but do not show the true, underlying feeling. In deep acting, you actually try to change your current feeling to match the desired feeling. Both surface acting as well as emotional labour has been linked to performance burnout and job turnover (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

At the organisational level, emotional experiencing refers to the quality of an organisation's efforts in identifying the variety of emotions aroused during radical change, accepting and internalising them, and acting on a deep level of understanding. These experiencing behaviours can involve organisational activities such as training and coaching all organisation members, and especially change agents, to experience the same or other appropriate emotion in response to other's feelings and to communicate to act on this internal experience (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Organisation members can be trained on the ability to accurately 'read' the subtle social cues and signals given by others in order to determine what emotions are being
expressed and understanding the perspective of the other individual (Schmidt, 1997). Emotions as intelligence and as a competence that could be acquired, was a powerful “zeitgeist” (Mayer and Salovey, 2000).

Managing emotions is the keystone of emotional intelligence. The first step in managing emotions is to be aware of them and accept them. Emotional awareness is the building block of successful emotion regulation, but we need more than simply to be aware of our own and other’s feelings. We require a bit of sophisticated processing of the emotions we experience (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). Successfully managing emotions means that both our thoughts and feelings guide our conduct. This ability allows us to integrate cognition and affect to generate effective solutions. It helps us recognise that emotions contain powerful and important information and that decision-making cannot succeed in the absence of emotion. In general, emotions at work influence judgment, job satisfaction, helping behaviour, creative problem solving, and decision-making (Brief and Weiss, 2002).

2.1.3 Roots and History of Emotional Intelligence
2.1.3.1 Roots of Emotional Intelligence

At the outset, it may be pointed out that the term Emotional Intelligence is not a new concept. Even though the term has received considerable attention recently, earlier psychologists and philosophers had already laid down the foundation. EI has its root in the concept of social intelligence first identified by Thorndike in 1920. Thorndike kept a special place for social intelligence away from other types of intelligence and defined it ‘as the ability to understand and manage men and women to act wisely in human relations’. When psychologists began to write and think about intelligence, they focused on cognitive aspects, such as memory and problem solving. However, there were researchers who recognised early on that the non-cognitive aspects were also important. For instance, Wechsler, D (1940)
defined intelligence as the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment. As early as in 1940 he referred to "non-intellective" as well as "intellective" elements, by which he meant affective, personal, and social factors.

Ellis (1962) had pointed out that human emotion and thinking are not separate processes, but they can significantly overlap and can never be viewed completely apart from each other. Tomkins (1962) wrote, while reason without affect would be important, affect without reason would be blind. According to McClelland (1973) conventional concept of IQ simply could not predict how well people would perform in the workplace, and hence there had to be something more to it, which were later developed by scholars as social and emotional competence.

Sternberg (1985) talked about triarchic theory of intelligence that consists of componential intelligence, experiential intelligence and contextual intelligence. This third component, contextual intelligence is very much overlapping with EI because it manages our ability to handle everyday life affairs in an efficient and practical way. In both the concepts the central idea is our capacity to make adjustment to various contexts with a proper selection of contexts so that we can improve our environment in a better way to meet our needs.

Gardner (1983) included intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences in his theory of multiple intelligences. According to Gardner, social intelligence, which is one among seven intelligence domains, comprises an individual’s interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Intrapersonal intelligence relates to one’s ability to deal with oneself and to symbolise complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings within the self. Interpersonal intelligence relates to one’s ability to deal with others and to notice and make distinctions among other individuals and, in particular, among
their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions. Interestingly these are the very same concepts, which are used in EI also.

Thus it is clear that even though the term EI got popularity of late, earlier psychologists and scholars had recognised most of the concepts of EI. All the same, most of the scientific studies in this area were done only after 1990 with the works of Mayer & Salovey.

2.1.3.2 History of Emotional Intelligence

In 1985 a graduate student at an alternative liberal arts college in USA wrote a doctoral dissertation, which included the term 'emotional intelligence' in the title. This seems to be the first academic use of the term emotional intelligence.

Then in 1990 the works of two American university professors, John Mayer and Peter Salovey, were published in two academic journal articles. Mayer (University of New Hampshire) and Salovey (Yale University) tried to develop a method for scientifically measuring the difference in people's ability in the area of emotions. They found that some people were better than others at things like identifying their own feelings, identifying the feelings of others, and solving problems involving emotional issues. They defined EI as the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. The first scientific study on EI is said to be of Mayer and Salovey. The concept of EI however, received popularity with publication of the best selling book, 'Emotional Intelligence', by Goleman, D (1995) and the cover article on Time magazine (Gibbs, 1995). This was followed by a few other popular books (Salerno, 1996; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Gottman, 1997; Segal, 1997 etc).
2.1.4 Models of Emotional Intelligence

To get clarity on the concept Emotional intelligence (EI) it is necessary to look at how it has been defined by different scholars. Different people define EI in different ways. While the definitions of EI are often varied for different theorists, they nevertheless tend to be complementary rather than contradictory (Ciarrochi, Chan, and Caputi, 2000). Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) have classified EI models under two categories. First, ability model that is proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997), according to which, EI is the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion and regulate emotion in the self and others. Second, the mixed model, proposed mainly by two proponents, namely Goleman (1995) and Bar-on (1997). It explains EI as the ability to recognise and use emotions in motivating oneself and others, to maintain better social relationships and the capacity of the individual to deal with the environmental demands and pressures.

2.1.4.1 Ability model of EI

According to Mayer and Salovey (1997) EI abilities can be divided into four branches. These branches can be arranged from more basic psychological processes to higher more psychologically integrated processes. For example, the lowest level branch concerns the (relatively) simple abilities of perceiving and expressing emotion. In contrast, the highest-level branch concerns the conscious, reflective regulation of emotion. They add that abilities that emerge relatively early in development are to the left of a given branch and later developing abilities are to the right. They also say that, people high in emotional intelligence are expected to progress more quickly through the abilities designated and to master more of them.
The Four branches of EI as per this model are:
1. Perceptions, Appraisal and Expression of Emotion
2. Emotional Facilitation of Thinking
3. Understanding and Analysing Emotions, Employing Emotional Knowledge
4. Reflective Regulation of Emotions to Promote Emotional and Intellectual Growth

**Perception, Appraisal and Expression of Emotion**
This branch of EI includes the following abilities:

**Figure 2.1.1**
The first branch of the ability model of EI

| Ability to identify emotion in one's physical states, feelings, and thoughts. | Ability to identify emotions in other people, designs, artwork, etc. through language, sound, appearance, and behaviour. | Ability to express emotions accurately, and to express needs related to those feelings. | Ability to discriminate between accurate and inaccurate, or honest Vs. dishonest expressions of feeling. |

**Emotional Facilitation of Thinking**
This branch of EI discusses how emotions are useful in thinking, decision-making etc.

**Figure 2.1.2**
The second branch of the ability model of EI

| Emotions are sufficiently vivid and available that they can be generated as aids to judgment and memory concerning feelings. | Emotions prioritise thinking by directing attention to important information. | Emotional mood swings change the individual's perspective from optimistic to pessimistic, encouraging consideration of multiple points of view. | Emotional states differentially encourage specific problem-solving approaches such as when happiness facilitates inductive reasoning and creativity. |
Understanding and Analysing Emotions; Employing Emotional Knowledge

This branch of EI includes the following abilities:

**Figure 2.1.3**

The third branch of the ability model of EI

| Ability to label emotions and recognise relations among the words and the emotions themselves, such as the relation between liking and loving. | Ability to interpret the meanings that emotions convey regarding relationships, such as that sadness often accompanies a loss. | Ability to understand complex feelings: simultaneous feelings of love and hate or blends such as awe as a combination of fear and surprise. | Ability to recognise likely transitions among emotions, such as the transition from anger to satisfaction or from anger to shame. |

Reflective Regulation of Emotion to Promote Emotional and Intellectual Growth.

This branch of EI includes the following abilities:

**Figure 2.1.4**

The fourth branch of the ability model of EI

| Ability to stay open to feelings, both those that are pleasant and those that are unpleasant. | Ability to reflectively engage or detach from an emotion depending upon its judged informativeness or utility. | Ability to reflectively monitor emotions in relation to oneself and others, such as recognising how clear, typical, influential or reasonable they are. | Ability to manage emotion in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones, without repressing or exaggerating information they may convey. |

2.1.4.2 Mixed models of EI

The five components of emotional intelligence at work as proposed by Goleman (1995) are as follows:
1. **Self-awareness.** It is the ability to recognise a feeling as it happens, to accurately perform self-assessments and have self-confidence. It is the keystone of emotional intelligence.

2. **Self-management or self-regulation.** It is the ability to keep disruptive emotions and impulses in check (self-control), maintain standards of honesty and integrity (trustworthiness), take responsibility for one's performance (conscientiousness), handle change (adaptability), and be comfortable with novel ideas and approaches (innovation).

3. **Motivation.** It is the emotional tendency guiding or facilitating the attainment of goals. It consists of achievement drive (meeting a standard of excellence), commitment (alignment of goals with the group or organisation), initiative (acting on opportunities), and optimism (persistence in reaching goals despite set backs).

4. **Empathy.** It is the understanding of others by being aware of their needs, perspectives, feelings, and concerns, and sensing the developmental needs of others.

5. **Social skills.** Social skills are fundamental to emotional intelligence. They include the ability to induce desirable responses in others by using effective diplomacy to persuade (influence); listen openly and send convincing messages (communicate); inspire and guide groups and individuals (leadership); nurture instrumental relationships (building bonds); work with others toward a shared goal (collaboration, cooperation); and create group synergy in pursuing collective goals.

Bar-On (1997) defined emotional intelligence as an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. He interprets findings from a self-report scale of emotional intelligence that he developed,
the EQ-i, as indicating that it is divisible into five broad categories. First is intrapersonal EQ, which is further divided into emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualisation, and independence. Second is interpersonal EQ, which is further divided into empathy, interpersonal relationship, and social responsibility. Third is adaptability EQ, which is again subdivided into problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility. Fourth is stress management EQ, which includes stress tolerance and impulse control. Fifth and last is general mood EQ, which is further divided into happiness and optimism (Bar-On EQ-i, 1997) (see Figure 2.1.5). These are further discussed in Chapter 3.
Figure 2.1.5
EQ-i, its composite scales and subscales developed based on
Bar-on EQ-i (1997)

- Emotional Self-Awareness
  - Assertiveness
  - Self-Regard
  - Self-Actualisation
  - Independence
  - Problem Solving
  - Reality Testing
  - Flexibility

- Total EQ
  - Intrapersonal EQ
    - Empathy
    - Interpersonal relationship
    - Social Responsibility
  - Interpersonal EQ
    - Interpersonal relationship
    - Social Responsibility
  - Adaptability EQ
    - Stress Tolerance
    - Impulse Control
  - Stress Management EQ
  - General Mood EQ
    - Happiness
    - Optimism
Cooper (1997), who also uses the mixed model approach, explains emotional intelligence using a four cornerstone model. According to him, Executive EQ begins with the cornerstone of emotional literacy, which builds a locus of self-confidence through emotional honesty, energy, emotional feedback, intuition, responsibility, and connection. The second cornerstone, emotional fitness, strengthens one’s authenticity, believability, and resilience, expanding one’s circle of trust and capacity for listening, managing conflict, and making the most of constructive discontent. In emotional depth, the third cornerstone, one explore ways to align his/her life and work with one’s unique potential and purpose, and to back this with integrity, commitment, and accountability, which, in turn, increase one’s influence without authority. From here it extends to the fourth cornerstone, emotional alchemy, through which one extend his/her creative instincts and capacity to flow with problems and pressures and to compete for the future by building one’s capacity to sense more readily – and access - the widest range of hidden solutions and untapped opportunities (see Figure 2.1.6).
The Four Cornerstone model of EQ developed by Cooper (1997)

First Cornerstone: Emotional Literacy
- Being real and true to yourself
- Builds awareness, inner guidance, respect, responsibility, and connection

Second Cornerstone: Emotional Fitness
- Being clear and getting along
- Builds authenticity, resilience, and trusting relationships

Third Cornerstone: Emotional Depth
- Reaching down and stepping up
- Builds core character and calls forth your potential, integrity, and purpose

Fourth Cornerstone: Emotional Alchemy
- Sensing opportunities and competing for the future
- Builds intuitive innovation, situational transformation, and fluid intelligence

Opportunity Sensing
Creating the Future
Emotional Honesty
Emotional Energy
Reflective Time-Shifting
Intuitive Flow
Influence without Authority
Applied Integrity
Commitment
Unique Potential & Purpose
Resilience & Renewal
Constructive Discontent

To sum up, the term EI has been conceptualised under two models: ability model and mixed model. The ability model defines EI as the ability to perceive, express, understand and recognise emotions in oneself and others and the mixed model defines EI as the abilities, skills, and competencies to understand and regulate emotions in oneself and others, motivate oneself and others, and be successful in handling the environmental demands. The ability models looks only into perception, expression, understanding and recognition of emotions whereas the mixed model also looks into how emotions are utilised in motivating oneself and others, and dealing with the environmental demands. Hence, the mixed model is more comprehensive than the ability model.

2.1.5 Measures of Emotional Intelligence

Only if it is possible to measure emotional intelligence can one get a clear picture of one’s level of EI and thereby he/she can try for developing it. Fortunately, like IQ emotional intelligence also can be measured. A number of measures have been developed recently to measure EI. Some of them are ability measures while others are self-report ones. The major ability measures are the Multi-Factor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) developed by Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, (1999) and Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Scale, MSCEIT V.1.1 and V.2.0. The MSCEIT was designed to resolve some of the problems associated with the MEIS (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000a). This ability-based MSCEIT scale consists of 141 items and measures how well people perform tasks and solve emotional problems. This instrument yields a single overall performance score in addition to the two area scores for Emotional Experience and Emotional Reasoning. Guided by the Four-Branch Model of emotional intelligence, these area scores are further elaborated to encompass the four central areas of emotional intelligence, viz., the ability to: (1) accurately perceive emotions; (2) use emotions to facilitate thinking, problem solving, and creativity; (3) understand emotions; and (4)
manage emotions for personal growth. MSCEIT youth version is also available (MSCEIT:YV). MSCEIT:YV is designed to assess emotional intelligence among pre-adolescents and adolescents.


Among the self-report measures, Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) (Bar-On, 2000) is the most popular. It consists of 133 items and is divided into five composite scales and fifteen sub-scales. The five composite scales are Intrapersonal EQ, Interpersonal EQ, Adaptability EQ, Stress Management EQ and General Mood EQ. It gives an overall EI score, five composite scale scores and fifteen sub-scale scores. This scale is being used for most of the studies as its validities and reliabilities are well proved (see Chapter III for more details).

Another self-report scale that has been promoted commercially is the EQ-Map (Orioli et al., 1999). It helps to discover many facets such as current environment, awareness, competencies, values/beliefs and life outcomes that make up a person’s EI and its relationship to his performance, creativity and success. It is made up of 20 scales measuring EI and the effect it has on one’s life, both personally and professionally. The factors in the EQ Map are related to one’s ability to stay healthy under pressure, develop trusting relationships, and creatively sense and pursue opportunities for future. Schuttle Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) (Schuttle, et al., 1998) is another self-report scale. It is a 33 item self-report inventory to measure Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) model of EI.
To sum up, the measures of EI can generally be classified into two: ability measures and self-report measures. The ability measure is developed based on the ability model of EI and the most widely used ability model is MSCEIT. As the ability measure is developed based on ability model of EI, it will not measure the capacity of individuals to motivate themselves and others, and handling of environmental demands. Hence, self-report measure is more reliable and among the self-report measures, Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) (Bar-On, 2000) is the most popular.

2.1.6 Development of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence attributes are viewed as essential to be successful in career and personal life, and happily for us, EI can be increased or developed, fostered and tapped by giving appropriate training (Brown, Richmond, and Rollin 2004). For example, a study reported that after supervisors in a manufacturing plant received training in emotional competencies such as how to listen better and help employees resolve problems on their own, time lost by accidents were reduced by 50 percent, formal grievances were reduced from an average of 15 per year to 3 per year, and the plant exceeded productivity goals (Pesuric & Byham, 1996). In another manufacturing plant where supervisors received similar training, production increased 17 percent. There was no such increase in production for a group of matched supervisors who were not trained (Porras & Anderson, 1981). At International Beverage, division leaders who honed their EI skills exceeded their performance targets by over 15%, while their peers who did not develop EI competencies fell short of their targets by 15% (McClelland, 1999). In fact it is now proved beyond doubt that EI can be increased or developed by providing appropriate training. The website http://www.xleaders.com/Examples.htm gives several instances about the increase in performance of individuals after receiving training in EI.
Sales Success

- At L’Oreal, sales increased by over $91,000 per salesperson trained in EI Competencies. This training also reduced turnover by 63%.
- American Express Financial Services saw such a jump in sales success as a result of a pilot EI training program after only three months, that it incorporated EI into its standard training programme.
- The sales staff of Hallmark Communities increased sales by 25% after EI development. (Bradbury, 2002)

Operational Success:

- At International Beverage, division leaders who honed their EI skills exceeded their performance targets by over 15%, while their peers who did not develop EI competencies fell short of their targets by 15% (McClelland, 1999).
- The members (from line supervisors to senior executives) of AT&T’s operations management team who had increased EI Competencies were 20% more productive than their average EI counterparts (91% of top performers were high in EI and only 26% of low performers were high in EI) (Bradbury, 2002).

Hence the productivity and overall effectiveness of individuals as well as organisations can be increased with the existing employees by giving them well framed training to increase their emotional competencies as EI is positively related to organisational and individual effectiveness.
Part II

This part tries to give conceptual clarity to the stress process and it also describes the concepts of Role and Organisational Role Stress.

2.2.1 Stress

Derived from Latin, the word stress was popularly used in the seventeenth century to mean hardship, strait, adversity or affliction. It was used in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries to denote force, pressure, strain or strong effort with reference to an object or person. In engineering and physics, the term implies an external force to an object or pressure exerted to distort and being resisted by the object on which it is exerted.

Stress has been conceptualised in the following ways:

(i) as an external force which is perceived as threatening;
(ii) as response to a situation demanding an individual to adapt to change, physically or psychologically;
(iii) as an interactional outcome of the external demand and internal resources; and
(iv) as a personal response to a certain variation in the environment (Srivastav, 1997).

McGarth (1976) explains that there is a potential for stress when an environmental situation is perceived as presenting a demand, which threatens to exceed the person's capacities and resources for meeting it. According to McLean (1979) stress is neither a stimulus, nor a response, nor an intervening variable, but rather, a collective term, which deals with any demands that tax
the system (physiological, psychological or social) and the response of that system to the taxing demands.

Ivancevich and Matterson (1980) define stress as an adaptive response, mediated by individual characteristics and/or psychological processes, which are a consequence of any external action, situation or event that places special physical and/or psychological demands upon a person. Stress is also described as an aversive or unpleasant emotional and physiological state resulting from adverse work experiences, particularly experiences that are uncertain or outside the employee’s control (Beehr & Bhagat, 1985; Hart & Cooper, 2001).

There is a general agreement amongst scholars that stress is fundamentally a psychological phenomenon with immediate and direct physiological manifestations as well as an experience of discomfort. There are actually two stress concepts, which are relevant, one in physiology (systemic stress) and the other in psychology (psychological stress). But all of them, whether physiologists or psychologists or management theorists have unanimously upheld stress as a major issue of modern times.

Pestonjee (1983) had attempted to diagrammatically present the nature and consequences of the stress phenomenon (see Figures 2.2.1 to 2.2.5). He identified three important sectors of life in which stress originates. These are;

1. job and the organisation,
2. the social sector, and
3. intrapsychic sector.
Figure 2.2.1

Effects of stressors or loads on Individual

- Minor Surface Changes
- Adaptation Attempt
  A. Extra Effort
  B. Excessive Concern About Task
  C. Worries
  D. Anxiety

* Stress Tolerance Limit

Source: D. M. Pestonjee, 1983.

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Figure 2.2.2

Effects of stressors or loads on Individual

- Organization–Individual
- Normal Interaction Pattern

* Stress Tolerance Limit

Source: D. M. Pestonjee, 1983.
Figure 2.2.3
Effects of stressors or loads on Individual

Major Surface Disfiguration
Frantic Coping
A. Extraordinary Effort
B. Worry and Anxiety About the Self
C. Onset of Physiological Symptoms
   (Psychosomatic/somato-physic)
D. Aggressive Tendencies (Extragression, Introgression, Impression)

Coping with Physiological Symptoms
Drugs • Palliatives • Analgesics • Tranquilisers, etc.

* Stress Tolerance Limit
Source: D. M. Pestonjee, 1983.

Figure 2.2.4
Effects of stressors or loads on Individual

Breakdowns and Cracks
Failure in Coping
A. Work-related Symptoms • Lack of Concentration •
   Affected Clarity of Thinking and
   Decision-making • Frequent Absenteeism •
   Affected Teamwork • Aggressive Behaviours
B. Physiological Symptoms • Headache/Migraine •
   Insomnia • Lack of Appetite • Digestive Disorders •
   Coronary Heart Disorders • Sexual Disorders
   Temperamental Changes

Source: D. M. Pestonjee, 1983.

Figure 2.2.5
Effects of stressors or loads on Individual

Disintegration or falling apart
Dissociative Personality
A. Somnambulism (Sleep Walking)
B. Multiple Personality
C. Feeling and Thought Disturbance
The Stage of Medical or Psychological Help
Source: D. M. Pestonjee, 1983.

environment (task, atmosphere, colleagues, compensations, etc.). The social
The first, viz; job and organisation, refers to the totality of the work environment (task, atmosphere, colleagues, compensations, etc.). The social sector refers to the social/cultural context of one’s life. It may include religion, caste, language, dress, food habits etc. The intrapsychic sector encompasses those things, which are intimate and personal like temperament, values, abilities and health. It is contended that stress can originate in any of these three sectors or in combinations thereof.

From the above explanations it is clear that stress is a psychological phenomenon usually accompanied by physiological responses when one encounters a situation, which he/she perceives as threatening and the available resources are not adequate to meet the demands. In other words we can say that stress arises out of the emotional response of the individual when an environmental situation is perceived as demanding and hence its intensity depends on the individual’s perception.

2.2.2 Role Stress

In order to understand role stress, we have to first see what role is. Human behaviour in an organisation is influenced or directed by several physical, social or psychological factors. One of the key concepts to understand the integration of the individual in an organisation is role. It is through the role that the individual interacts with, and gets interacted with the system (Pareek, 1976). Role has been defined in several ways. The word ‘role’ is used for any position a person holds in a system (organisation) as defined by the expectations various significant persons, including himself, have from that position (Pareek, 1976). According to Katz and Kahn (1966) an organisation can be defined as a system of roles. However, role itself is a system. From the point of view of an individual, two role systems are important, the system of various roles an individual occupies and performs, and the system of various
roles of which his role is a part, and in which his role is defined by other significant roles. The first is called as ‘role space’ and the second as ‘role set’.

**Role Space**

Each individual occupies and plays several roles. All these roles make up his role space. In the centre of the role space is the self. The dynamic interrelationship both between the self and the various roles an individual occupies, and amongst these roles can be termed as role space (Pareek, U, 1976).

**Role Set**

An individual’s role in an organisation is defined by the expectations of significant role senders in that organisation, including the individual himself. Role set is the pattern of relationship between the role being considered and other roles (Pareek, U, 1976).

**Role Stress**

Pareek’s (1976) definition of role indicates that there are inherent problems in the performance of a role and therefore, stress is inevitable. The concept of role and the related concepts of role space and role set have built-in potential for conflict and stress. So the stress experienced by an individual while performing a role when the role expectations exceed the incumbent’s resources can be termed as role stress and organisational role stress is the stress experienced by an individual while performing a role in an organisation. Most of the earlier studies on role stress have used role ambiguity and role conflict to operationalise stress.

Pareek (1983) who pioneered work on role stress in India has identified ten types of organisational role stressors. These are: Inter role distance, Role stagnation, Role expectation conflict, Role erosion, Role
overload, Role isolation, Personal inadequacy, Self-role distance, Role ambiguity, and Resource Inadequacy (see Chapter 3 for detailed discussion). Hence total organisational role stress experienced by individuals working in organisations is measured by considering these ten stressors.

Part III

2.3 Theoretical Framework on EI - Stress relationship

The twentieth century has been variously called the age of stress and anxiety, and more recently, coping (Endler, 1996). Coping refers to a person’s efforts to manage or control a situation viewed as stressful, or as overtaxing or challenging one’s personal coping resources (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). As mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, individual difference variables play an important role in the coping strategies applied by individuals in the stress coping process. Research suggests that the existence of stress may be less important to an individual’s well being than how the individual appraises and copes with stress (Aldwin and Revenson, 1987).

Some of the research on job stress has focused on the importance of objective stressors (Bischoff and Terborg, 1995, Melin, Lundberg et al., 1999, Ganster and Duffy, 1995). Objective stressors are the objects or factors, which contribute to stress and these, have been conceptualised as not being influenced by an individual’s cognitive or emotional process (Frese and Zapf, 1988). Although the examination of objective work stressors may be useful to broadly predict strain, the focus is too limiting. In order to truly understand the components of stress process, the primary focus should be on how individuals interpret objective conditions rather than simply relating stressors to strains.

The theoretical framework of this study is mainly based on the transactional model of stress propounded by Lazarus & Folkman (1984), the
attributional model of stress by Weiner (1985), the transactional attributional model of stress and the theoretical support given by various theorists to the idea that effective coping is central to emotional intelligence. The following section examines how different models of stress attempt to explain the stress phenomenon and also tries to establish the linkage between emotional intelligence and the stress coping process. The various models examined here are the following:

2.3.1 Transactional model of Stress

A fundamental proposition of the transactional model of stress (Lazarus, 1968, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) is that it is the interaction of the person and environment that creates a felt stress for the individual. Stress is not a property of the person, or of the environment, but arises when there is conjunction between a particular kind of environment and a particular kind of person that leads to a threat appraisal (Lazarus, 1991). What it means is that the intensity of stress depends on how the individual appraises the situation as threatening. Two appraisals, primary and secondary, are central to Lazarus’ cognitive appraisal theory of stress (1982, 1991). An individual’s primary appraisals concerns whether or not there is any personal stake in the encounter and it has been referred to as the motivational relevance of an encounter. The primary appraisal process is an evaluation as to the significance of an encounter or transaction for a specific individual. In this context, Lazarus and his colleagues have suggested three types of evaluations. First, an irrelevant encounter is one that has no personal significance for the individual and is ignored. Second, a benign-positive encounter is one that is considered beneficial and/or desirable. Third, a stressful encounter is one that is considered to be harmful, threatening, or challenging (Lazarus, 1994). If individuals determine that they have a stake in the encounter, the transactional model proposes that they will engage in a secondary appraisal in order to
change the conditions perceived to be undesirable. Secondary appraisal focuses on the available coping options for altering the perceived harm, threat, or challenge so that a more positive environment is created. The transactional model depicts coping as a choice that is affected by the primary and secondary appraisals. Coping is expected to be consistent with a determination of whether anything can be done to change the situation (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985), i.e., the individual's choice of a coping mechanism is determined by his perception of personal control over the stressful situation. Lazarus (1993) included a third cognitive appraisal, which he labelled 'reappraisal'. Reappraisal represents the feedback process wherein changes in both primary and secondary appraisals are brought about via individual reactions/coping and the environmental counter reactions. These reactions and counter-reactions are appraised by the individual leading to reappraisals of the person-environment relationship. A significant amount of research (e.g., Lazarus, 1966, 1968, Lazarus and Folkman, 1984, 1987) has supported the transactional model by demonstrating that the way people evaluate what is happening with respect to their well-being and the way they cope with it influence whether psychological stress will result, and its intensity (Lazarus, 1993).

2.3.2 Attributional model of stress

Attribution theorists propose that the result of an action depends on two sets of conditions, namely, factors within the person and factors within the environment (Heider, 1958). Weiner (1985) proposed a theory of motivation and emotion in which causal ascriptions play a key role. In his discussion, the perceived causes of success and failure are analysed along three dimensions: locus (whether or not the cause of the outcome is perceived to be located within the individual such as ability or effort, or outside the individual such as the task or luck), stability (the individual's perception that the cause will continue over time), and controllability (whether a cause is under the volitional control of an
individual. In the attributional model of stress (Weiner, 1985), locus of causality and controllability dimensions are considered as attributions regarding the sources of stress. The controllability dimension described by Weiner appears to be analogous to situational perceptions of control (Folkman, 1984) and has been found to be a significant influence on interpersonal emotions and behaviour (Betancourt and Blair, 1992).

2.3.3 Transactional attributional model of stress

Transactional attributional model is proposed by incorporating Weiner’s attributional model into Lazarus’s transactional model of stress process. The model extends Lazarus’ transactional model by specifically considering the role of causal attributions and related emotions (see figure 2.3.1). Locus of causality and controllability dimensions of attribution model are included in the transactional attribution model as attributions regarding the sources of the stress.
Figure 2.3.1
Transactional attributional model of stress

The various terms used in the transactional attribution model are explained in detail in the following paragraphs:

**Primary appraisals and causal attributions**

Because of different goals and beliefs, because there is often too much to attend to, and because the stimulus array is often ambiguous, people are selective both in what they pay attention to and in what their appraisals take into account (Lazarus, 1993). Therefore, not all potential stressors actually cause stress for an individual, and what one individual appraises as a stressful situation may not be for another. For example, the assignment of additional tasks to an individual becomes a source of stress (e.g., role overload) only when he perceives that he has a stake in the outcome of his performance (motivational relevance) and the tasks are creating demands that exceed his capabilities (motivational incongruence) (Smith and Lazarus, 1990). Individuals may perceive their stress as an outcome arising from either a lack of effort or a lack of ability (both internal attributions). At the same time other individuals may perceive the stressor as being imposed upon them by external sources: the manager, the organisation, or the time frame. The causes of their stress, therefore, might be the unreasonable demands of others or the difficulty of the task. The different attributions made by different individuals for falling behind will likely to lead to different emotional responses (Weiner, 1985).

**Causal dimensions and emotions**

An individual’s determination of the source of his felt stress includes an assessment of the causal dimensions. Each dimension is specifically related to a set of emotions. These emotions arise from how an event is construed (Weiner, 1985). An emotion is aroused not just by an environmental demand, constraint, or resource but by their juxtaposition with
an individual's motives and beliefs (Lazarus, 1993) that summarises a person's relationship to the environment in terms of a particular type of harm or benefit (Smith and Lazarus, 1990).

**Controllability**

In the transactional attributional model an individual's affective responses are generated from the different attributed causes of stress. Controllability is a critical aspect of these attributions. For example, the perception of organisational controllability (an external attribution) over the situation may significantly influence the individual's reaction or the intensity of his reaction to the stressor.

**Secondary appraisals and coping behaviours**

Secondary appraisals are evaluative process in which the individual considers available coping options, the likelihood that a given activity will accomplish the desired outcome, whether one is capable of performing a particular coping response, and the consequence of using a particular strategy. The coping process includes the constantly changing cognitive and behavioural attempts a person makes to manage specific internal and external demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding his personal resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Studies have found that coping efforts are strongly related to an individual's cognitive appraisal of a situation (Peacock, Wong & Reker, 1993).

From the above models of stress it is seen that individual variables such as appraisals, cognitions, attributions and emotions are to be considered to understand the complex stress process.

Thus it is clear that emotions are integral to the coping process throughout a stressful encounter as an outcome of coping, as a response to the situation and as a result of reappraisal of the status of the encounter. If the
encounter has a successful resolution, positive emotions will predominate; if
the resolution is unclear or unfavourable, negative emotions will predominate.
Whatever may be the outcome, the nexus between emotions and stress coping
process is loud and clear. At the same time, regulation of emotions is important
in the stress coping process.

Emotion regulation is the process by which individuals influence
which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and
express these emotions. Emotion regulatory process may be automatic or
controlled, conscious or unconscious, and may have their effects at one or
more points in emotion generative process (Gross, 1998). To the extent that
coping is aimed at ameliorating negative emotions or promoting positive
emotions, it falls under the rubric of emotion regulation. Eisenberg et.al.
(1997) classify both coping and emotion regulation under the larger category
of self-regulation and note that coping involves the regulatory process that
occur in stressful contexts. Hence it can be concluded that emotion regulation
has an important role in the stress coping process and as emotion regulation is
an important aspect of emotional intelligence, emotionally intelligent
individuals will be better able to cope with the stressful situations.

2.3.4 Stress coping techniques

In the stress process, generally people are engaged in two types of
coping processes: Problem-focused and emotion-focused coping.

2.3.4.1 Problem-focused coping

Problem-focused coping has been shown to be used more often in
situations where an individual’s causal analysis suggests that something can be
done to alter a negative situation (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980, 1985; Folkman et
al., 1986) i.e., one perceives some control over the situation. Seeking
A study on stress – coping styles based on the five dimensions of coping; Appraisal – focused, Emotion – focused, Problem – focused, Secondary – coping and Collective – coping, conducted by Singh and Pandey (1985) on 45 male university students revealed that the use of coping dimensions varied with the nature of problem of an individual.

It is thus seen that different types of coping strategies may be adopted by individuals in stressful encounters and more than one coping style may be applied at the same time but one among them predominates. In situations where the stressors cannot be changed, emotion focused coping is found to be more appropriate. It is also a fact that emotion regulation is important in emotion focused coping, which is an important aspect of emotional intelligence. Hence individuals with high score on emotional intelligence would be able to apply emotion-focused coping effectively in stressful situations.

2.3.5 Emotional intelligence and effective coping

Now we can see how various theories support the concept that effective coping is central to emotional intelligence. Goleman (1995) mentioned that keeping our distressing emotions in check is the key to emotional well-being. He also says that emotional intelligence includes abilities of self-awareness, impulse control and delaying gratification, and handling stress and anxiety. Drawing on the emerging evidence from neuroscience, the stress literature and his own research, Slaski (2002) suggests that it would be more fruitful in tackling stress issues by taking into account the importance of emotions. He also points out that treating stress and emotion as if they were separate fields is absurd, and he went on to add that where there is stress, there are also emotions.
According to Bar-On (1997), EI is an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. He included stress management and adaptability as two major components of EI. Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler & Mayer (1999) claim that more emotionally intelligent individuals cope more successfully, because they accurately perceive and appraise their emotional states, know how and when to express their feelings, and can effectively regulate their mood states. Matthew & Zeidner (2001) suggest that successful coping with stressful encounters is central to emotional intelligence.

From the above discussion it is clear that emotions play an important role in the stress coping process and emotionally intelligent people are therefore able to handle the stressful demands of situations effectively.

To sum up, stress arises out of the transaction between people and their environment. During this transaction different individuals adopt different methods for successful coping, depending on the perception of their available resources and how they interpret the situation. It is also seen that regulation of emotions, which is an important aspect of emotional intelligence, is important in the stress coping process. It is also seen that there is enough theoretical support for emotional intelligence-stress relationship.

Even though there is strong theoretical support for EI – Stress relationship, only very few studies have been done to establish this relationship. Hence there is a need for more scientific studies in this area. A review of available literature shows that although some international studies have been done to establish the relationship between EI and stress, there is hardly any study in India to establish the relationship between EI and Stress. Hence this study is an attempt to empirically examine the relationship between
emotional intelligence and organisational role stress among managers in selected industrial organisations in Kerala.

Part IV

2.4 Review of Literature

This part discusses major studies conducted in India and abroad on Emotional Intelligence, Organisational Role Stress and on EI - Stress relationship.

2.4.1 Studies on Emotional Intelligence

From the extensive survey of literature it is observed that emotional intelligence and its related dimensions are very important in business and personal life. Hence increasingly, leading organisations have begun to invest in this somewhat untapped resource. Emotional intelligence influences how one handles oneself, other people, clients, customers and colleagues and it is related to leadership effectiveness, performance, job satisfaction, employee turnover and career success. Even though a large number of studies are done on emotional intelligence, only very few studies are done in India. Hence in the following section, an attempt is made to examine the important studies done abroad and in India on EI, ORS and EI-stress relationship.

2.4.1.1 Emotional Intelligence and Leadership effectiveness

There is a very strong positive correlation between emotional intelligence of leaders and their performance in organisations. The more the leader exhibits competencies like initiative, nurturing others, team leadership, self-confidence, drives to achieve and empathy, the more is the performance.
According to Bunker (1997), in the present complex organisational environment of stress and strain, it is extremely important that the leaders first be aware of and manage their own feelings of anxiety and uncertainty.

Goleman (1998) claimed that IQ and technical skills are important but emotional intelligence is the sine qua non of leadership. Cooper and Sawaf (1998) say that in positions of leadership EQ is absolutely crucial.

Goleman’s research tracking over 160 high performing individuals in a variety of industries revealed that emotional intelligence was two times as important in contributing to excellence than intellect and expertise alone. Also, research based on hundreds of top executives from some of world's largest corporations showed that close to 90% of leadership success is attributable to EQ (Goleman, 1998). Barling (2000) who examined the relationship between the transformational leadership paradigm and EI suggested that EI predisposes leaders to use transformational behaviours. A research finding, based on data from 500 competence models, inferred that EI has much more impact on leadership performance than intellect. It concluded that emotional intelligence contributes to 80 to 90 percent of the competencies that distinguish outstanding leaders from average leaders – and sometimes more (Goleman et al., 2002).

Cavallo and Brienza (2002) had conducted a detailed study to find out if there is any relationship between emotional competence and leadership excellence, on 358 managers across the Johnson & Johnson Consumer Companies (JJCC) globally, showed that the high performing managers have significantly more emotional competence than other managers. According to Johnson (2002), the emotional dimensions of leadership is first or primal because (i) leaders throughout history have served as emotional guides, and (ii) creating positive emotions remains the most important responsibility of
leaders. This study is consistent with the conclusions reached by McClelland (1998) in a study of leaders in 30 different organisations that found the most powerful leadership differentiators were self-confidence, achievement drive, developing others, adaptability, influence and leadership. In other words, emotional intelligence skills are essential, not optional, for the leaders in the new millennium.

A study conducted in India by Kailash B.L.S & Bharamanaikar (2004) among 291 Indian army officers found a very strong relationship between EI and transformational leadership. It also showed significant relationship between EI and career success, and EI and job satisfaction.

**Intelligent Quotient (IQ) and Leadership**

A number of earlier studies have proved that traditional cognitive intelligence (IQ) is related to leadership (Schmidt and Hunter 1998, Locke, 1991, Fiedler and Garcia’s, 1987). However, Fiedler’s cognitive theory (1986) suggests that when leaders are under a great deal of stress, their intellectual abilities will be diverted from the task. When under stress, intelligent leaders’ attentional resources that could otherwise be devoted to planning, problem solving, and creative judgment are instead focused on worries over possible failure, crisis of self-efficacy, and evaluation anxiety. As the cognitive resource theory proposes, intelligence will be more strongly related to leadership when leaders are experiencing low levels of stress. In the present complex business environment it is not practical to avoid stressors prevalent in the environment. Hence an emotionally more intelligent individual will able to cope with the stressful situations more effectively. In this sense emotional intelligence is more important than IQ for a leader for better performance.
2.4.1.2 Emotional Intelligence and Behaviour

Emotional Intelligence and its related constructs determine how people deal with peers, superiors, and clients in workplace. Some of the studies to substantiate these are discussed below:

Goleman (1998) found that managers who do not develop their emotional intelligence have difficulty in building good relationships with peers, subordinates, superiors and clients. Some of the characteristics of the people with high score on EQ, as identified by Hein (1996), encompass clarity in thoughts and expressions, high optimism, ability to read non-verbal communication, emotional resilience and moral autonomy, and high level of self-motivation. They balance their feelings with reason, logic and reality. In contrast, people with lower EQ blame others for their feelings. They also do not articulate their feelings and are prone more to criticise and judge others.

Some empirical studies have found the usefulness of EI as an important construct related to positive outcomes such as prosocial behaviour, parental warmth, and positive family and peer relations (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999; Rice, 1999). Gonsalez-Molina & Coffman (2002) found that applying EI principles could result in 70 percent more loyal customers and 40 percent more profits. Studies also showed that lower EI is related to negative outcomes, including illegal drug and alcohol use, deviant behaviour, and poor relations with friends (Brackette, Mayer & Warner, 2003).

The above studies show that EI and related dimensions are very important in how individuals relate with other people in organisations as well as in personal life.
2.4.1.3 Emotional Intelligence and Performance

Various studies have shown that IQ by itself is not a very good predictor of job performance. IQ and technical skills are essential to get an entry into an organisation and to perform one’s duties, but emotional competencies are rated as a must for better or outstanding performance. Some of the studies to prove this link are quoted here:

Hunter & Hunter (1984) estimated that at best IQ accounts for about 25 percent of the variance in performance. Another good example on the limits of IQ as a predictor is the Sommerville study, a 40-year longitudinal investigation of 450 boys who grew up in Sommerville, Massachusetts. Two-thirds of the boys were from welfare families, and one-third had IQs below 90. However, IQ had little relation to how well they did at work or in the rest of their lives. What made the biggest difference were childhood abilities such as being able to handle frustration, control emotions, and get along with other people (Cherniss, 2000).

Sternberg (1996) has pointed out that studies vary and that 10 percent may be a more realistic estimate for the importance of IQ in performance of individuals. In some studies, IQ accounts for as little as 4 percent of the variance. In fact there are a large number of studies, which support this close linkage between EI and performance. An analysis of job competencies at 286 organisations worldwide indicated that eighteen of the twenty-one competencies in their generic model for distinguishing superior from average performers were EI based (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Similarly a 500-company study by Goleman (1998) (including IBM, PepsiCo and British Airways) found that EI competencies explained more than 80% of executive job performance. It also found that EI skills had more impact on job performance than IQ and experience combined. In a national insurance
company, insurance sales agents who were weak in emotional competencies such as self-confidence, initiative, and empathy were very poor in their performance compared with those who were very strong in emotional competencies (Hay/McBer Research and Innovation Group, 1997). Competency research in over 200 companies and organisations worldwide suggests that about one-third of this difference is due to technical skill and cognitive ability while two-thirds is due to emotional competence (Goleman, 1998).

In research at Met Life, Seligman and his colleagues found that new salesmen who were optimists sold 37 percent more insurance in their first two years than did pessimists (Schulman, 1995). What this implies is that optimism, which is an important aspect of EI, contributes to superior performance.

Sinha & Jain (2004) who examined the relationship between EI and some organisationally relevant variables among 250 middle-level male executives of two-wheeler automobile manufacturing organisations in India showed that the dimensions of EI were meaningfully related with personal effectiveness, organisational commitment, reputational effectiveness, general health, trust, employee turnover, organisational effectiveness and organisational productivity.

The above studies have shown that emotional intelligence and its related dimensions are positively related to performance.

2.4.1.4 Emotional Intelligence and career success

The Multiple Intelligences Theory (Gardner, 1983) and the Emotional Intelligence Theory (Bar-On, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Goleman, 1995) suggest that career success is associated with noncognitive interpersonal and intrapersonal skills.
EI helps to predict success because it reflects how a person applies knowledge to the immediate situation. New behavioural research shows that IQ provides, at best, a narrow view of human intelligence. Factors such as self-awareness, impulse control, persistence, zeal, self-motivation, empathy, and social deftness contribute greatly to an individual's success. These qualities collectively referred to as 'emotional intelligence', often determine if people excel in life, relationships, and the workplace. Some of the studies to establish the relationship between emotional intelligence and career success are discussed below:

Feist & Barron (1996) conducted a study among 80 PhDs in science who underwent a battery of personality tests, IQ tests, and interviews in the 1950s when they were graduate students at Berkeley. Forty years later, when they were in their early seventies, they were tracked down and estimates were made of their success based on resumes, evaluations by experts in their own fields, and sources like American Men and Women of Science. It turned out that social and emotional abilities were four times more important than IQ in determining professional success and prestige.

Empathy is a particularly important aspect of emotional intelligence and researchers have known for years that it contributes to occupational success. At the individual level, empathy represents a central attribute of emotional intelligence. It is a person’s ability to understand someone else’s feelings and to re-experience them. Empathy determines the success of social support and is a motivator for altruistic behaviour (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Rosenthal and his colleagues at Harvard discovered over two decades ago that people who were best at identifying others’ emotions were more successful in their work as well as in their social lives (Rosenthal, 1977). In another study among retail sales, buyers found that apparel sales representatives were valued primarily for their empathy. The buyers reported that they wanted
representatives who could listen well and really understand what they wanted and what their concerns were (Pilling & Eroglu, 1994).

2.4.1.5 Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction

Emotions and emotional intelligence seem to have link with job satisfaction. Some of the studies to establish this link are discussed below:

Cote & Morgan (2002) found that amplification of positive emotions increased job satisfaction while suppression of unpleasant emotions decreased job satisfaction. A compilation of studies called "The Business Case for Emotional Intelligence" by Rutgers University researcher Cary Cherniss found repeated evidence that possession of such emotional competencies as cooperation, accurate self-assessment, optimism, and ability to handle stress led to greater productivity, job satisfaction or worker retention (http://www.eiconsortium.org/research/business_case_for_ei.htm). Similarly, Fisher (2000) also found strong association between emotions and moods with job satisfaction.

The study by Sinha and Jain (2004), referred to earlier, have also found that ‘Controlled Problem Solving’ is the most important predictor variable of job satisfaction. Controlled Problem Solving refers to using one’s cognitive capacities for productive purpose by keeping oneself cool and calm in adverse conditions, which involves self-regulation, an important aspect of emotional intelligence. Thus it is seen that emotional intelligence and its related dimensions are related to job satisfaction.

Even though it is said that emotional skills are very important, it is meaningless to suggest that cognitive ability is irrelevant for success. One needs a relatively high level of cognitive ability to get admitted to a reputed school or college. Once admitted, however, what matters most in comparing with the peers has less to do with IQ differences and more to do with social
and emotional factors. To put it in another way, to become a scientist, we need a higher level of IQ, but then it is more important to be able to persist in the face of difficulty and to get along well with colleagues and subordinates than it is to have an extra 10 or 15 points of IQ. The same is true in many other occupations. We also should keep in mind that cognitive and non-cognitive abilities are very much related. There is enough research support suggesting that emotional and social skills actually help improve cognitive functioning. For instance, in the famous ‘marshmallow studies’ at Stanford University, four year olds were asked to stay in a room alone with a marshmallow and wait for a researcher to return. They were told that if they could wait until the researcher came back before eating the marshmallow, they could have two. Ten years later the researchers tracked down the kids who participated in the study. They found that the kids who were able to resist temptation had a total SAT score that was 210 points higher than those kids who were unable to wait (Shoda, Mischel & Peake, 1990).

To sum up, it is seen that emotional intelligence and its related dimensions are positively related to most of the organisationally relevant variables. It is also very much important in personal and career success of individuals.

2.4.2 Studies on Organisational Role Stress

Most of the studies on organisational or occupational stress in general and organisational role stress in particular are done to examine the relationship between stress and organisationally relevant outcomes viz., job satisfaction, performance, employee turnover, etc. As already mentioned in Chapter 1, stress inversely affects the health of the employees and most of the organisationally important outcomes. Hence the costs of stress to organisations are very high either by way of affecting health of employees or their
performance. Some of the studies, which examined how organisational role stress affects individuals as well as organisations, are cited below:

2.4.2.1 Relationship between Organisational Role Stress and Job Satisfaction

Most of the international studies on occupational stress and organisational role stress have used role ambiguity and role conflict to operationalise stress. Majority of such studies on stress are done to examine the relationship between stress and job satisfaction. These studies generally indicate that job stress and satisfaction are inversely related (e.g., Miles & Petty, 1975; Hollon & Chesser, 1976). Studies of Hendtix et.al (1985) and Kemery et.al (1985) have shown the indirect effect of stress on turnover intentions through job satisfaction.

Studies have also examined individual, group and organisational level variables that might moderate the relationship between organisational stress and job satisfaction. Some of them are given below:

Individual level variables:

Bhagat & Allie (1989) who examined the moderating effect of sense of competence on the stress-satisfaction relationship of 276 elementary school teachers found that when organisational stress was high, individuals with a high sense of competence reported greater satisfaction with work and co-workers and reduced feelings of depersonalisation, compared to those with lower sense of competence. In addition to sense of competence, the moderating effect of perceived control on the stress-satisfaction relationship has been examined in a number of studies. For example, Tetrick and LaRocco (1987) employed a sample of 206 physicians, dentists, and nurses from a naval hospital to investigate this issue. They examined the role of the ability to
understand why and how organisational events happen, to predict the frequency, timing and duration of such events, and to control important outcomes by influencing events and significant others in the work environment. They found that such perceived control could indeed moderate the stress-satisfaction relationship.

**Group level variables:**

Social support has been extensively researched by examining the interaction of social support with organisational stress on various valued outcomes. This interaction is known as the "buffering effect." The buffering effect suggests that the relationship between stress and outcomes is dependent upon the amount of social support available. Studies of the buffering effect of social support have focused on the relationship between stress and outcomes including stress-satisfaction relationship (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

**Organisational level variables**

Studies have shown that organisational interventions can moderate stress-satisfaction relationships. For example, Abdel-Halim (1981) who studied the effect of technology on the stress-satisfaction relationship found that the technology used in organisations affected the experienced role stress and stress-satisfaction relationship.

Some of the Indian studies, which have established the relationship between organisational role stress and Job satisfaction, are discussed below:

Hinger, Jain & Chaudhary (1997) had conducted a study among 100 officers from Geological Survey of India. The respondents belonged to three different levels: higher (20), middle (30) and junior (50). The results of the study showed that role stress and job satisfaction are negatively correlated
irrespective of their level. In another study by Pestonjee & Singh (1987) among 70 EDP managers and 70 system analysts from public and private sectors showed that out of 77 coefficient of correlation between role stress and job satisfaction variables, 51 were reported to be negative and statically significant. Chaudhary (1990) who conducted a study among 100 bank officers of two age groups (below 35 and above 35) proved that the overall indices of role stress and job satisfaction have been found to be negatively correlated in higher as well as lower age group of bank officers. Another study by Chandraiah, Agrawal, Marimuthu & Manoharan (2000) among 105 industrial managers showed that managers with higher occupational stress experience less job satisfaction.

2.4.2.2 Relationship between Organisational Role Stress and Job Performance

Generally an inverted U-shaped relationship exists between stress and performance. At low levels of stress, individuals are not activated or aroused enough for high performance. Similarly, at high levels of stress, individuals expend their energy for coping with stresses rather than directing efforts towards enhancement of performance. Thus, performance is high when a moderate amount of stress is present. Under conditions of moderate stress, individuals are not only activated to perform, but devote substantial energy towards performance enhancement rather than coping with stresses.

Potter and Fielder (1981) who conducted a study among 102 Coast Guard Regional Headquarter employees found that when stress with the supervisor was high, performance was consistently low.

Individual differences also influence the stress-performance relationship. Baker et.al (1966) in a study among 80 career army officers found that some individuals were stimulated by stress and were high performers,
whereas, other individuals showed behavioural disorganisation and a reduction in effectiveness. Hence they suggested that a person's readiness to react to stress with negative or positive emotion due to their task involvement is a critical cause of performance. Jamal (1984) and Jamal (1985) found evidence that commitment moderates the stress-performance relationship.

Dwivedi (1985) who conducted a study among Public sector and Private sector managers in India found that all organisational role stress elements have negative impact on organisational performance. Srivastav (1983) conducted a study among 60 skilled workers to explore the stress-performance relationship. The findings of the study established that employees who maintained a constantly high production level experienced less role stress as compared to employees with low production capacity.

2.4.2.3 Relationship Between Organisational Role Stress and Other Organisationally Valued Outcomes

Organisational stress has been proved to negatively affect the health of the employees and most of the organisationally valued outcomes. In general, it has been found that stress has a negative relationship with psychological well-being (Tetick & LaRocco, 1987), psychosomatic symptoms (Gavin & Axelrod, 1977), mental health (Gavin, 1975), attitudes toward role senders (Miles, 1975), commitment (Erickson et.al, 1972), job threat and anxiety (Tosi, 1971), non-work satisfaction (Lance & Richardson, 1988) and job involvement (Hollon & Chessser, 1976). Organisational stress is positively related to turnover, turnover intentions, absenteeism (e.g., Jamal, 1984; Kemery et.al., 1985), and tension (Erickson et al., 1972; Miles & Petty, 1975).

Srivastav (1991) who conducted a study among 300 LIC supervisors in India to examine the relationship between role stress and mental
health showed significant positive correlation of various dimensions of role stress with the symptoms of mental ill health.

A number of other moderators have also been examined by various researchers with respect to stress-strain relationships. For example, organisational and professional commitment has been found to moderate the relationship between stress and anticipated turnover, absenteeism and tardiness (Jamal, 1984). Self-competence moderated the relationship between stress and emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation (Bhagat & Allie, 1989). Self-consciousness moderated the relationship between stress and well-being and somatic symptoms (Frone & McFarlin, 1989). Type A Behaviour and tolerance for ambiguity moderated the relationship between stress-psychological strain whereas locus of control moderated the stress-tension relationship (Keenan & McBain, 1979).

Type A personality was found to have a positive relationship with total role stress and approach style of coping (Mittal, 1992). Banerjee and Gupta (1996) studied the moderating effect of social support on occupational stress-strain relationship among 200 male and female occupants from four different occupations, viz., police officers, advocates, doctors and clerks. The results of the study indicated that social support could moderate the relationship between occupational stress and strain.

2.4.3 Studies on EI – Stress relationship

Even though a large number of studies have been done on emotional intelligence to examine its effect on organisationally important variables like leadership effectiveness, performance, career success, job satisfaction etc., only very few studies have been done to examine EI – stress relationship and from the review of literature no study is seen done in India to
examine the relationship between EI and Stress. Some of the studies, which have been done on EI – stress relationship are discussed below:

According to Ciarrochi et al., (2002) emotional intelligence has been reported to moderate the relationship between stress and mental health in university students. The study reported that high EI students are less likely to suffer psychological morbidity. EI measures emotion perception (EP) and emotion management (EM). High scorers on EP may perceive more stress whereas high scorers on EM perceive less stress.

In a recent study by Pau, A., Croucher, R., Muirhead, V & Sohanpal, R among dental undergraduates attending a UK dental school to investigate the emotional intelligence, perceived stress and coping strategies showed that high EI students were less likely to perceive stress. The study has shown that experiences of stress have emotional, social and behavioural components (http://www.ltsn-01.ac.uk/resources/features/pau_report).

Another study by Clarke (2000), who conducted the study in UK among 100 police officers, 18 female and 82 male, who had just completed a training session to improve emotional competencies, has shown that there existed a strong correlation overall and between each of the five EQ abilities (self-awareness; managing emotions; self-motivation, relating to others and emotional mentoring) and lower levels of stress, with emotion management showing the strongest relationship. In essence what the study revealed was that those front-line operational police officers who were able to understand and manage their emotions, reported lower levels of stress and were, according to their reported lifestyles, at less risk of suffering from stress in the future.

Chemiss & Adler (2000) conducted a study among American Police Officers and observed that if police officers could learn to better understand and manage their own, and others' emotions (particularly anger), then they
would be likely to experience lower levels of stress in their working lives. In this study they observed that ability to understand and manage their own and others' emotions are inversely related to stress. As the ability to understand and manage emotions of oneself and others are central to emotional intelligence, it can be presumed that emotional intelligence will be inversely related to experienced stress.

There are a few other studies done abroad which have proved that some personality traits are related to stress. According to Zeidner & Mathews (2000) most personality traits may be associated with a blend of adaptive strengths and weaknesses. There is a tendency for individual variables like extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness to relate to lower emotional distress (Trull & Sher, 1994). Conscientiousness and agreeableness are important dimensions of emotional intelligence in the definition of Goleman (1995). Hence in the Indian context we can presume that emotional intelligence dimensions may be related to lower emotional distress.

Even though some studies are done abroad to establish the EI-stress relationship hardly any study is seen done in the Indian context except one study by Roberts (2002), who conducted an empirical study in a U.S based multi-national company with a worldwide market to find out the impact of emotional intelligence on 'burnout' and conflict resolution styles. The results show that managers with high EQ were low on the burnout dimensions implying thereby that individuals with high EQ can cope with stress effectively.

Summing up, the various research studies have shown that emotional intelligence have link with organisationally relevant variable like leadership effectiveness, career success, performance, behaviour in workplace, job satisfaction etc. But there is a dearth of studies to establish the link
between emotional intelligence and stress. Hence there is a need for more scientific studies in this aspect. As no study is reportedly done to establish the relationship between EI and Organisational Role Stress (ORS), this study is an attempt to establish the relationship between EI and ORS among managers.