CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research has shown that EI is the common element that influences the different ways in which people develop in their lives, jobs, and social skills; handle frustration; control their emotions; and get along with other people. It is EI that forms the basis of a difference between a simply brilliant person and a brilliant manager. Ultimately, it is EI that dictates the way people deal with one another and understand emotions. Hence, EI is considered important for business leaders because if they are insensitive to the mood of their staff, or team, it can create frustration and, therefore, not get the best out of people (Anonymous, 2004). To have an insight into the nature of Emotional Intelligence, as a concept and its relationship with Transformational Leadership Behavior, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Success, the related literature is summarized as given below:

2.1 STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Salovey and Mayer (1990) evaluated Emotional Intelligence of more than 3000 men and women in the age groups varying from teens to 50s. It was found that on average adults had higher EQ. There were small but steady and significant increases in Emotional Intelligence with advancing age. A peak was observed in the 40s age group. It was confirmed that Emotional Intelligence developed with increasing age and experience as a person progressed from childhood to adulthood. Hall and Halberstadt (1994) found that women are somewhat better on tests of reading comprehension, perceptual speed, associative memory, and composition. Men are somewhat better in mathematics, social studies and in scientific knowledge. To the list of tasks at which women are somewhat better may be added Emotional Intelligence. In a study women performed 0.5 standard deviation higher than men. It is women in more powerful positions rather than less, however, who exhibit the greater emotional accuracy. The fact that women are slightly superior to men in perceiving emotion has been known for sometime, through tests of non-verbal tests of nonverbal perception (that include emotion) such as the PONS (Rosenthal et al, 1979), as well as through earlier developed tests of Emotional Intelligence (Mayer & Geher, 1996). Stein (1997) found gender differences in EI. He administered emotional quotient (EQ) assessments to 4500 men and 3200 women and found that women scored higher than
Bar-On (2000) analyzed the scores on over 7100 people and found that no significant differences exist between males and females regarding overall emotional and social competence; but he does indicate some gender differences for a few factorial components of the construct. Bar-On theorizes that females appear to be more aware of emotions, demonstrate more empathy, relate better interpersonally, and act more socially responsible than men. Men, on the other hand, appeared to be able to have better self-regard, cope better with stress, solve problems better, and be more independent, flexible, and optimistic than women.

Carstensen, Pasupathi, Mayr, and Nesselhaude (2004) found that there is a correlation between the age and emotional intelligence. Moreover, Kafetsios (2004) reported that middle-aged persons scored higher emotional intelligence than the younger persons. Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002) found that there is a positive significant relationship between education and EI.

Gibbs (1995) suggested that emotions, not IQ, may be the true measure of human intelligence. In the corporate world, IQ gets you promoted but accounts for only 20% of success. Another study pointed that social and emotional abilities were four times more important than IQ in determining professional success and prestige amongst a sample of 80 Ph.D.’s in science (Feist & Barron, 1996). Bar-On said, “This scientifically demonstrates that emotional intelligence is just as important, if not more important, than cognitive intelligence in predicting success in the workplace.”

McClelland (1998) said that IQ was remarkably unsuccessful at predicting success in a work role. Though intelligence lays necessary foundation for successful performance, it is other characteristics that distinguish superior from average performers. These characteristics are called competencies or in other words emotional competency. It is a learned capacity based on emotional intelligence that contributes to effective performance at work. Stein and Book (2000) in his study provides concrete evidence that Emotional Intelligence is significantly and highly correlated with job performance, while cognitive intelligence has shown a very low and insignificant correlation with performance in the workplace. Turner (2004) stated that EI is the softer component of total intelligence and that it contributes to both...
professional and personal lives. Traditional IQ is the ability to learn, understand, and reason. It is now thought to contribute only 20% to one’s success, whereas emotional quotient (EQ), which is the ability to understand oneself and interact with people, contributes 80%. EQ is critical to effective leadership. IQ has been linked to job performance and is a key element in recruitment. However, EQ is evident in the leaders’/managers’ ability to retain their positions and be successful in their roles. The fact is that most firms hire for intelligence (IQ) and sack because of attitude (EQ).

Pesuric and Byham (1996) have revealed 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, lost-time 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 by $250,000. Hay/McBer Research and Innovation Group (1997) has revealed that for sales representatives at a computer company, those hired based on their emotional competence were 90 percent more likely to furnish their training than those hired on other criteria. They also revealed further that at a national furniture retailer, sales people hired based on emotional competence had half the dropout rate during their first year. They also revealed that in a national insurance company, insurance sales agents who were weak in emotional competencies such as self confidence, initiative, and empathy sold policies with an average premium of $54,000. Those who were very strong in at least 5 or 8 key emotional competencies sold policies worth $114,000. Spencer et al (1997) has revealed that at L’Oreal, sales agents selected on the basis of certain emotional competencies significantly outsold salespeople selected using the company’s old selection procedure. On an annual basis, salespeople selected on the basis of emotional competence sold $91,370 more than the other salespeople did, for a net revenue increase of $2,558,360. Salespeople selected on the basis of emotional competence also had 63 percent fewer turnovers during the first year than the turnover of those selected in the typical way. Cherniss (1999) quotes Bar-On and Handley and reveals that the US Air Force used the EQ-I to select recruiters (the Air force’s frontline HR personnel) and found that the most successful recruiters scored significantly higher in the emotional intelligence competencies of Assertiveness, Empathy, Happiness, and Emotional Self Awareness. The Air Force also found that by using emotional intelligence to select recruiters, they increased their ability to predict
successful recruiters by nearly three-fold. The immediate gain was a saving of $3 million annually. Boyatzis (1999) has revealed that experienced partners in a multinational consulting firm were assessed on the EI competencies plus three others. Partners who scored above the median on 9 or more of the 20 competencies delivered $1.2 million more profit from their accounts than did other partners – a 139 percent incremental gain. Salovey et al (1999) on a group of engineers administered an EQ test and also given an independent work evaluations. On the basis of results, it was found that EQ was able to significantly predict “star performers”. The ‘adaptability’ factor in EQ was the best predictor of ‘star performing’ engineers. This study revealed that EQ could play a significant role in the selection of high performing engineers. Another study revealed that individuals who scored higher in the ability to perceive accurately, understand and appraise others’ emotions were better able to respond flexibly to changes in their social environments and built supportive social networks. Nelson and Campbell (2000) outlined the importance of Emotional intelligence as a determinant of conflict management skills and in turn is a major predictor of managerial success. American Express Financial Advisors (AEFS) developed a program called FOCUS (focus on coping under stress) and has trained more than 2000 people in emotional competencies. Follow up research shows that eighty –eight percent of the AEFS managers said that emotional intelligence is important to their job performance and personalities. It was found that there was an eighteen – percent increase in sales following the training.

Barsade (1998) did an experiment at Yale University on a group of volunteers, playing the role of managers who come together in a group to allocate bonuses to their subordinates. A trained actor was planted among them. In some groups the actor projected cheerful enthusiasm, in others relaxed warmth, in others depressed sluggishness, and in still others hostile irritability. The results indicated that the actor was able to infect the group with his emotion. Good feelings led to improved cooperation, fairness and overall group performance.

Bachman (1998) findings report that the most effective leaders in the US Navy were warmer, more outgoing, emotionally expressive, dramatic and sociable. Goleman (1998) said that IQ and technical skills are important, but Emotional Intelligence is the sin qua non of leadership. Effective leaders have a high degree of Emotional Intelligence i.e. self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills.
which can be learned with right approach. Emotionally intelligent leaders achieve better performance by creating an emotional intelligent climate, modeling an emotional intelligent leadership style and exercising Emotional Intelligence competencies. Developing and using these skills leads to star performance at work. McClelland (1998) did a study on leaders in 30 different organizations. It was found that the most powerful leadership differentiators were self-confidence, achievement drive, developing others, adaptability, influence and leadership. Bliss (2000) in his study found out that three aspects of emotional intelligence provide the basis and foundation for the leader’s ability to make effective decisions. These skills are self-awareness, communication & influence, commitment and integrity. Managers who do not develop their EI have difficulty in building good relations with peers, subordinates, superiors and clients. Leaders who are high on the various components of emotional intelligence are better able to make effective decisions. Cavallo and Brienza (2001) have explored the relationship between emotional competence and leadership excellence. The study was carried on 358 managers across Johnson and Johnson Consumer Companies (JJCC) globally to assess the specific leadership competencies that distinguish high performers. It will enable to match employees’ interests and skills to their responsibilities. The understanding of people will make the managers effective in performing their tasks. People skills are vital for the managers. These make them aware of how they have to relate with the subordinates and appraise their behavior. Global research from leading companies confirms that emotional competencies actually impact the bottom line. A study of 1,000 sales personnel from a large, US based international company demonstrates that the characteristics most predictive of sales success were assertiveness, empathy, happiness, emotional self-awareness and problem solving skills. The findings from the Hay database, incorporating more than 4000 reports on people who have been assessed using ECI, indicates that the means and standard deviations for ratings on all the EI competencies do not differ substantially from country to country. Australian and New Zealand managers/leaders are not rated as strongly on emotional self-awareness and empathy as North-American leaders. This is not because the leaders in this area of the world are devoid of feelings or are unable to be in touch with their emotions and their responses to them but simply because they don’t open up and speak frankly about their own and others’ feelings, unlike their North American counterparts. Leaders who are not emotionally self-aware will not be mentally tough enough to succeed in tomorrow’s volatile business environment. Malhotra (2001) pointed out the
significance of understanding emotional competencies for the leaders in the organizations. The focus is upon developing the six different leadership styles, which have emerged from components of Emotional Intelligence as given by Goleman. It is of paramount importance for the leaders to develop and enhance their Emotional Intelligence in order to be successful.

Sehgal (1999) carried out a study to investigate relationships among Emotional Intelligence, Psychological well-Being and Eysenckian Personality dimension. The sample consisted of 150 adolescents in the age group of 15 to 17 years, out of which 75 girls and 75 boys were randomly selected from Model schools in Chandigarh. The results revealed that EQ had positive and significant relationship with Psychological Well being. However, none of the Eysenckians Personality dimensions were related to EQ.

Bachman et al (2000) have revealed that the most successful debt collectors in a large collection agency had an average goal attainment of 163 percent over a three-month period. They were compared with a group of collectors who achieved an average of only 80 percent over the same time period. The most successful collectors scored significantly higher in the emotional intelligence competencies of self-actualization, independence, and optimism.

Johnson (1999) focused the consequences of emotional incompetence of managers in the organizations. Emotionally dumb managers not only destroy their team members but also incur losses to the organizations, loose momentum and become ineffective.

Daftuar et al (2000) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and managerial effectiveness. EQ map by Cooper and Sawaf (1996) and managerial effectiveness questionnaire by Gupta (1996) were used to collect data. The sample of the study consisted of 25 managers and officers of the company. Results revealed that there is a positive relationship between different dimensions of emotional intelligence and managerial effectiveness. Mathur (2000) observed that emotional ability rather than high intelligence is the denominator for managing people effectively. In the corporate world, emotional abilities contribute by developing trust and sensitivity, taking complex decisions, managing conflict, controlling anger, maintaining cohesive team, building stress immunity and handling diversity. Shipper et al (2003) in their study found that the higher levels of agreement between the self and the use of managerial skills is indicative of high managerial self-awareness. A study was
conducted on 3,785 managers of a multinational firm located in the US, UK and Malaysia, and tested on two sets of managerial skills i.e interactive skills and controlling skills. It was found that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and managerial effectiveness. This relationship was supported for interactive skills in the US and UK samples and for controlling skills in the Malaysian and UK samples. Manager’s use of interactive skills was positively associated with higher performance. The study further revealed that self-awareness of different managerial skills varied by culture. In the low power distance cultures such as UK, and US self-awareness of interactive skills may be crucial relative to the effectiveness of managers. While in the high power distance cultures, such as Malaysia, self-awareness of controlling skills may be more crucial to managerial effectiveness. This supports the findings that high self-awareness corresponds to greater managerial effectiveness.

Sala (2001) explored the relationship between self-other discrepancy and job level with a measure of emotional intelligence. The results of the study demonstrated that higher-level employees are more likely to have an inflated view of their emotional intelligence competencies. It was less congruent with the perception of others who work with them often and know them well than lower level employees. This could be attributed to the fact that people higher in the organizational hierarchy get fewer opportunities to get constructive feedback from others.

Tsai (2001) has examined whether the psychological climate for service friendliness correlated positively with employee displayed positive emotions and whether such positive emotional displays influenced customer purchase decision and customer reactions concerning an organization. Data were collected from 290 sales clerks in 156 retail shoe stores in Taiwan, and from 284 customers who were served by one of the sales clerks. Results indicated a positive relationship between psychological climate for service friendliness and employees’ displayed positive emotions. The study also indicated that employees’ positive emotional displays increase a customer willingness to return to the store and pass positive comments to friends.

Druskat and Wolff (2001) in their research focused on becoming intelligent about emotions. In an era of teamwork, it is essential to create norms to enhance emotional intelligence of teams. By establishing norms for emotional awareness and regulation
at all levels of interaction, teams can build solid foundations of trust, group identity, and group efficacy, which they need for true cooperation and collaboration. These in turn lead to better decisions, more creative solutions, higher productivity and organizational effectiveness. Brigette (2002) has argued that the degree of emotional competence demonstrated by members of a team determine whether member interactions build cohesiveness and high performance. The study examined the relationship between the average score of team members on thirteen emotional intelligence (EI) competencies, and ratings of team cohesiveness and performance in 18 teams in an Executive MBA program. Results showed EI competencies of influence, empathy, and achievement orientation were positively related to student and faculty rating of team cohesiveness. Empathy was positively related to student ratings of team performance. Welch (2003) said that EI enables teams to boost their performance. In an era of teamwork, it is essential to figure out what makes teams work. His research has shown that just like individuals, the most effective teams are the emotionally intelligent ones and that any team can improve and attain higher levels of EI. In his study, teams with identical aggregate IQ were compared, and it was found that teams with high levels of EI outperformed teams with low levels of EI by a margin of two to one. He highlighted two key points. First, there is evidence that EI in teams is a significant factor. Second, there is the assertion that EI can be developed. He proposed that these five EI team competencies build on individual EI skills: inclusiveness, adaptability, assertiveness, empathy, and influence. However, these competencies are not enough on their own. Trust is the foundation of teamwork for it to be a truly joyous undertaking; it allows people to examine where they can improve without becoming self-critical or defensive.

Goleman et al (2002) has conducted a research on a global database of 3,871 executives which showed that particular leadership styles affect an organization and its emotional climate. The study revealed that the climate that resulted from various leadership styles affected financial results, such as return on sales, revenue growth, efficiency and profitability. Results had shown that, all other things being equal, leaders who used styles with a positive emotional impact had better financial returns. It was also found that leaders with the best results used six distinct leadership styles in different measures depending on the business situation.
Mukherjee (2002) had examined the possible relationship between different components of emotional intelligence and self-monitoring behavior. The study comprised of 57 MBA final year students from Calcutta with an average age of 23 years. Emotional intelligence and self-monitoring behavior were measured with the help of standardized questionnaires. The findings of the study reveal that there exists a moderate but significant relationship between emotional expression and self-monitoring behavior while emotional self-awareness is found to be negatively correlated with self-monitoring behavior.

Kelkar and Pethe (2002) in their study have made an attempt to examine the level of EQ in 45 management practitioners and 50 professional students. Emotional intelligence was measured with the help of emotional intelligence scale by Hyde et al. 2002. The findings reveal that there is a significant difference in the level of emotional intelligence of two groups and the level of emotional intelligence in management practitioners is higher than that of the professional students.

Rajkhowa (2002) conducted a study on EQ of Indian Administrative Officers. The sample consisted of 60 IAS officers of Assam cadre. The results show that 77 percent of IAS officers had average EQ. However, 15 percent of IAS officers have shown high EQ scores. This implies that there is a trend among IAS officers to move from moderate to high EQ.

Gundlach et al (2003) highlighted the role of emotional intelligence in the development of self-efficacy, and pointed out that EI has an impact on self-efficacy through its influence on the casual reasoning processes and emotions involved in reacting to important workplace outcomes.

Singh (2003) in his research made an attempt to ascertain empirically whether different professions require different levels of emotional intelligence or not. It was found that professions like that of an artist, insurance, advertisement, social-work, teaching, legal, tourism, politics, business/entrepreneurship and police requires a very high level of EQ to be successful in any of these professions. While professions like judiciary, administration, information technology, medicine, banking, engineering, accountancy and nursing require a moderate EQ so as to perform effectively.
**Vorbach and Foster (2003)** had examined emotional and social competence in early adolescence, focusing on the relationship between the ability to identify the emotions of another, emotion regulation, friendship quality, and peer-identified pro-social and overtly aggressive behavior. Gender was examined for potential moderator status. Findings indicated that the ability to identify others’ emotions could be measured in a relatively mixed effectiveness. Many of the emotional competence scores were not significantly related to each other and different scores had different relationships with the criterion variables. It was suggested that emotional competence is composed of a set of skills, and talking about those skills independently provides a more accurate portrayal and assessment of an individual. Control over one’s emotions emerged as a key variable in maintaining positive social interactions. Early adolescents who were better able to control their emotional displays reported greater friendship quality, behaved in pro-social ways, and were less aggressive in relation to their peers than those who were less adept at this. Emotion regulation was not related to friendship quality or to proactive pro-social behaviour, although those who did better at recognizing others’ emotions were more likely to have their peers report that they were warm and friendly and less likely to be aggressive. The hypothesized moderating role of gender was not supported.

**Butler and Waldroop (2004)** found from their psychological tests on more than 7000 business professionals that the four distinct dimensions of relational work are influence, interpersonal facilitation, relational creativity and team leadership. The knowledge of these people skills enables the managers in hiring the right employees, making the best work assignments, rewarding performance and promoting career development in themselves and others. It enables to match employees’ interests and skills to their responsibilities. The understanding of people makes the managers effective in performing their tasks. People skills are vital for the managers. It makes them aware as to how they have to relate with the subordinates.

**Deepak (2004)** pointed out the significance of emotional intelligence in strategy formulation for business performance improvement. He suggested that EI gives a structured pathway to improve employees self awareness, self management and relationship management. People with high EI have good interpersonal relationships and could become effective leaders. This resulted in improved business performance.
in the organizations. To achieve this objective coaching should be given to improve “soft skills” of the people i.e training people in emotion management, communication, leadership, vision, resilience, flexibility and other EI competencies. Thus it is important that people related aspects are improved to enhance performance.

Lee (2004) has suggested that through buyer-seller interaction, salespeople would influence how customers feel when shopping. Salespersons are likely to have an impact on customer’s emotions. The study explains the association between salesperson attributes and customer’s emotions in buying situations that entail substantial customer/salesperson interaction. This study found several factors affecting emotion constructs and those construct’s effect on the relationship satisfaction and further intention. The major findings of this study can be summarized as follows. (1) There is a positive relationship between selected characteristics of salespeople (trustworthiness, empathy, and professional appearance) and customers’ positive emotion.; (2) There is a negative association between certain salesperson attributes (trustworthiness, empathy, and accessibility) and customers’ negative emotion.; (3) Customers are more satisfied with their relationship with the salesperson when they experience a higher level of positive emotion.; (4) When customers experience higher negative emotion, customers are less satisfied with the relationship; and (5) Customers are more likely to maintain their relationship with the salesperson when they are more satisfied with that relationship. Findings from this provide insights for managers about what must be done to attract and retain customers. As customers interact with sales personnel, fostering favorable customer emotions can conceivably lead to satisfied customers and build ongoing relationship.

Cumming (2005) explored the relationship between EI and workplace performance with a sample of workers from New Zealand. In addition she studied the relationship among demographic factors, EI and workplace performance. The results of her study suggested that a significant relationship exists between EI and workplace performance. In case of EI and demographic factors, no significant relationships were found between gender and EI, age and EI, occupational groups and EI, neither between education and EI.

Shanker and Sayeed (2006) conducted a study on 339 practising managers to find out whether the various dimensions of EI were correlated with professional development indicators of self-rated job success and number of promotions attained
during one’s tenure in the organization. It was supported that the emotionally intelligent managers would tend to attain greater professional development (assessed by number of promotions attained and rated job success) than those who are less emotionally intelligent. The findings further suggest that emotionally intelligent managers are most valued human resource for the organizations as they extensively contribute to organization’s capability and resourcefulness.

*Travis and Lac (2006)* have claimed that emotional intelligence has received an intense amount of attention in leadership circles during the last decade and continuing debate exists concerning the best method for measuring this construct. They have analyzed leader emotional intelligence scores, measured via skill and ability methodologies, against leader job performance. Two hundred twelve employees from three organizations participated in this study. Scores on the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal, a skill-based assessment, were positively, though not significantly, correlated with scores on the MSCEIT, an ability–based assessment of emotional intelligence. Scores on the MSCEIT did not have a significant relationship with job performance in this study, whereas, scores on the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal had a strong link to leader’s job performance. The four subcomponents of the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal were examined against job performance. Relationship management was a stronger predictor of leader job performance than the other three subcomponents. Social awareness was the single emotional intelligence skill that did not have a significant link to leader job performance. Factor analysis yielded a two component model of emotional intelligence encompassing personal and social competence, rather than confirmation of a four-part taxonomy.

*Kathy (2007)* has maintained that high school students will need a high level of skill in the social and emotional arena to be ready for competitive employment in the 21st century. In a 2006 survey, human resource professionals said that five skills were most crucial to high school graduates’ success: professionalism/work ethic, teamwork, oral communications, ethics/social responsibility, and reading comprehension. Kathy notes that four of the five skills are squarely in the area of social and emotional competence, and that the off-tested domains of math and science talent were far down this list. Kathy describes the five key components of social and emotional learning viz- social awareness, self-awareness, self-management, relationship skills, and responsible decision making must be involved into curriculum and classroom practice.
Koman and Wolff (2008) has examined the relationship among team leader EI competencies, as measured by the ECI 2.0, team level EI, as assessed using the Group Intelligence measure, and team performance which was determined using a subjective measure (i.e, asking upper level officers to evaluate multiple teams within the command overtime) and objective measures (i.e., percentage of raw material waste; number of accidents; and percentage of flight objectives met). Results revealed that team leader EI is significantly related to the presence of emotionally competent group norms (ECGN) on the teams they lead, and that ECGN are related to team performance. Results provide three main implications for practice: (1) employing leaders with developed EI competencies increases both their own personal performance as well as that of the teams they lead, (2) one means through which organizations can develop emotionally competent groups is to develop or hire emotionally competent managers who purposefully focus on developing ECGNs, and (3) in addition to developing emotionally competent first line leaders, organizations should develop emotionally competent executive leaders because each individual on the executive management team influences the development of ECGNs on the teams he or she leads.

2.2 STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

Since the last decade interpersonal skills have become more integral to effective leadership (Goleman, 1998), where leaders were once seen to control, plan, and inspect the overall running of an organization. In today’s service-oriented industries, leadership roles are also expected to motivate and inspire others, to foster positive attitudes at work, and to create a sense of contribution and importance with and among employees (Hogan et al, 1994). The contemporary leadership requirements have placed new demands on leadership training programs to develop these skills in evolving leaders and on organizations involved in leadership selection to identify them in potential candidates (Fulmer, 1997). As a result, research has been exploring the underlying attributes and behaviors of leaders who successfully perform these contemporary leadership roles in order to identify leadership selection and training criteria for the recruitment and development of effective leaders (Church & Waclawski, 1998; Sternberg, 1997).
Leader has to have emotional intelligence to align personal and subordinate goals to accomplish company goals. Belasco and Stayer (1993) suggest four responsibilities a leader must implement at all levels of an organization. First, transfer ownership for work to the people who do the work. Second, create the environment where the transfer of ownership can take place, where each person wants to be responsible for his or her own performance. This entails painting a clear picture of what the company believes great performance is, for the company and each person; focusing individuals on the few great performance factors; developing in each person the desire to be responsible for his or her performance; aligning organization systems and structures to send a clear message as to what is necessary for great performance; engaging each individual’s heart, mind and hands in the business of the business; and energizing people around the business focus. Third, develop individual capability and competence. Fourth, create conditions in the organization that challenge every person to continually learn, including him or herself. These four principles align personal and company goals through emotional intelligence.

How emotional intelligence is used to express leadership is also presented by Covey. According to Covey (1989), there are seven habits of highly effective people to identify the unique human capability or endowments that are associated with each habit. The primary human endowments are (1) self-awareness or self-knowledge; (2) imagination and conscience; (3) volition or will power. The secondary endowments are (4) an abundance mentality; (5) courage and consideration; (6) creativity; (7) self-renewal. The effect of developing the first three habits significantly increases self-confidence. One comes to know oneself in a deeper and more meaningful way. Understanding of one’s nature, deepest set of values and unique contribution capacity become clearer. This is the foundation of emotional intelligence as defined by Goleman – self-awareness. It is also the building of motivational ability. Covey continues, saying that as the first three habits continue to be developed, one’s sense of identity, integrity, controls and inner-directedness will increase. There will be an increase in caring about what others think of themselves and their relationship with oneself. This is the development of the self-regulation and empathy aspects of emotional intelligence. The next three habits describe the social skills of emotional intelligence. They help a person to heal and rebuild important relationships. Good relationships will improve, becoming more solid, more creative and more
The seventh habit is developing one’s self through the use of the first six habits. It is taking the time to reflect or further develop self-awareness.

One variable that has recently gained much popularity as a potential underlying attribute of effective leadership is the construct of emotional intelligence (EI) (Sosik & Megerian, 1999). It has been proposed that in leadership, dealing effectively with emotions may contribute to how one handles the needs of individuals, how one effectively motivates employees, and makes them “feel” at work (Goleman, 1998). Today’s effective leadership skills have been described to depend, in part, on the understanding of emotions and the abilities associated with EI (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Ryback, 1998).

The transformational/transactional leadership model (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1995) and the ability model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) provided the basis to examine this relationship. This model conceptualizes EI as intelligence in the traditional sense consisting of a set of mental abilities to do with emotions and processing of emotional information.

In organizational context, transformational leadership compared to transactional leadership is considered as more effective leadership style resulting in better organizational performance (Lowe & Kroeck, 1996).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) noted that transformational leadership appears to be dependent upon the evocation, framing and mobilization of emotion, whereas transactional leadership appears to be more dependent upon subordinates’ cognitions, and tends to follow a rational model of motivation (i.e. motivate employees to achieve basic goals with the reward of pay and security).

House (1998) suggested that the paradigm of transformational leadership is associated with higher levels of subordinate effort and performance and higher ratings of effectiveness from supervisors.

Sosik and Megerian (1999) looked at the self-awareness component of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. The results of the study provided empirical support for emotional intelligence being the foundation of other aspects of leadership. Leaders who underestimated their leadership were positively linked to
social self-confidence while leaders who overestimated their abilities were negatively related to sensitivity. The results also suggested "self-awareness may provide individuals with greater perceived control over interpersonal events and consequences in their life. Transformational leaders who are self-aware, possess high levels of self-confidence and self-efficacy and provide orientation for followers".

Barling et al (2000) examined the relationship between the transformational/transactional leadership paradigm (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1995) and emotional intelligence. The theoretical justification of Barling is primarily based on the models of Salovey and Mayer (1990), Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Goleman (1995, 1998). The authors propose that, consistent with the conceptualisation of idealized influence (a component of transformational leadership), leaders who are able to understand and manage their emotions and display self-control act as role models for followers, enhancing the followers’ trust and respect for the leader. Second, the authors suggest that leaders high in the emotional intelligence component of understanding emotions are more likely to accurately perceive the extent to which followers’ expectations can be raised, and this is related to the transformational sub-component of inspirational motivation. The ability to manage emotions and relationships permits the emotionally intelligent leader to understand followers’ needs and to react accordingly (related to the component of individualized consideration). In examining non-transformational leadership styles Barling suggests that two components of transactional leadership (management-by exception active and management-by exception passive) and the non-transactional component (laissez-faire) do not require self insight or empathy towards others, but suggest instead that they reflect basic reactive behaviors (and in the case of laissez-faire an unwillingness to take any action). He found that these leadership styles are not related to emotional intelligence. Examining leadership styles and emotional intelligence of 49 managers, Barling concluded that emotional intelligence is positively related to three components of transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualised consideration) and contingent reward (a component of transactional leadership). While Laissez-faire leadership and active and passive management-by-exception were unrelated to emotional intelligence.
Palmer et al (2001) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership and predicted that transformational leadership is considered to be more emotion based (involving heightened emotional levels) than transactional leadership. He correlated the sub-scales of a modified version of the Trait Meta Mood Scale, which measures the attention, clarity and mood repair dimensions derived from the Salovey and Mayer (1990) model, with the sub-scales of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (Bass and Avolio, 1995) which measures leadership style. Several significant correlations between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence were observed, for instance; the ability to monitor and the ability to manage emotions in oneself and others were both significantly correlated with the inspirational motivation and individualised consideration components of transformational leadership. Second, the ability to monitor emotions within oneself and others correlated significantly with the transformational leadership components of idealised attributes and idealised behaviors (combined, these components reflect "charisma"). Thus, the author suggests that two underlying competencies of effective leadership are the ability to monitor emotions in oneself and others and the ability to manage emotions.

Singh (2001) authored the first Indian book entitled *Emotional Intelligence at Work*. Using new research data, this book provides a conceptual understanding of emotional intelligence as also discusses several psychological aspects related to emotional intelligence, such as consequences of low and high EI, and levels of EI required for various tasks, and EI and leadership.

Gardner and Stough (2002) correctly note that there are many theoretical links between effective leadership and emotional intelligence, but there is little empirical research. They employed Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) which is used to assess EI and the MLQ which is used to assess leadership style. They predicted that there was a significant positive relationship of EI and TL but a strong negative relationship was found for laissez-faire leadership. They found that the ability to manage emotions in relationships allows the emotionally intelligent leader to understand followers’ needs and to react accordingly (related to the component of individualized consideration). The ability to monitor and manage emotions in oneself’
and others was both significantly correlated with the inspirational motivation and individualized consideration components of TL.

Caruso et al (2002) argue that leaders who are able to use emotions to guide decision-making are able to motivate their employees, and encourage open-minded idea generation, decision-making and planning, because they can consider multiple points of view. Additionally, a leader high in Emotional Intelligence is able to accurately appraise how his employees feel and can use this information to influence their employees’ emotions to ensure that they are receptive and supportive of the organisation’s goals. Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) believe that an intuitive connection exists between EI and leadership, and research has since substantiated this intuition. For example, overall transformational leadership – together with all the dimensions of transformational leadership – was found to correlate significantly with understanding of the emotions branch of EI. Murphy (2002) relayed that an expansion of leadership research to encompass EQ will provide ways to choose and develop successful leaders. He also found that EQ is exhibited in transformational leaders when involved in particularly stressful situations. Sivanathan and Fekken (2002) also showed that the followers perceived leaders with high EI as more effective and transformational. They found that EI is conceptually and empirically linked to TL behaviours. Hence, they concluded that having high EI increased one’s TL behaviours.

Schulte (2003) however, showed that identifying emotional intelligence competencies in individuals did not necessarily aid in the prediction of transformational leadership. Weinberger (2003) also showed less conclusive results in establishing the relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership style, and perceived leadership effectiveness. Through the testing of 24 research hypotheses, this study found no significant relationships between the perceptions of a leader’s leadership style (i.e transformational leadership style) and that of leader’s emotional intelligence. Nor did the study reveal a significant relationship between a leader’s perceived leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence, contrary to what has been suggested by many advocates of emotional intelligence. Mandell & Pherwani (2003) conducted a small study consisting of 13 male and 19 female managers in mid-
to large-size companies, with the goal of examining gender differences in the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. The leadership measure was the MLQ (5x-Rev.) and the EI measure was the EQ-I (Bar-on 1996). The researchers found that females were significantly higher in EI than males, but there were no gender differences while comparing the relationship between EI and Transformational leadership. There was an overall significant positive relationship between the total EI scores and transformational leadership scores of the managers. Mayer and colleagues have also found superiority of females over males with regard to managing own and others’ emotions.

Burbach (2004) found that transformational leadership style related to the emotional intelligence in general and positively correlated with specific, resonant managerial styles, and negatively correlated to specific dissonant leadership styles. Leban (2004) found that transformational leader behavior was significantly correlated with emotional intelligence to a greater degree than transactional leader behavior. Coetzee and Schaap (2004) found results among managers in South Africa and also established a relationship between EI and transformational and transactional leadership. Srivastava and Bharmanai kar (2004) examined the relationship of emotional intelligence with leadership effectiveness, success and job satisfaction. They collected data from 291 Indian army officers. EI was measured using a self-report measure, the Work Profile Questionnaire Emotional Intelligence version (WPQei), which is scored on seven different dimensions of EI (Camaron, 1999). Leadership style was measured by the 5x-short version of the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Perceived success of the leader was measured by a questionnaire developed by Pareek and Rao (1991) and job satisfaction was measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1994). They predicted that army officers who are more innovative, intuitive, self-aware, motivated, socially adept, empathetic and managed emotions was found to use transformational behaviors to motivate their subordinates. A positive relationship between contingent rewards, a component of transactional leadership and emotional intelligence suggested that it is complimentary to transformational leadership. They also showed that army officers with high scores on the emotional intelligence perceived themselves to be more successful in their careers but did not predict or was related with job satisfaction.
Punia (2005) predicted that executives who are more emotionally stable are said to be effective leaders even in diverse circumstances irrespective of their age, marital status or gender. He used Leadership Orientation Scale which helps in studying the four leadership frames viz. structural, human resource, political and symbolic frames and used Leadership development Scale to know the passive biasness of a leader and also used emotional intelligence questionnaire which was developed by N.K Chadha. He found that a person’s leadership style changes with age. As and when a person is less willing to adapt to changes and bring diversity, it will lead to a bias. The reason behind this lies in the fact that with growing age though a person’s emotional stability increases yet after peak it starts declining thereby creating proportionate relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership behavior of the executives. Marriage does not come much in the way of a leader in terms of his behavior, and emotional stability. Women executives have been found with humanistic or structural frame of leadership. Male executives decisions are more biased as compared to those of female executives but women executives have been found to be more emotionally intelligent.

Downey, Papageorgiou, and Stough (2005) study was a follow up on the earlier work of Gardner and Stough (2002) predicting a positive relationship between transformational leadership (TL) and various workplace scales and a negative relationship between EI measures and laissez-faire leadership. The difference in this study and the Gardner and Stough study was that 176 female Australian managers were the target leaders in this study. The measure of EI was the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) but, in this study, a second measure of EI was employed, the Trait-Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS) developed by Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, and Palfai (1995). The latter measure has three subscales focusing on attention to feelings, clarity of feelings, and mood repair. The third measure, designed for assessing intuition in managers, was the cognitive style index (Allinson & Hayes, 1996). Finally the measure of leadership style used was the MLQ. They found that three of the SUEIT workplace dimensions (understanding emotions, emotional management and emotional control) as well as two of the TMMS dimensions (attention to feelings and clarity of feelings) correlated positively with TL. However, only two of the EI dimensions correlated negatively with laissez-faire leadership. Kuypers and Weibler (2005) examined whether and how emotional competencies are incorporated into transformational leadership. For this they used only 15 items of the 46 items from the MLQ in their study, which only allowed them to focus on cognitive rather than emotional features and they also used Goleman’s
(2001) framework of emotional competencies for their investigation. They predicted that transformational components appear to connect theoretically with emotional competencies. The authors suggest that their “framework provides a ‘bedrock’ for more rigorous theory building, further analysis and empirical testing”. Brown et al (2005) noted that the connection between transformational leadership (TL) and EI has been well established. Their sample consisted of 2411 respondents which is composed of managers and supervisors of large U.S based manufacturing firm. The questionnaire included MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1996) which is used to assess TL, and the EQ-i (Bar-on, 1996) was used to assess several personality dimensions of EI. They predicted that there is no significant relationship between EI & TL or between EI and contingent reward and laissez-faire. The authors did not want to negate the importance of EI as a contributor of leadership, but they did state their belief that the EQ-i is not a useful tool for selecting managers.

Butler and Chinowsky (2006) examined 155 leaders in the construction industry. The Bar-on EQ-i test was used as the measure of EI. the MLQ Form 5x was used to measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. They found that there was a strong relationship between EI and transformational leadership.

2.3 STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB SATISFACTION

Job Satisfaction and Leadership behavior have been extensively researched within hospital, military, educational, and business organizations (Bass, 1990). Previous studies suggest that consideration leadership is positively related to employee job-satisfaction; and initiating structure is negatively related to job satisfaction. Some studies suggest that consideration leadership behavior is negatively related to job satisfaction (Hodge, 1976), while other studies found both initiating structure and consideration leadership behavior positively related to employee job satisfaction (Katerberg & Horne, 1981).

Emotional Intelligence and job satisfaction are related on a number of fronts. Based on the research of Locke (1969), job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are complex emotional reactions to the job. Again, Smith’s definition of job satisfaction as feeling or affective response to work situation is a subtle hint of the association between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Apart from these theoretical conjectures.
empirical evidences demonstrating positive and significant association between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction are abound.

Emotional Intelligence can create a pleasant workplace and affect employee’s job satisfaction, efficient management and organization development (Patra, 2004). EI as a stress easer at work has a positive effect on employee’s productivity. Studies show that EI is extremely important in productivity and job satisfaction (Jordan et al., 2002; Mallinger and Banks, 2003). Once directed correctly, emotions create assurance and commitment, which in turn increase job satisfaction and productivity (Cooper, 1998).

Kahn (1990) conducted two qualitative studies on job satisfaction among employees. Conditions in which people personally engage or disengage within the work environment were studied at an architecture firm and also at a summer camp. Employees reported that more psychologically meaningful job tasks resulted when those tasks included positive interactions with co-workers. Therefore, interpersonal relations can either promote or hinder the ability to express the self. Abraham (1999) shows the linkages between job satisfaction and EI. Higher levels of EI predicted higher levels of job satisfaction and stronger connections with co-workers and supervisors. Fisher (2000) explored the relationship between emotions experienced at work and job satisfaction, and proposed that as emotions in the workplace generally have a target (that is, being angry at someone, being proud of an achievement) then they are likely to be triggered by events in the workplace, are attributable to the job and will affect job satisfaction. The author suggested that interpersonal relations in the workplace might trigger more emotional responses than things like salary and chance of promotion. Using three measures of job satisfaction and the author’s own Job Emotion Scale, Fisher found a weak but significant relationship between emotions and some aspects job satisfaction (e.g. pay, promotion and supervision). A weak negative relationship was reported between negative emotion and all aspects of job satisfaction, which suggests that employees who do not report, or are unable to effectively manage negative emotions at work will be more satisfied with their job than those who are not.

orientation on that relationship was also studied. The Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dorheim, 1998), the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), the Job Satisfaction Measure adaptation (Cree, 1998) and the Internal-External Locus of Control scale adaptation (Levenson, 1973) were used to support the objectives. He found that Emotional intelligence was positively correlated with contextual performance and job satisfaction, while it was negatively correlated with external locus of control orientation. Job satisfaction and contextual performance were also positively correlated with each other and each was negatively correlated with external locus of control orientation. Job satisfaction and external locus of control orientation were not significant moderators or mediators of the relationship between emotional intelligence and contextual performance. The studied relationships did not differ significantly across organizations, ethnic groups and gender. Gardner and Stough (2003) assessed the relationship between workplace, EI, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. They also found that there was a positive relationship between internal job satisfaction and emotional recognition and expression but no relationship between external job satisfaction and emotional recognition and expression. Internal satisfaction in the job involves amount of autonomy and responsibility, variety in work while external satisfaction involves salary, physical environment, management and coworkers. The dimension of emotional recognition and expression is defined as being able to identify one’s own emotional states, and to express those to others. Therefore, an individual, who is high on this dimension, would be more able to identify, if they are satisfied with the internal features of their job than an individual who has difficulty in identifying his own emotions.

Sporrle and Whelp (2006) hypothesized that adaptive emotions result from logical cognition and vice-versa. Therefore, they used rational emotive behavior therapy which shows how job satisfaction increases. Employees with higher EI can effectively recognize frustration and stress-related emotions and, hence, control them in order to reduce stress. Such employees can also realize their professional needs and control them, so their job satisfaction increases. These employees have the ability to control their emotions and have better relationship with others. Therefore, managers assess their performance more positively. John (2008) examined the relationship between the principal's emotional intelligence and teachers' job satisfaction. The variables of
emotional intelligence and teachers’ job satisfaction have been studied independently and are both very well researched and documented. This study takes the works of Daniel Goleman, Richard Boyatzis and Annie McKee as the framework for understanding emotional intelligence, specifically considering competencies related to self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. Highly effective principals are emotionally intelligent and have satisfied teachers. Emotionally intelligent principals are those who are attuned to their own and others’ emotions. They are also adept at managing their emotions and those of others and building positive relationships. Teacher job satisfaction is defined as “an affective response to one’s job as a whole or to particular facets of it”. The survey measured teacher job satisfaction, while the responses to the principal interviews were coded for behaviors that correspond to fundamental competencies of emotional intelligence as defined by Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee in Primal Leadership (2004) and Resonant Leadership (2005). This study found a positive relationship between the competencies related to emotional intelligence demonstrated by the principal and teachers’ job satisfaction.

2.4 STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Understanding and regulation of one’s emotions as well as understanding others’ emotions are factors that affect intrapersonal well-being and interpersonal relations which also affect workers’ attitudes to their colleagues, their bosses and their job. Thus, EI may also affect organizational commitment. Very few researchers have looked at the role of emotions at the workplace, and specifically workplace emotional intelligence, as antecedents to organizational commitment. Are individuals who are more able to recognize, express and understand emotions at the workplace more committed to the organization?

Abraham (2000) examined the role of job control as a moderator among EI, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Abraham suggested that social relationships within the organization increase employee loyalty and commitment, and that as emotional intelligence is related to our ability to interact with others, that emotionally intelligent individuals might be more committed to their organization.
She assessed over 79 professionals from three industries and reported that the emotionally intelligent employees were happier and more committed to their organization. Abraham concluded that the social skills component of emotional intelligence leads to strong interpersonal relationships, which in turn influences employee commitment.

Despite using a non-workplace specific measure of emotional intelligence, the study by Abraham (2000) provides a useful framework for the hypothesis of the current study. It is predicted that there will be a positive relationship between the workplace measure of emotional intelligence adopted in this study and organizational commitment. It is also hypothesized that there will be a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Cherniss (2001) reported that emotionally intelligent people display cooperation, commitment and creativity which are important for organizational effectiveness. Carmeli, (2003) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes and found that relationship exists between the independent variables and work attitudes of which organizational commitment happen to be one of them.

Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002) found a positive relation between EI and organizational commitment, which suggested that EI is a determinant of employee loyalty to organizations. Also they investigated the relationship between EI and demographic variables. They did not find significant differences between males and females in terms of the overall EI score. However a significant relationship was found between age, education and EI.

Chris (2003) in his study revealed that emotional intelligence as measured by Empathy, Utilization of Feelings, Handling Relationships, and Self-Control factors is positively related to career decision-making, self-efficacy and that the Utilization of Feelings and Self-Control factors were inversely related to vocational exploration and commitment. Findings, however, failed to reveal sex as a moderator of the relationship between emotional intelligence and the career variables under investigation.

Rozell et al (2004) found that emotional intelligence was positively correlated with organizational commitment of some workers. It is expected that workers having high emotional intelligence will also be highly committed to their organizations.
2.5 STUDIES ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND SUCCESS

A growing body of research demonstrates that emotional intelligence is a better predictor of “success” than traditional measures of cognitive intelligence (IQ). The quality of effectiveness in organizations has come under the spotlight in the wake of corporate scandals rocking the world. The emotional maturity of organizational manager is very critical for the success of the business. Individuals with highly developed levels of Emotional Intelligence experience greater success as managers. Successful manager’s have more than intellectual capacity, they also have emotional intelligence.

The success of a manager is largely a factor of their ability to develop and maintain quality relationships and to manage the complexity and intensity of their own lives. The higher one goes on the corporate ladder, the more critical emotional intelligence becomes. High performing managers possess significantly higher levels of Self-Awareness, Self-Management capability, Social Skills and Organizational Savvy; all considered part of the Emotional Intelligence domain.

McClelland (1973) in his paper “Testing for Competence rather Than Intelligence” explored the competencies beyond the traditional concept of intelligence that are responsible for success. Goleman’s (1995) book Emotional Intelligence emphasized that people with emotional intelligence might be more socially effective. Time magazine (1995) published a report to explain that EI may be the best predictor of success in life. Pool (1997) found that IQ predicts only about 20 percent of career successes, which leaves the remaining 80 percent to other factors such as emotional intelligence. He reported that emotional well being is a predictor of success in academic achievement and job success. Cooper (1997) in his research studies found that it is people with high Emotional Intelligence and not high IQ alone that build stronger personal relationships, lead more effectively, take best decisions and have the ability to motivate themselves and others. They are more productive, build most dynamic organizations and experience career and life success.

Goleman (1998) noted that a 1997 survey of benchmark practices among major corporations, done by the American Society for Training and Development, found that four out of five companies (80%) are trying to promote emotional intelligence in their employees through training and development, through their hiring process and...
when evaluating performance. This study also revealed that six out of seven desired traits for entry-level workers were non-academic and those six were directly correlated with emotional intelligence. **Ryback (1998)** examined differences between successful recruiters and those who failed to meet recruitment quotas and found that higher levels of EI could predict which recruiters would be more successful. It helped U.S. Air Force, to implement the assessment of EI in all their recruitment and selection efforts.

**Cherniss (1999)** in a study of 515 senior executives found that emotional intelligence was a better predictor of success than relevant previous experience of high IQ. This study included executives from Latin America, Germany, and Japan and the results were almost identical in all the three cultures. These findings suggest that emotional intelligence may be a good predictor across cultural boundaries.

**Tomlinson (2002)** said “around one third of a leader’s success is based on IQ and expertise, and the other two third on EQ (EI)”. **Dulewicz and Higgs (2002)** in their research studies have demonstrated that EI is strongly correlated with individual advancement, and success in an organizational setting, and is related to leadership. Goleman said that the evidence from competency research shows that whilst for all jobs EI is twice as important for high performance as IQ and technical competencies. For leadership roles it accounts for 85% of the variance in high performing individuals. Goleman stated that “Emotional competence made the crucial difference between mediocre leaders and the best. The stars showed significantly greater strengths in a range of emotional competencies, among them influence, team leadership, political awareness, self-confidence and achievement drive. On an average close to 90% of their success in leadership was attributable to Emotional Intelligence”. **Dwivedi (2002)** found that EI related competencies are among highly successful managers. He concluded that 15 emotional competencies pertaining to the five interrelated dimensions (3 in each) of EI namely, empathy, self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation, and social skills were needed by managers to accomplish corporate success in Indian context.

**Chipain (2003)** in his exploratory study tested a model of emotional intelligence and a measure of sales performance. The participants for the investigation were sales representatives in the personal home products industry. Overall, the results supported the main hypothesis, which was that emotional intelligence positively related to sales...
performance. Moreover, the findings showed that the emotional intelligence of high performing sales professionals was significantly different from the emotional intelligence of low performing sales professionals. Age, formal education, professional experience, and ethnicity did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and sales performance. The findings suggest that emotional intelligence, when viewed from a global perspective, provides a valuable link with existing theories regarding sales success.

Sandi (2004) According to him, Emotional intelligence in the workplace is vital to corporate and business success. The ability to understand, honor and work effectively with clients, customers, and colleagues is the most important ingredient for workplace productivity. While it is tempting to believe that skill level, education, and expertise are the primary indicators of workplace success and productivity; research shows that workplace success - career success- is due more to emotional intelligence skills, rather than technical skills. These emotional intelligence skills, based on our ability to understand and serve our co-workers and customers, can be summarized in five categories: rapport, empathy, persuasion, cooperation, and consensus building. Burt Swersey, an engineering professor at Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute refers to these skills as the "five simple secrets of success". Developing these skills, and recognizing them in others, is essential for increasing workplace productivity and excellence.

Witte (2004) identifies the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and career success in a population with an intelligence quotient (IQ) in the ninety-fifth percentile. He used an online survey to measure career success and an online test to measure emotional intelligence among a sample with IQs in the ninety-fifth percentile. Career success was measured with both objective and subjective questions. The subjective measure used was a five question five-point scale developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990). To measure emotional intelligence he used the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), a performance based emotional intelligence test. His study was based on the following objectives: what is the distribution of emotional intelligence scores for a population with high intelligence quotients and what is the relationship between emotional intelligence and career success? It was found that the high IQ participants had lower emotional intelligence scores than the norm but were able to feel and be successful in their careers. His study demonstrates the need for further research into the relationship between IQ and emotional intelligence, particularly in regard to career success.
Hopkins & Bilimoria (2008) examined the relation between emotional and social intelligence competencies and organizational success, as determined by annual performance and potential ratings. The results showed no significant differences between male and female leaders in their demonstration of emotional and social intelligence competencies. The most successful men and women were also more similar than different in their competency demonstration. However, gender did moderate the relationship between the demonstration of these competencies and success. Male leaders were assessed as more successful even when the male and female leaders demonstrated an equivalent level of competencies. Finally, four competencies significantly separated the most successful male and female leaders from their typical counterparts: Self Confidence, Achievement Orientation, Inspirational Leadership and Change Catalyst.

2.6 SUMMING UP

In nutshell, it can be concluded that Emotional Intelligence is one of the most important elements which determine the personal and professional success of people. Studies across the globe had found that there is a positive relationship between EI and Transformational Leadership Behavior. Transformational leaders/managers are self-aware, effectively monitor and manage emotions in themselves and others, possess high levels of self-confidence and self-efficacy and provide orientation for followers. The findings of the studies on job satisfaction showed that the person with high level of EI can effectively manage emotions, recognize frustration and stress related emotions, which results in high levels of job satisfaction.

The research on EI and organizational commitment suggested that understanding and regulating of one’s emotions as well as understanding others’ emotions are factors that affect intrapersonal well-being and interpersonal relations which also affect workers’ attitudes to their colleagues, their bosses and their job. Thus, people high in Emotional Intelligence are more committed to their work.

Researchers had found that emotional intelligence is a better predictor of success than traditional measure of cognitive intelligence. Research shows that IQ accounts for only 20% of a person’s success in life while the remaining 80% can be attributed to EQ.
The researcher analyzed all the facts through review of literature and it was found that there is less empirical research on Emotional Intelligence in the area of Telecommunication Organizations. Thus, the present study has made an attempt to evaluate the impact of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership behavior, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and success on telecom managers under study.