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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 INTRODUCTION

In a study of emotional intelligence and leadership it is important to examine the concepts related to leadership, emotional intelligence, and the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership. This chapter consists of three parts. The first part discusses on the related concepts of the study. The second part focuses on the related models / approaches on EI and the third part on the related review of previous studies pertaining to Emotional Intelligence and Leadership. The previous studies are presented chronologically. Before concluding remarks, the scope and need of the study is briefly explained.

2.1 RELATED CONCEPTS

There are many definitions proposed by different authors. Some of the important definitions are provided below for clarity of the concept on Emotional Intelligence, and Leadership.
2.1.1 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined Emotional intelligence “the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and / or generate feelings when they facilitate though; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotional to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (p.10).

Bar-On (2005) explored the concept and calls it Emotional-Social intelligence. It is “a cross section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand other and relate with them, and cope with daily demands.”( p.4)

Goleman (1998a) defines Emotional Intelligence as the “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships” ( p.375).

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) define Emotional Intelligence as “the ability to sense, understand, and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence” (p. xiii).

Singh (2003) proposed three dimensions of Emotional Intelligence. He defines EI as “the ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional stimuli being elicited from the inner self and immediate environment. Emotional intelligence constitutes three psychological dimensions – emotional
competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity – which motivate an individual to recognize truthfully, interpret honestly and handle tactfully the dynamics of human behaviour” (pp.38-39).

All the authors agree that Emotional Intelligence is a skill to manage the emotions effectively. Hence we may define Emotional Intelligence as an ability to use and manage emotions appropriately based on the situation and to manage the relationship with others.

2.1.2 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

Goleman (1998a) defines Emotional Competence as ‘a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work” (p.28).

Singh (2003) describes the Emotional Competence as the “capacity to tactfully respond to emotional stimuli elicited by various situations” (p.38).

2.1.3 LEADERSHIP

Hersey and Blanchard (1996) defined leadership as “the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation”(p. 94).

Capezio and Morehouse (1997) defined leadership as “the ability to influence Individuals or groups to think, feel and take positive action to achieve goals” (p. 1).

Koontz and Welrich (2006) defined leadership as “influence that is the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the achievement of group goals” (p. 311).

From the above definitions we understand there are variations in their definition on leadership. However, they all agree that leadership is an influencing behaviour. In our context, the leadership may be defined as an act influencing people in desired direction for achieving the organisation goals.

2.2 RELATED MODELS ON EI

There are many models of emotional intelligence. The major model/approaches on Emotional Intelligence - Bar On Model of Emotional Intelligence, the EI model of Daniel Goleman, Dalip Singh, John D. Mayor and Peter Salovey and Cooper & Orioli are presented here.

2.2.1 BAR ON MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Bar–On (2005) refers to this construct as emotional–social intelligence (ESI) consisting of five key components. a) the ability to recognize, understand and express emotions and feelings; b) the ability to understand how others feel and relate with them; c) the ability to manage and control emotions; d) the ability to manage change, adapt and solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature; and e) the ability to generate positive affect and be self motivated. To assess these five components he
developed an Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) scale. The items in EQ-i scale is described below:

**Figure 2.1**

The EQ-i Scales and What They Assess

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EQ-i Scales</th>
<th>The EI competencies and skills assessed by each scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrapersonal</strong></td>
<td><em>Self-awareness and self-expression</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self regard (to accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Self-awareness</td>
<td>To be aware of and understand ones’ emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>To be effectively and constructively express one’s emotions and oneself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-actualization</td>
<td>To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one’s potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpersonal (Social awareness and interpersonal relationship)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>To be aware of and understand how others feel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Responsibility</td>
<td>To identify with one’s social group and cooperate with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Relationship</td>
<td>To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stress Management (Emotional Management and regulation)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress Tolerance</td>
<td>To effectively and constructively manage emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impulse Control</td>
<td>To effectively and constructively control emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Adaptability (Change management)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reality-Testing</td>
<td>To objectively validate one’s feelings and thinking with external reality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>To adapt and adjust one’s feelings and thinking to new situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem –solving</td>
<td>To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Mood (Self Motivation)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optimism</td>
<td>To be positive and look at the brighter side of life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>To feel content with oneself, others and life in general</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Bar-On (2005)

Bar-On has published an instrument to measure this emotional-social intelligence. He further reiterated that the ESI model has to undergo revision, no
matter how valid, robust and viable it might be as this model describes only a limited view of the individual’s capacity for emotionally and socially intelligent behavior.

### 2.2.2 THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODEL OF DANIEL GOLEMAN

Goleman (1998a) proposed a model of Emotional Intelligence in his book *Working with Emotional Intelligence*. It consists of five dimensions of EI and twenty five emotional competencies.

**Figure -2.2**

The Emotional Competence Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Competence: These competencies determine how we manage ourselves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-awareness</strong>: Knowing one’s internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Emotional awareness</em>: recognizing one’s emotions and their effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Accurate self-assessment</em>: Knowing one’s strengths and limits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Self-confidence</em>: A strong sense of one’s self-worth and capabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-Regulation</strong>: Managing one’s internal states, impulses, and resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Self-control</em>: Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Trustworthiness</strong>: maintaining standards of honesty and integrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conscientiousness</strong>: Taking responsibility for personal performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Adaptability</em>: Flexibility in handling changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Innovation</strong>: Being comfortable with novel ideas, approaches, and new information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation</strong>: Emotional tendencies that guide or facilitate reaching goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Achievement drive</em>: Striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Commitment</em>: Aligning with the goals of the group or organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Initiative</em>: Readiness to act on opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Optimism</em>: Persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

contd...
Social Competence: These competencies determine how we handle relationships

Empathy: Awareness of others’ feelings, needs, and concerns

Understanding others: sensing others’ feelings and perspectives, and taking an active interest in their concerns

Developing others: sensing others’ development needs and bolstering their abilities

Service Orientation: anticipating, recognizing, and meeting customers’ needs

Leveraging diversity: Cultivating opportunities through different kinds of people

Political awareness: reading a group’s emotional currents relationships

Social Skills: Adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others

Influence: Wielding effective tactics for persuasion

Communication: Listening openly and sending convincing messages

Conflict Management: Negotiating and resolving disagreements

Leadership: Inspiring and guiding individuals and groups

Change Catalyst: Initiating or managing change

Building Bonds: Nurturing instrumental relationships

Collaboration and cooperation: Working with others toward shared goals

Team capabilities: Creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals

Source: (Goleman 1998a pp.32-34)

Goleman based on further research refined his earlier model and naming it as a theory of performance as described below. The five dimensions of EI – self-awareness, Self-regulation, Motivation, Empathy and social skills – determines ones potential to learn the emotional competence that are needed for work. Similarly, our emotional competency will reveal how much of our potential have been translated in capabilities.
The four domains of Emotional Intelligence described in Figure 2.3 above have distinct neurological mechanisms that distinguish each domain from the others. These domains are also different from purely cognitive domains of ability. This was possible Goleman emphasizes owing to recent findings in neuroscience. (Goleman, 2001).

2.2.3 THEORY OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE PROPOSED BY DALIP SINGH IN INDIAN CONTEXT AS A THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Singh (2003) defines Emotional intelligence as “the ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional stimuli being elicited from the inner self and immediate environment. Emotional intelligence
constitutes three psychological dimensions—emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity—which motivate an individual to recognize truthfully, interpret honestly and handle tactfully the dynamics of human behaviour. The three dimensions of Emotional Intelligence are described below.

**Emotional Competency:** It constitutes the capacity to tactfully respond to emotional stimuli elicited by various situations, having high self-esteem and optimism, communication, tackling emotional upsets such as frustrations, conflicts and inferiority complexes, enjoying emotions, doing what succeeds, ability to relate to others, emotional self-control, capacity to avoid emotional exhaustion such as stress, burnout, learning to avoid negativity of emotions, handling egoism.

**Emotional Maturity:** Constitutes evaluating emotions of oneself and others, identifying and expressing feelings, balancing state of heart and mind, adaptability and flexibility appreciating other’s point of view, developing others, delaying gratification of immediate psychological satisfaction.

**Emotional sensitivity:** Constitutes understanding threshold of emotional arousal, managing the immediate environment, maintaining rapport, harmony, and comfort with others, letting others feel comfortable in your company. It also involves being honest in interpersonal dealings, interpreting emotional cues truthfully, realizing communicability of emotions, moods and feelings, and having an insight into how others evaluate and relate to you.
2.2.4 THE EI MODEL OF JOHN D. MAYOR AND PETER SALOVEY:

Peter Salovey and John Mayer first coined the term "emotional intelligence" in 1990 (Salovey and Mayer, 1990) and have since continued to conduct research on the significance of the construct. Their pure theory of emotional intelligence integrates key ideas from the fields of intelligence and emotion. Mayer and Salovey's conception of emotional intelligence is based within a model of intelligence, that is, it strives to define emotional intelligence within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence. The four-branch model which outlines the four branches and the corresponding stages in emotion processing associated with each branch.

Major areas of skills and specific examples

1. Perception and Expression of emotion
   - Identifying and expressing emotions in one’s physical states, feelings and thoughts
   - Identifying and expressing emotions in other people, artwork, language, etc.

2. Assimilating emotion in thought
   - Emotions prioritize thinking in productive ways
   - Emotions generated as aids to judgment and memory

3. Understanding and analyzing emotion
   - Ability to label emotions, including complex emotions and simultaneous feelings
   - Ability to understand relationships associated with shifts of emotion

4. Reflective regulation of Emotion
   - Ability to stay open to feelings
   - Ability to monitor and regulate emotions reflectively to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000b)
2.2.5 **THE EI MODEL OF COOPER AND ORIOLI**

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) have published tests to measure Emotional Intelligence - EQ Map - wherein they propose five sections with 21 factors. The five sections are: Current environment, Emotional Literacy, EQ competencies, EQ values and beliefs, and EQ outcomes. What differentiates this model from others is that they have added the context of practicing Emotional Intelligence and the outcomes of it. The 21 EI factors are placed under five sections. The current environment has - Life Events, Work Pressures, Personal Pressures, and second section Emotional literacy - Emotional Self-Awareness, Emotional Expression, and Emotional Awareness of Others. The third section Emotional Competency contains Intentionality, Creativity, Resilience, Interpersonal Connection, and Constructive Discontent. The fourth section EQ Values and Beliefs consist of Compassion, Outlook, Intuition, Trust Radius, Personal Power, and Integrity. The last section EQ outcomes have General Health, Quality of Life, Relationship Quotient, and Optimal Performance.

2.3 **RELATED THEORIES ON LEADERSHIP**

What is it that differentiates organisations that are thriving with that of failing in this competitive world? It is effective and dynamic leadership. However, there is a shortage of effective leaders. The organisation hence continues their search for suitable and effective leaders. Managers are the basic and scarce resource of any business enterprise. On all sides, there is a continual search for persons who have the necessary ability to lead effectively. This shortage of effective leadership is not confined to business, but is evident in the lack of able administrators in government, education, foundations, churches, and every other form of organisation. Thus, when we decry the scarcity of leadership talent in our society, we are not talking about a
lack of people to fill administrative positions. What we are agonizing over is a scarcity or people who are willing to assume significant leadership roles in our society and who can get the job done effectively. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1996). Researchers have attempted to define the concept only to realize that the term means different things to different people. There are nearly as many definitions of leadership as there are people who have tried to define the concept (Yukl 1994).

Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. There are three major parts that come out of this definition: Leader, Follower and situation. In nutshell, Leadership is about accomplishing a given goals with and through people. In the year 1900 F.W. Taylor proposed the theory of scientific management, which focussed on the improving the technological aspects to enhance production. In the year 1920 Elton Mayo replaced the trend with Human Relations movement, which emphasized the interpersonal relationship in the workplace. With that the conflict between concern for task and concern for people became well known and till date that debate continues (Hersey and Blanchard, 1996).

Yukl (1994) explained, “Leadership has been defined in terms of individual traits, behaviors, influence over other people, interaction patterns, role relationships, occupations or an administrative position, and perception by others regarding legitimacy of influence” (p.2). Most definitions include an assumption that leadership involves a process of social influence whereby one person exerts intentional influence over other people to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organisation. Successful leaders are typically adaptable to situations, alert to social
environment, ambitious and achievement-oriented, assertive, cooperative, decisive, dependable, dominant (desire to influence others), energetic (high-activity level), persistent, self-confident, tolerant of stress, and willing to assume responsibility (Yukl 1994).

2.3.1 LEADER VERSUS MANAGERS

It is said leaders are born and not made. However, the qualities of leadership can be learned with continuous feedback and practice. Milgram et al (1999) describe the characteristics of a leaders and managers.

- Leaders are agents of change
- Leaders are original, while Managers copy
- Leaders develop, while managers maintain
- Leaders embrace change proactively
- Leaders focus on things they can control and dismiss the things they cannot.
- Leaders focus on people, while managers are busy focusing on systems and structure
- Leaders inspire trust, while managers rely on control (p.299).

Managers and leaders are very different. The aims and goals of a manager arise out of necessities rather than desires. They focus at diffusing conflicts between individuals or departments, and ensuring that an organisation’s day to day activities flow smoothly. On the other hand, leaders personally associate themselves with the goals of the organisation. They look for the potential opportunities and rewards in the organisation. Because of their personal involvement, they inspire their subordinates to execute the tasks. Leaders also kindle the creativity of the people with their energy and commitment (Zaleznik 1998). A management needs both managers and leaders
to succeed and therefore must find ways to train excellent managers and simultaneously develop leaders.

2.3.2 LEADERSHIP MODELS / APPROACHES

There are basically three models on Leadership: Trait, Attitude and Situational. In the trait theory certain inherent characteristics of the individuals were given importance. Other who did not possess such characteristics was considered as ineffective. This theory was questioned as it did not against the development of leadership through training. In the Attitudinal approach, the leadership was considered as the behaviour of the individuals when involved in accomplishment of tasks with the group members. The Ohio State Leadership studies, Michigan Studies, Managerial Grid are part of this attitudinal approach. The Situational approach focussed on the observed behaviour and not the inborn qualities of leadership. In this approach, the behaviour of leaders, and their group members and situation is considered important. Fielder’ Leadership contingency model, House-Mitchell Path-Goal Theory, Vroom-Yetten Contigency model, and Heresy- Blanchard Leadership effectiveness Model are part of this situation approach (Hersey and Blanchard, 1996). Rajan (2009) calls for an integrated leadership model over the existing theories and approaches from Personality, Behaviour, Influence, Situation, Contingency theories to Transactional, Culture, Transformation theories of leadership for effective dissemination and practice. A review of the literature on leadership reveals that there are different approaches and models to explain the complex leadership process. Of these, for the purpose of current investigation, we focus on the situational leadership model of Hersey and Blanchard. This model is also one of the widely recognized
approaches and used extensively in organisational developmental programmes (Northouse, 2003).

### 2.3.3 SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Hersey and Blanchard proposed their Situational Leadership Model in the year 1985 combining Grid and contingency theory. The four leadership styles – Directive (S1), Supportive (S2), Consulting (S3), and Delegating (S4) – are based on the combination of regulating and nurturing behaviour of a leader. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1996; Pareek, 2002). Regulating behaviour can be defined “as to the extent to which a leader engages in one way communication”. Nurturing behaviour may be defined as the extent to which a leader engages in two way communication” (Pareek 2002, p.284).

**Figure 2.4**

**Situational Leadership Model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nurturing Behaviour</th>
<th>Regulating Behaviour</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low regulating</td>
<td>High regulating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low nurturing</td>
<td>High nurturing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consulting (S3)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Supportive (S2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>High regulating</td>
<td>High nurturing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High nurturing</td>
<td>Supportive (S2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegating (S4)</td>
<td>Low regulating</td>
<td>High regulating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low nurturing</td>
<td>Low nurturing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Directive (S1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Pareek, 2002 p.285
In the Directive Style, the group member’s roles and tasks to be accomplished are defined and communicated. The communication is largely one-way, and the leader closely supervises implementation. The leader provides direction and leads with his or her ideas in supportive leadership style. He also hears the group’s opinion on the decisions taken and their ideas and suggestions. While two-way communication and support are increased, control over decision-making remains with the leader. In consulting style, the focus of control for day-to-day decision-making and problem solving shifts from the leader to group members. The leader's role is to provide recognition and to actively listen and facilitate problem solving and decision-making on the part of the staff. This is appropriate where staff have the ability and knowledge to do the task. In Delegating leadership style, the problems with group members are discussed until joint agreement is achieved. Thereafter, the decision-making process is delegated totally to the staff. The group members have significant control on deciding how tasks are to be accomplished.

These four basic leadership styles are therefore characterized by varying degrees of regulating and nurturing behaviour. The basic assumption of this model is that there is no best way to influence the people. It will depend on the readiness level of the people a leader is trying to influence. Readiness level of a follower is defined as “to the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task” (Pareek, 2002, p.285). While ability relates to skill, knowledge and experience, willingness relates to confidence, commitment and motivation. The effectiveness of the leader is determined by the appropriate choice of the style based on the readiness of the followers and situations.
2.3.4 LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

In this competitive world, what separates highly successful organisations from others? Many factors contribute to success in organisations. One factor cited as contributing to success is effective leadership. What makes an effective leader? Goleman (1998a, 1998b,) and Cooper and Sawaf (1997) contend, effective leaders have more than the technical skills to do a job. They employ qualities, such as initiative and empathy, adaptability, and persuasiveness—competencies of emotional intelligence. High EI has been linked to high performance by organisational personnel as shown in a study at Johnson & Johnson. High EI in organisation has been linked to improved financial results, improved return on investment in change initiatives, improved productivity, increased retention of top talent, and increased sales (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Cavallo and Brienza, 2002; Singh 2003).

2.4 MEASURES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

There are several measures of emotional intelligence available. Some of the important measures are reviewed and discussed here in order to determine the most useful and appropriate measurement tool for the present study.

2.4.1 THE EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE INVENTORY (ECI)

The ECI is a self, subordinate, peer and supervisory report, a 360-degree measurement tool designed to estimate individual emotional competencies. The respondents use 6 point scale to score on each competence. The instrument contains 110 items to measure the 20 competencies in four categories – Self Awareness, Self Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management. The scale
reliabilities for the self assessment range from .618 to .866, for composite others range from .788 to .948 and for others assessment ranged from .8 to .9 (Gowing, 2001).

2.4.2 EQ MAP

Cooper and Orioli jointly developed the EQ map. The EQ Map tool is comprised of five dimensions: current environment, emotional literacy, EQ competencies, EQ values and attitudes, and EQ Outcomes with 21 factors. Later, the factors were reduced to twenty. Part One is Current Environment which addresses the current life circumstances including pressures changes both at work and home. Part Two is labeled as Emotional Literacy which consists of emotional awareness and others. Part Three, EQ competencies that are fundamental skill a person developed over a period to respond to people and events. Part Four, EQ Values and Beliefs describes how a person views the world and what one values which decide the choices made by a person. In Part Five, EQ outcomes, the effects of EQ on the quality of life, relationship and general health are described. This instrument is a multidimensional guide that helps discover the many facets of an individual emotional intelligence and its relationship to performance, creativity and success. The Cronbach’s alpha estimates of reliability range from .53 to .91 (Gowing, 2001).

2.4.3 EMOTIONAL QUOTIENT INVENTORY (EQ-I)

Bar-On (1997) designed this self-report measure to assess emotional as well as social intelligence. The $EQ_i$ is a 133-item measure with 5 composite scales encompassing 15 subscales. The 5 composite scales are titled: intrapersonal EQ, interpersonal EQ, stress management EQ, adaptability EQ, and general mood EQ. Reuven Bar-On is one of the pioneers to develop test to measure Emotional
Intelligence in the early 1960s. He calls the concept emotional–social intelligence. The Cronbach’s alpha for the fifteen subscales ranged from .70 to .89 (Gowing, 2001).

2.4.4 THE MAYER-SALOVEY-CARUSO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TEST (MSCEIT)

The MSCEIT has a ten-year history of development. In their revised theory of emotional intelligence, Mayer and Salovey (1997) divided the construct of emotional intelligence into four theoretical factors: emotional perception, emotional facilitation of thought, emotional understanding, and emotional management. The authors created a set of 12 ability measures based on the four theoretical factors of emotional intelligence. The measures included tasks such as viewing faces, abstract designs, and landscapes, as well as listening to music and reading stories, in order to answer questions with regard to emotional content of the stimuli. The reliability of the MEIS measure was .96, with subscale reliabilities ranging from .81 to .96 (Gowing, 2001).

2.4.5 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MEASURE CHOSEN FOR THIS INVESTIGATION

Four major measures of emotional intelligence measures have been examined in order to choose the appropriate measure for the current investigation. All the scale have been developed by experts and tested for the validity and reliability. Some of these measures had a record of extensive use especially the ECI, EQ map in many developmental programmes as well in research. A comparison of the major instruments is presented in Figure - 2.5
From the analysis and comparison of the above scales, we have two distinct levels at which the instruments have been developed. Of these, one is measuring emotional intelligence itself as a capacity to recognize and use emotions and the other, examination of emotional intelligence as competence. John Mayer and his team have been contributing to emotional Intelligence and developed scales for same at ability level. Goleman and Boyatzis constructed scales for measurement at competency level calling it as a theory of performance. Esther Orioli and Robert Cooper have taken a
broader perspective of the concept and constructed scales to measure current environment, competencies for performance and outcomes.

Due to the above reasons, and that “Orioli and Cooper go beyond competencies through their attempts to incorporate environmental and outcome variables in the measure” (Gowing 2001, p.129) most reasonable, acceptable, and appropriate emotional intelligence measure for this study is the EQ Map.

2.5 RELATED STUDIES

Goleman (1998b) analyzed the competency models of 188 companies to know which personal qualities of leaders lead to outstanding performance and to what extent these personal qualities they matter as such. The competencies were grouped into three categories - 1) Technical skills such as accounting and business planning 2) Cognitive abilities such as analytical reasoning 3) Competencies demonstrating Emotional Intelligence such as the ability to work with others and effectiveness in leading change. The competency models were developed by asking senior managers to identify capabilities possessed by the outstanding leaders. Objective criteria such as profitability of an enterprise were used to differentiate outstanding leaders from the average ones. After interviewing these leaders, a list of ingredients 7 to 15 of highly effective leaders was arrived at. The results of the analysis of data revealed that intellect was the driver of outstanding performance and cognitive skills – big picture thinking and long term vision – were found very important. Emotional Intelligence was twice as important as cognitive and technical skills for jobs at all levels. Emotional intelligence is important for highest levels of the company and gaps in
technical skills are of negligible importance. Further, when a star performer was compared to an average one in senior positions, nearly 90% of the difference in their profile was attributable to Emotional intelligence factor rather than cognitive abilities.

**Fox and Spector (2000)** explored the relationship of emotional intelligence, practical intelligence, general intelligence and trait affectivity with outcomes of a job interview. 116 undergraduates’ students at the University of South Florida were participants of this study. The participants attended a structured 10-15 minutes videotaped interview. The study revealed that it takes more than general intelligence to do well in an interview and general intelligence and practical intelligence have significant relationship in predicating the various aspects of interviewer affective response and interview outcomes. It was found that positive affectivity an emotional competency and trait affect are related to interview outcomes and interpersonal reactivity index (measuring cognitive empathy, empathic concern and personal distress) had significant positive relationship with interview outcomes. The study also revealed that non-verbal behaviour predicated interviewer affective response and interview outcomes.

**Barling et al., (2000)** conducted an explorative study to find out how emotional intelligence predisposes leaders to use transformational behaviours. A total of 60 managers of large pulp and paper organisation participated in the study. They were administered three questionnaires a) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x short) to assess the four components of transformational leadership and transactional leadership b) EI inventory of Bar-on to assess EI c) Seligman attribution style Questionnaire to measure attribution. The study showed that idealized influence,
inspirational motivation, individualized consideration and contingent reward have significant relationship with Emotional Intelligence. It was also found in this study that Intellectual stimulation did not have any relationship with Emotional Intelligence. There was no significant association between active and passive management–by-exception, laissez-faire and Emotional Intelligence.

**Palmer et al. (2001)** studied the relationship between EI and effective leadership. The assumption is that there will be stronger relationship between EI and transformational leadership. In this study, both the total transformational and total transactional leadership ratings did not demonstrate significant correlations with either the emotional monitoring or emotional management scales. There was significant correlation between idealized influence (charisma) with emotional monitoring. Further, it was found that there is moderate correlation between inspirational motivation and with both the emotional monitoring and emotional management. Individualized consideration had correlation with emotional monitoring and management and contingent reward subscale of transactional leadership had a significant correlation with emotional monitoring.

**Higgs (2001)** studied covering 177 managers specifically to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and the Myers-Briggs type indicator (MBTI) profiles. Indicates that the dominant MBTI function of Intuition (and the associated MBTI profiles) is significantly and positively related to higher levels of EI. In looking at specific MBTI scales, the lack of significant relationships between high
Feeling scores and EI is seen as somewhat surprising. The study provides some support overall for the proposed relationship between the MBTI and EI.

**Cavallo and Brienza (2002)** conducted a study at Johnson & Johnson consumer & personal care to assess the linkage between Emotional and leadership competencies and performance & potential. 358 Managers selected randomly across the world were rated by peers, supervisors & Direct reports numbering 1415 in a web based survey. 183 questions were drawn from the Johnson & Johnson Leadership competency model, the Standards of Leadership and the emotional competency inventory (ECI) of Goleman and Boyatzis. The study had shown a strong relation between High performance and emotional competence. Leaders with 4.1 and above performance rating in a 5 point scale were said to possess higher than others in all Four EI clusters of Self Awareness, Self Management, Social Awareness and Social Skills by supervisors and subordinates. Peers rated High performers significantly better in Self-awareness and Management clusters. All three raters identified 6 differentiating competencies - Self-confidence, Achievement orientation, Initiative, leadership, influence & change catalyst of high performers. Supervisors identified 13 of the 20 emotional competencies as significantly higher for higher potential leaders than other participants. Peers rating showed differences in 6 emotional competencies, Subordinates in one - Conscientiousness. Supervisors’ knowledge on the potential of the participants is indicative of the above results. Women received higher ratings by peers in five competencies-Emotional Self awareness, Conscientiousness, Developing others, Service Orientation and communication. Supervisors rated women higher on Adaptability and Service orientation. Direct reports & rated men significantly higher on the competency change catalyst.
Sivanathan and Fekken (2002) studied the relationship of Emotional intelligence and moral reasoning to leadership style and effectiveness. The research was conducted among 58 residence staff of Ontario University. 232 subordinates and 12 supervisors of residence staff rated on leadership behaviour and effectiveness. Transformational leadership positively correlated to emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. It was found that transactional leadership is negatively correlated with moral reasoning. Transactional leadership was positively correlated with superior rating of don effectiveness and leaders displaying greater moral reasoning were not found to display rater transformational leadership behaviour.

Poon and Fatt (2002) studied if there is any significant difference in the EI of local and foreign undergraduates studying in universities in Singapore. The “Emotional IQ Test” was administered to 100 undergraduates from various fields of studies from the National University of Singapore and Nanyang Technological University, of which 31 had a foreign education background. This study showed that foreign undergraduates have a higher EI score than those with a local education background. In addition, by examining the relationships between variables such as age, gender, year of study and EI, it was found that males have higher EI scores than females.
Gardner and Stough (2002) investigated whether emotional intelligence measured by the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test predicted transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles measured by the multifactor leadership questionnaire in 110 senior level managers. Effective leaders were identified as those who reported transformational rather than transactional behaviours. Emotional intelligence correlated highly with all components of transformational leadership, with the components of understanding of emotions (external) and emotional management the best predictors of this type of leadership style.

Rozell et al (2002) explored the measurement of emotional intelligence (EI) using a comprehensive scale to tap the construct. Using a sample of 295 undergraduate business majors from a mid-western university, an exploratory factor analysis was performed to examine the factor structure of the scale. Based on the factor loadings, the scale was reduced to 51 items with five factors emerging. Student demographics revealed that accounting majors rated lower on EI as compared to other majors. Results also indicated that higher EI scores were associated with membership in Greek organisations, and involvement in sports organisations. It was also found that international students rated lower on the EI measure as compared to domestic students. Finally, several of the factors within the scale were shown to have a relationship to both cumulative GPA and university-specific GPA.
**Higgs and Aitken (2003)** explored the relationship between EI and leadership potential in the context of an assessment / development center designed for the New Zealand Public Service. The main research question: To what extent can an individual level of EI predict an assessment of leadership potential? The findings of the study are: - Self-awareness, motivation, intuitiveness, conscientiousness, and leadership potential overall ratings were statistically significant. No relationship was found between any EI element and the competency leading change. No significant relationship was seen between interpersonal sensitivity and any of the competencies of leadership potential. Self-awareness, intuitiveness, and conscientiousness of EI elements differentiated between lower and higher rated participants.

**Duckett and Macfarlane (2003)** examined the relationship between emotional intelligence (EQ) and transformational leadership in the context of a UK-based retailing organisation and examines whether a relationship exists between store manager performance and EQ profiles. It identifies a discrepancy between the organisation’s idealized leader success criteria and the average profiles derived from its current cohort of store managers. The results show a strong connection between the theory of EQ and transformational leadership: however, differences between the idealised and actual EQ scores were mainly located in transactional capabilities.

**Afzalur and Minors (2003)** tested the relationships of the three dimensions of emotional intelligence (EQ) (self-awareness, self-regulation, and empathy) to managers’ concern for the quality of products and services and problem-solving behavior of subordinates during conflict. The results of hierarchical regression analysis show that self-awareness and self-regulation are positively associated with
problem solving, and self-regulation was positively associated with concern for quality. There was a marginally significant main effect of empathy on quality and interaction effect of self-regulation and empathy on concern for quality.

**Carmeli (2003)** studied empirically by examining the extent to which senior managers with a high emotional intelligence employed in public sector organisations develop positive work attitudes, behavior and outcomes. The results indicate that emotional intelligence augments positive work attitudes, altruistic behavior and work outcomes, and moderates the effect of work-family conflict on career commitment but not the effect on job satisfaction.

**Rahim and Minors (2003)** studied the relationships of the three dimensions of emotional intelligence (EQ) (self-awareness, self-regulation, and empathy) to managers’ concern for the quality of products and services and problem-solving behavior of subordinates during conflict. The results of hierarchical regression analysis show that self-awareness and self-regulation are positively associated with problem solving, and self-regulation was positively associated with concern for quality. There was a marginally significant main effect of empathy on quality and interaction effect of self-regulation and empathy on concern for quality.

**Sala (2004)** studied two different samples to know the effectiveness of “Mastering Emotional Intelligence Workshop” and specifically to find whether the score of the participants has increased on Emotional Intelligence after attending the programme. Emotional competency inventory (ECI) a multi-rater instrument was used to assess the participants. The investigation showed that overall the scores on
reassessment increased for all the participants. It was also found that there was significant improvement approximately 11% on 8 EI competencies – Self confidence, organisational awareness, conscientiousness, adaptability, initiative, communication and conflict management. However, empathy and change catalyst showed marginal levels of improvement. Among sample type 2 the score on reassessment increased in 19 competencies excepting conscientiousness approximately 24%.

**Vakola et. al. (2004)** focused their research on the role of personal oriented issues on organisational change. They measured the role of personality variables and Emotional Intelligence in individuals attitudes towards change in an organisational setting. The study covered 137 professionals of private and public organisations in Athens, Greece. The attitudes to change questionnaire, the emotional intelligence questionnaire, and the traits personality questionnaire 5 was used for this study. Results: There were no gender differences regarding attitude towards organisational change. There was positive relationship between educational attainment and attitudes towards change. The study found that EI can predict additional variance above and beyond the factors of personality on employees’ attitudes toward organisational change. There was positive relationship between individual characteristics and attitude to change, which contribution to the success of change. There was significant relationship between personality traits, Emotional Intelligence and attitudes to change.

**Manna and Smith (2004)** studied to see if emotional intelligence and awareness training should be introduced into sales training programs and to see if emotional intelligence training is necessary for success in the sales profession. A recent survey of 515 professional sales representatives located in Pittsburgh, PA area
firms that were chosen based on relatively large size and established reputations in the area were asked to respond to a number of questions concerning sales training and related sales experience. Factor analysis results with industry type, insurance and financial type, as an example discovered four categories of data reduction: component 1 related to emotional intelligence (identifying personality types, presentation skills, controlling one's emotions, and adaptability to change) variables, component 2 was associated with experience (years of managerial experience and years of sales experience), component 3 for people skills (sales concepts and procedures and listening skills), and component 4 dealt with technical skills (writing skills and computer competencies). It was found communication skills, negotiating skills, emotional intelligence, and presentation skills, and the need to differentiate personality types were very important to the sales practitioners.

Bennouna (2004) examined the relation between major professors' emotional intelligence profile and their performance of mentoring functions as perceived by their adult learner doctoral student graduates (mentees). This study was conducted at a College of Education at a large Research I university in the southeast United States and included 79 doctoral students who graduated between fall 1999 and fall 2002 and their respective 29 major professors. Major professors' emotional intelligence profiles resided in the top two categories between optimal and proficient. These scores were higher than the North American norm using a sample of professionals in business and industry, which resided between the vulnerable and proficient categories. A profile comparison by gender revealed that female professors scored higher on the intuition and creativity subscales, while male professors had a higher score for trust. On the mentoring profile, doctoral graduates rated their major professors highest on their
ability to assist students to envision the future and lowest on their competence to confront and challenge students' achievements. Correlational analysis between the major professors' emotional intelligence profile and their performance of mentoring functions revealed a majority of weak and negative correlations.

**Brauchle (2004)** investigated the measurement of emotional intelligence as a predictor on the negotiator's ability to negotiate in an integrative manner. Fifty-eight law students enrolled in a private law school negotiated in a two party role-play simulation. An average of the dyad's scores of the five components scores and the composite score of the Bar-On EQ-i, respectively, were used as measurement of emotional intelligence. Negotiation agreements were assigned scale values of integrativeness utilizing a structured Q sort technique.

Regression analysis of the data suggests that integrativeness is not significantly predicted by the five component scores or the composite score of the EQ-i, Supplemental analysis was conducted using the scores of the individuals rather than the dyads as predictors of integrativeness. The results indicate that two of the original five components of the EQ-i, stress management component and adaptability component, emerge as statistically significant with respect to the integrativeness of the negotiation.

**Burbach (2004)** examined the effect of an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence as a predictor of full-range leadership style. The moderating effects of leaders' cognitive style and direction of self-concept (internal vs. external) on the relationship between emotional intelligence and full-range
leadership style were also examined. The analyses were conducted on data collected from 146 self-identified leaders and 649 raters. A significant predictive relationship was found between emotional intelligence and all full-range leadership styles from leaders' perceptions. Cognitive style added significant variance to the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership and outcomes of leadership from leaders' perceptions. This indicated the combined extraversion and intuitive cognitive style is associated with transformational leadership over and above emotional intelligence.

The leader's direction of self-concept added significant variance to the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational, management by exception and laissez-faire leadership from leaders' perceptions. This indicated that internal self-concept is associated with transformational leadership over and above emotional intelligence and external self-concept is associated with management by exception and laissez-faire leadership over and above emotional intelligence. No significant interaction was found between cognitive style or direction of self-concept and emotional intelligence while predicting full-range leadership style from leaders' perceptions. A significant predictive relationship was found between emotional intelligence and laissez-faire leadership and outcomes of leadership from raters' perceptions. A significant interaction was found between direction of self-concept and emotional intelligence while predicting transformational leadership, contingent reward leadership and outcomes of leadership from raters' perceptions. This indicated that the leader's internal self-concept moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership, contingent reward leadership and outcomes of leadership from raters' perceptions.
Byrne (2004) examined the validity of emotional intelligence with a sample of 325 subjects in graduate business courses. A set of self-assessment instruments including the Emotional Competency Inventory, the NEO-FFI and a demographic questionnaire were administered to study participants. Measures of leadership included peer nominations in a Leaderless Group Discussion (LGD), co-worker assessments of management skills, expert evaluation of behavior in the LGD and the number of promotions corrected for age. The factor structure of ECI was tested with confirmatory factor analysis and discriminant validity was then examined by testing a nine-factor model that include four ECI factors and five factors for the NEO-FFI. Criterion-related validity of the ECI was examined using multiple measures of leadership and related work behavior. Number of promotions corrected for age, peer nominations in the LGD, expert evaluations of LGD behavior and co-worker evaluations served as a diverse set of criteria. Results supported the construct validity for the ECI. Confirmatory factor analysis results suggested that the ECI measures a set of factors that is distinct from personality variables. Results also showed that the ECI was predictive of leadership and related work behavior and explained significant variance in performance after age and personality variables were controlled.

Drago (2004) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement in nontraditional college students. Because students differ in cognitive ability, with some students being better prepared for the collegiate environment than others, the role of emotional intelligence in academic achievement must be better understood. Noncognitive factors such as emotional intelligence may
supplement or enhance student cognitive ability. In this study, emotional intelligence, achievement motivation, anxiety, and cognitive ability were predictor variables. The criterion variable was academic achievement as measured by student GPA. Data were collected using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI), the Achievement Motivation Profile (AMP), the Wonderlic Personnel Test (WPT), and the Student Demographic Survey (SDS). Bivariate and multivariate correlation and regression analyses were used to test the study’s statistical hypotheses. Results demonstrated that emotional intelligence is significantly related to student GPA scores, student cognitive ability scores, and student age. Additionally, student anxiety was related to certain emotional intelligence abilities. No significant relationship, however, was found between emotional intelligence and achievement motivation.

*Jacobs (2004)* studied how the summer camp experience impacts staff members and whether emotional intelligence is developed through summer camp employment. The BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory, EQ-i, was selected as the primary instrument to collect quantitative data to measure and assess emotional intelligence for this study. A second instrument, an Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, was also utilized for this study and was administered at the end of the summer camp season. A total of 81 different summer camp staff members provided responses that were used to analyze the influence of summer camp employment on emotional intelligence. An analysis of the pre test and post test EQ-i scores showed several statistically significant differences. The overall emotional intelligence scores, 4 of the 5 composite scale scores, and 8 of the 15 subscale scores; including stress
tolerance, self-actualization, social responsibility, optimism, flexibility, empathy, happiness, and interpersonal relationships, showed significant increases.

Lopes (2004) conducted three studies to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence, defined as a set of abilities involved in processing emotional information, and the quality of interpersonal interactions, assessed through multiple criteria. Emotional intelligence encompasses the abilities to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions. The ability to manage emotions was consistently and positively related to the quality of interpersonal interactions. We examined everyday social interactions, interactions with peers in college, and interactions with both peers and supervisors in the workplace, drawing on multiple informants. Findings supported the criterion and incremental validity of an ability measure of emotional intelligence, the MSCEIT (Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test). Study 1 was a diary study of social interaction involving 103 German college students. Individuals scoring high on the managing emotions subscale of the MSCEIT were more satisfied with their everyday interactions with opposite-sex individuals than their counterparts. They also perceived themselves to be more successful in impression management in social interactions with individuals of the opposite sex. These associations remained statistically significant after controlling for the Big Five personality traits. Study 2 involved 76 students from a residential college. The ability to manage emotions, assessed by the MSCEIT, was related to self-reports and peer nominations of interpersonal sensitivity and prosocial tendencies, the proportion of positive versus negative peer nominations, and reciprocal nominations of friendship and liking. These associations remained significant after controlling for the Big Five
and verbal and fluid intelligence. Study 3 involved 44 analysts and clerical employees from the finance department of a Fortune 400 insurance company. Individuals scoring high on the MSCEIT received higher peer and/or supervisor ratings of interpersonal facilitation (interpersonal sensitivity, sociability, quality of interaction, and contribution to a positive work environment) than their counterparts. They received higher peer and/or supervisor ratings of stress tolerance and leadership potential. Additionally, they received greater merit increases and held higher company rank. With few exceptions, these associations remained significant controlling for other predictors, one at a time, including age, gender, education, verbal ability, the Big Five, trait affect, and emotional approach coping.

Paek (2004) empirically examined the extent to which religiosity, operationalized as religious orientation and religious behavior, is related to EI. A questionnaire consisting of a religious orientation scale; and emotional intelligence measures; i.e., the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS; Salovey) and scales of emotional and cognitive empathy in addition to questions regarding behavioral religious participation, was filled out by 148 church-attending adult Christians. Results showed that intrinsic religious orientation was positively correlated with overall EI, its subcomponent emotional understanding, as well as emotional and cognitive empathy. Among the behavioral measures of religiosity, the number of religious group activities was positively associated with EI, whereas years of church attendance was unrelated. Significant positive correlations were also found between level of religious commitment, as indicated by both church status and involvement in ministry service, and EI. While both attitudinal and behavioral measures of religiosity were
significantly predictive of EI, the former proved to be a more powerful predictor of EI than the latter.

Rivera (2004) studied the gender role dynamics affect emotional intelligence behavior differently for men and women and how the degree and features of the difference is affected by cultural factors. The analysis reveals a difference in emotional intelligence behavior between work and the personal context. When the analysis is performed by gender the difference increases. Women show a significant difference in seven and men in six of the 21 competencies of the emotional intelligence competency framework used in the study. It also shows that women display a higher level of their competencies at home, and men at work, behavior that is in line with the gender role dynamics and the cultural characteristics of the sample. A correlation analysis revealed that the difference in behavior is related to the masculinity/femininity dimension of culture and human values in the case of women. Self-confidence is believed to be at the center of the difference in behavior especially for women, whose differential in behavior is evident at the social competence level. Men show a difference in display at the Personal competence level of the model.

VanSickle (2004) examined the relationship between the emotional intelligence competencies of selected Division I head softball coaches and coaching effectiveness. Sixteen head softball coaches and their players from two NCAA Division I conferences completed the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) and Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ). Results revealed that three of the four
clusters of emotional intelligence, Self-Awareness, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management, were related to at least one measure of coaching effectiveness. Self-Awareness was related to both win-loss record and athlete satisfaction. Social Awareness showed a positive relationship with current win-loss record and Relationship Management was positively related to overall win-loss record. Results of this study also indicated a discrepancy in coaches’ self-ratings on the ECI as compared to the ratings by their players, with coaches consistently rating themselves higher. Additionally, results showed high levels of satisfaction among athletes who play for coaches with a current winning record. Finally, results revealed a negative relationship between years experience and athlete satisfaction and a negative relationship between years experience and emotional intelligence.

**Wells (2004)** studied the correlation between EI and openness to difference, as indicated by self-perceived flexibility to difference and self-reported receptiveness to difference (RTD). The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) was used to assess EI as defined as an ability. The Flexibility/Openness Scale of the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory was used to assess self-perceived flexibility to difference; the RTD Scale is used to assess self-reported RTD. Ninety undergraduate university students 70% female and 30% male participated in the study. The sample was 80% Caucasian with an average age of 20 years and working toward varied academic majors. An association was found between EI and openness to difference. The total score of the MSCEIT correlated positively and significantly with the scores on the Flexibility/Openness Scale of the CCAI, as well as with the scores on the RTD Scale. Additionally, scores from the two indices measuring the construct of openness
to difference were found to be positively correlated. The flexibility/Openness Scale of the CCAI correlated with the scores from the RTD Scale.

**Williams (2004)** studied the competencies and characteristics that distinguish outstanding urban principals. The study specifically focuses on three questions. A criterion sample of 12 outstanding and 8 typical principals was identified from a large midwestern urban school district. Data from critical incident interviews, open-ended questions, and a variety of assessment questionnaires were collected. Outstanding principals demonstrate a broad and deep repertoire of competencies related to emotional intelligence and problem solving. Thirteen of the 23 competencies studied significantly differentiate outstanding and typical principals. These include: self confidence, self control, conscientiousness, achievement orientation, initiative, organisational awareness, developing others, leadership, influence, change catalyst, conflict management, teamwork/collaboration, and analytical thinking. The findings also point to differences in how outstanding and typical principals conceptualize and adapt to their job demands. Outstanding principals view and position themselves as leaders. Linkages are found between these distinguishing competencies and characteristics and effective principal practice related to instructional leadership, change leadership, and expert problem solving.

**Dhoakia and Kaushal (2005)** explored whether EI is affected by the place of work. The data was collected from 50 male executives working in private and public sector employees who attended a Management Development programme at IIM
Ahemedabad. The tool for assessment of EI was based on the four corner stones (Emotional literacy, Emotional Fitness, Emotional Depth, Emotional Alchemy) as provided by Robert Cooper and Ayman Sawaf in their book *Executive EQ, 1997*. The results of the showed that the emotional literacy level score of both public and private sector executives were at high level. The score on Emotional Fitness of public sector executives was at a medium level and private sector employees were at high level. The emotional depth scores were at a high level both for public and private sector executives. The emotional alchemy scores were at medium level for public and private sector executives. However, the observed differences were not found to be statistically significant. Hence, the researchers concluded that there are no differences between the public sector and private sector employees.

**Punia (2005)** has brought out the link between leadership behaviour and emotional intelligence in the study conducted among Indian executives using the Scales a) Leadership Orientation, b) Leadership (passive bias of the Leader), c) Emotional Intelligence Test. The investigation showed that EI increases with age and reach a peak, then start decreasing. Employees above 25 years and less than 45 years of age have high level of EI. Leadership style and EI changed with age. There was proportionate relationship between EI and leadership behaviour of executives. The study found significant co-relation between marital status, EI and leadership behaviour. Majority of the female executives have high and average EI whereas majority of the Male executives have low EI. Women executives have been found more emotionally stable making them effective leaders.
Uma and Devi (2005) studied the relationship between the dimensions of Emotional Intelligence of adolescents and selected social variables. The samples for the study was chosen from students of co-educational institution with plus two classes / intermediate classes in Visakhapatnam, Andhra Pradesh. It consisted of 120 parents and their adolescent children in the age range of 15-17 years. The tool – Emotional Intelligence inventory - developed by Uma Devi was used for the study. The results of the study revealed that slightly more than half of the respondents (59%) were average in Emotional Intelligence. Self-regard in the Intra personal subscale of Emotional Intelligence has significant relation with the Fathers, Mothers’ and Child’s education. Cast is negatively related to self-regard. The intra personal sub scale is positively and significantly related to mother’s education, occupation and income. There is no significant relationship between the dimensions empathy, interpersonal relationship and social responsibility in the interpersonal subscale of Emotional Intelligence to any of the parent and family related variables. Boys are more socially responsible than girls and first borns are more empathic than later borns. Father education is significantly related to the problem solving, and impulse control. There is significant relationship between father’s occupation and optimism dimension. The mother’s education shows positive and significant relationship with total general mood subscale of Emotional Intelligence. Adolescents of large families were happier than adolescents of smaller families.

Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) in a study of executives from a large Australian public service Organisation established relationship between Emotional Intelligence and workplace measure of leadership effectiveness. The sample consisted of 41
executives who volunteered to participate in a career development center. There were administered an ability measure of Emotional intelligence (Mayere-Salovey Caruso emotional intelligence test Version 2.0) a measure of personality test 16 PF, and a measure of cognitive ability – The Wechsler abbreviated scale of intelligence (WASI). The results from the investigation revealed that EI was related to a leader’s effectiveness in being able to achieve organisational goals. The ability to perceive emotion and understand emotion of a leader had an impact on core leadership behaviour. Perceiving emotion was the strongest predictor of “how” measures leadership effectiveness. Dominance – a personality factor is the strongest predictor of the ‘what’ measure of leadership effectiveness. There is no significant co-relation between total EI and any of the 16 personality factors. Only vigilance, a personality factor co-related significantly with perceiving emotion. There was significant relationship between total EI score and verbal IQ, performance IQ, full scale IQ.

Kernbach and Schutte (2005) examined whether higher emotional intelligence displayed by service providers leads to greater customer satisfaction. A community sample of 150 participants viewed video clips depicting a service provider displaying three different levels of emotional intelligence in high or low service difficulty transactions.

Higher emotional intelligence displayed by the service provider led to greater reported satisfaction with the service transaction. Further, there was an interaction between emotional intelligence of the service provider and transaction difficulty. In the low transaction difficulty condition there was progressively more satisfaction at each
higher level of emotional intelligence of the service provider. In the high transaction
difficulty condition, there was low satisfaction in the low service provider emotional
intelligence condition, but no significant difference in satisfaction between the high
and medium levels of service provider.

**Gabel et al. (2005)** studied the construct of emotional intelligence (EI) as a
critical predictor for intercultural adjustment thereby leading to success. A significant
correlation was found between the interpersonal emotional component and specific
performance. Thus the capacities of empathy, social responsibility and social relations
may predict better performance in the specific characters of IA. Moreover, the
correlation between EI and adjustment dimensions showed significantly higher
correlations; while cultural adjustment is not correlated with any EI dimensions,
interaction fit correlates with all the EI dimensions except for stress management;
adjustment at the work place was only correlated with intrapersonal emotional
component. The correlation between adjustment variables and success variables
shows that cultural adjustment is positively correlated with satisfaction among global
managers. Adjustment at work correlates negatively with the wish to terminate the
assignment. In other words, those who adjust less well to work show greater interest
in terminating their assignment.

**Humphreys et al. (2005)** studied if the emotional structure of direct
healthcare workers was related to their commitment to the organisation. A total of 105
direct healthcare workers completed self-report surveys to determine their emotional
intelligence, emotional coping ability, and affective organisational commitment.
Pearson Product Moment Correlation and independent sample t tests were used to
analyze the data. A significant correlation was found between emotional intelligence, emotional coping ability, and organisational commitment. In addition, emotional intellect served as a moderating variable between coping ability and commitment such that those direct care workers who exhibited higher emotional coping abilities were more committed when emotional intelligence was high rather than low.

Olukayode and Ehigie (2005) examined how psychological diversity among work team members affects team interaction processes. Psychological diversity is described in terms of personality attributes (emotional stability, extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and agreeableness), need for achievement (nAch), and emotional intelligence. Team interaction processes include workload sharing, team communication, member flexibility, social cohesion, team viability. A survey research was conducted that involved 1,421 oil-drilling workers in 54 work teams. The participants were drawn from five major oil-drilling companies in Nigeria. Standardized measures were used to collect data on each of the variables examined. It was found that each of the measures of team interaction processes is predicted by different psychological diversity measures. However, emotional stability, extraversion, agreeableness and emotional intelligence are significant in predicting overall team interaction processes.

Hopkins (2005) examined the emotional intelligence competencies and styles underlying successful leadership by investigating the repertoire of competencies and leadership styles demonstrated by female and male leaders resulting in their success. In a sample of 105 managers in one financial services institution, using self and other ratings of emotional intelligence competencies, leadership styles and success, the
results demonstrate a strong pattern of significant differences between male and female leaders. Gender has a powerful influence on the images and profiles of successful leadership and there are distinctly divergent paths to success for male and female leaders.

There are constraints on the leadership behaviors and styles for both females and males in leadership positions as a consequence of the intersection of their gender roles with their organisational roles. The profile of successful female leaders includes a demonstration of a broad range of emotional intelligence competencies, although there is a negative effect upon their success when they exhibit the gender role expected competencies related to developing others. The successful male leaders also have a wide range of emotional intelligence competencies and are rewarded when they show their gender-expected individual achievement-oriented behaviors. The repertoire of leadership styles leading to success for men and women are also disparate. Men who exercise an affiliate or a democratic leadership style, styles incongruent with their expected gender role, are not successful; whereas female leaders must demonstrate a combination of gender congruent and incongruent ways of behaving, the pacesetting and coaching leadership styles, in order to be successful.

**Stubbs (2005)** examined the relationship between team leader emotional intelligence competencies, team level emotional intelligence, and team performance. Data were collected from 422 respondents representing 81 teams in a military organisation. Results show that team leader emotional intelligence is significantly related to the presence of emotionally competent group norms on the teams they lead, and that emotionally competent group norms are related to team performance.
Hoffman and Frost (2006) examined the impact of emotional, social, and cognitive intelligences on the dimensions of transformational leadership. Multiple measurement methodologies were used to conceptualize emotional, cognitive, and social intelligence. Subordinate ratings of three dimensions of transformational leadership were used as the criteria. Results indicate that a multiple intelligences framework is a useful approach to predict transformational leadership. Correlation analyses and multiple regression results indicated that the multiple intelligence framework explained between 10 and 25 percent of the variance in perceptions of transformational leadership and that assessment center dimensions explained additional variance beyond paper-and-pencil measures in transformational leadership.

Yildrln (2007) investigated emotional intelligence based on competencies for sales and IT people. A study was conducted on 111 employees of 12 firms from four different sectors in which firms benefited extensively from IT and sales activities. Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI, 2.0) was used for assessing the participants' emotional competencies. Independent sample t-test results showed that IT and sales employees were significantly different from each other in all main dimensions of ECI except for self-management. Also two separate discriminant analyses were conducted in four dimensions of EI and all emotional competencies in order to determine the ones that discriminate two groups of employees. According to the results of the discriminant analysis in four dimensions of ECI, except self-management, the other three dimensions had significant loads to discriminate all groups. However, on competency basis there was no dominant emotional competency that separated one
group of employees from the other. The results showed that it was more meaningful to use clusters of competencies for constructing competency models of these two positions than to use single competencies.

**Dimitriades (2007)** investigated the relative importance of personal-demographic and positional factors in predicting emotional intelligence (EI) among service workers in the Greek context. The study involved administering Schutte et al.'s SREIT test to employees engaged in retailing, insurance, banking, tourism, entertainment, professional and public services. Altogether data were collected from a total of 330 survey responses. The overall results of the data analysis suggest that twenty two percent of the variance in EI may be explained by the combined effect of personal (occupational choice) and positional factors (managerial level). Contrary to expectations, female gender and boundary-spanning role responsibilities were not statistically significant in the sample studied.

**Dries (2007)** studied the utility of using some indication of emotional intelligence (EI) to identify high potential in managers. Presupposed correspondences between the EI Personal Factors Model (Bar-On) and Briscoe and Hall's metacompetency model of continuous learning are elucidated. The study sample consisted of 51 high potentials and 51 “regular” managers, matched onto one another by managerial level, gender and age. All participants completed an online survey containing Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory, Blau's career commitment scale and a self-anchored performance item. EQ-i subscales: assertiveness, independence, optimism, flexibility and social responsibility appear to be “covert” high-potential identification criteria, separating between high potentials and regular managers.
Furthermore, high potentials display higher levels of job performance and, supposedly, less boundaryless career attitudes.

**Chiva and Alegre (2008)** analyzed the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and job satisfaction, by taking into consideration organisational learning capability (OLC). Data were collected from eight Spanish ceramic tile manufacturers. The survey was addressed to shop floor workers, and 157 valid questionnaires were obtained, representing a response rate of 61 per cent. This paper proposes that OLC plays a significant role in determining the effects of EI on job satisfaction.

**Jamali et. al. (2008)** studied of EI in the Lebanese context, investigating empirically variations in EI competency scores (self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social awareness and social skills) in a sample of 225 Lebanese employees/managers. The study provides preliminary feedback on the possibility of detection of systematic variations in EI levels across demographic variables in the workplace and highlights relevant implications accordingly. The findings suggest differences in EI scores across different EI competencies for males and females, with males scoring higher on self-regulation and self-motivation, and females scoring higher on self-awareness, empathy and social skills, and that EI levels increase significantly with managerial position.

**Groves et. al. (2008)** studied whether it is possible to deliberately develop emotional intelligence (EI) as conceptualized in the Mayer and Salovey model. This study utilized a sample of 135 fully-employed business students in a treatment/control
group research design in which treatment group participants underwent an intensive 11-week EI training program. Additional samples of 270 and 130 fully employed business students were utilized to develop an EI measure appropriate for EI development. The results indicate that EI can be deliberately developed; the treatment group demonstrated statistically significant overall EI gains and across each EI dimension, while the control group did not show any significant pre-/post-test differences.

Heffernan et. al. (2008) explored the development of trust for relationships between staff and customers in the banking sector and to investigate possible links between financial performance of relationship manager and their levels of emotional intelligence (EI) and trust. The result revealed that trust was found to be made up of three components: dependability; knowledge; and expectations. Further, there were significant correlations between both trust and EI, when compared to the financial performance of a relationship manager.

McEnrue et al. (2009) examined the separate and combined effects of three individual characteristics on training gains achieved in a leadership development program designed to enhance participants' emotional intelligence (EI). The overall purpose was to test heretofore untested propositions advanced by various theorists concerning the impact of openness to experience (OE), self-efficacy (SE), and receptivity to feedback (RF) on training outcomes. The study utilized a sample of 135 fully-employed business students in a treatment/control group research design. The findings suggest that leadership development professionals will likely derive differential EI training gains depending upon participants' status across several
variables. Receptivity to feedback was directly associated with EI training gains while the SE-RF and SE-OE interactions were predictors of EI training gains.

2.6 SCOPE AND NEED OF THE STUDY

There are plethora of issues in an organisation that are detrimental in achieving the organisation goals. The issues related to technology can be easily resolved with appropriate strategic decisions of the top management. But the issues related to people and their development of their competency has myriad of issues to be looked into as it plays a pivotal role in achieving the organisational goals. The human resource of an organisation should coordinate, cooperate align with the organisation’s thinking to achieve the desired goals. In the absence of focus from all, the achievement of the goals will remain a mirage for all. On the other hand, if all work together with team spirit, the daunting and insurmountable will be achieved with ease and effortlessness. In this context, the competencies such as empathy, interpersonal relationship, innovation, resilience etc on the part of the leaders will play a very vital role. The organisation under study is public sector undertaking which is facing stiff competition from private and MNCs, unseen in the yesteryears. If executives possess or enhance the competencies related to Emotional Intelligence, the organisation can face the competition and be a market leader. Such thoughts induced the researcher to carry out this research and get first hand information.

The present study is focussed on understanding the level of Emotional Intelligence possessed by the executives. Further, the study examines the leadership styles and Leadership effectiveness prevalent in the organisation. The study will be useful for the organisation to develop Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness by
understanding the levels in various Emotional Intelligence factors such emotional awareness, emotional expression, intentionality, creativity, resilience, interpersonal connections, compassion, outlook, integrity etc. The present study also focuses on the contribution of Emotional Intelligence factors on Leadership Effectiveness and also on the association of socio-economic characteristics on Emotional Intelligence factors and Leadership. The researcher with more than a decade of rich experience in the field of Human Resource Management field carried out this investigation with zeal and confidence. The investigator feels that a thorough examination has been done to the extent possible.

2.7 CONCLUSION

The survey of the related literature and previous studies reveal that organisation is interested in enhancing the leadership effectiveness for achieving the organisation goals. In this era of knowledge economy, the skills and Emotional Intelligence competencies of leaders play a pivotal role in steering the company to the pinnacle of success. Hence, the organisations are showing keen interest in developing Emotional Intelligence of their leaders as it contributes to leadership effectiveness. It is also found that most of the studies are outside India. Further, most of the studies are focussed on private sector organisations.