IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI) ON MANAGERIAL PERFORMANCE: A CASE STUDY OF COMMERCIAL BANKS IN RAJASTHAN

Thesis submitted to
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Under the supervision of

Submitted by

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Dedicated

to my

loving daughter

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that -

1. The thesis entitled **"Impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) on Managerial Performance: A Case Study of Commercial Banks in Rajasthan"** submitted by Minakshi Nagar is an original piece of research work carried out by the candidate under my supervision, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Commerce and Management, University of Kota.

2. Literary presentation of the thesis is satisfactory and it is in a form suitable for publication.

3. Research work enhances the capability of candidate for critical investigation and independent judgement.

4. Candidate has put in at least 200 days of attendance every year.

Signature of supervisor

(With date)

Dr. R.A.Gupta

DECLARATION

I, Minakshi Nagar hereby declare that the thesis entitled **"Impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) on Managerial Performance: A Case Study of Commercial Banks in Rajasthan"** is an original piece of research work done by me under the supervision and guidance of Dr.R.A.Gupta for the Ph.D. programme in the Department of Commerce and Management, University of Kota. I further declare that this work has not formed the basis for the award of any Degree, Diploma, Fellowship or any other title for recognition.

Minakshi Nagar

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Minakshi Nagar

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AGFI	-	Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index
AMOS	-	Analysis of Moment Structures
ANOVA	-	Analysis of Variance
ATMs	-	Automatic Teller Machines
BG	-	Bhagavad Gita
CFA	-	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	-	Comparative Fit Index
CMSs	-	Conflict Management Styles
EC	-	Emotional Competency
ECI	-	Emotional Competence Inventory
EFA	-	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EI	-	Emotional Intelligence
EM	-	Emotional Maturity
EQ	-	Emotional Quotient
EQ-i	-	Emotional Quotient Inventory
ES	-	Emotional Sensitivity
ESI	-	Emotional Social Intelligence
FFM	-	Five Factor Model
GFI	-	Goodness-of-Fit Index
GMA	-	General Mental ability
IQ	-	Intelligence Quotient
KPAs	-	Key Performance Areas
MBA	-	Master in Business Administration
MEIS	-	Multifactor Emotional Intelligence

		Scale
MSCEIT	-	Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test
NCR	-	National Capital Region
PFC	-	Prefrontal Cortex
PGDBM	-	Post Graduate Diploma in Business Management
Ph.D.	-	Doctor of Philosophy
RMSEA	-	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
ROCI	-	Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
USAF	-	United States Air Force

INTRODUCTION

The academic aptitude of an individual worldwide was often given prime importance in education for several decades as high Intelligence Quotient (IQ), the measure of mental ability, has been equated with the great success in life. But since the 90's, the various researchers have identified that average graders often continue to outperform their more 'intelligent' counterparts at the workplace. On the basis of the review of several studies, the individual differences in the intelligence test performance account for utmost 25% of the life success factors (Sternberg, Wagner, Williams, and Hovarth, 1995), as a result, the rest of the 75% of factors remains unexplained.

As a result of the large number of research publications during the last two decades Emotional Quotient (EQ), the measure of Emotional Intelligence (EI), has been identified as an important factor in the performance and success of individuals both in their personal and professional lives. Emotional Intelligence is viewed as the ability to process emotional information and to regulate emotions (Mayer and Salovey, 1993). Some other psychologists like Bar-On (cited in Grubb III and McDaniel, 2007) consider EI as a non-cognitive intelligence and define it as an array of emotional and social competencies and skills that affect one's ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures.

The investigators like McClelland (1998) and Spencer and Spencer (1993) conducted studies in many organisations and their results suggest that about 68% of the competencies *viz*, capabilities or abilities related to superior performance are social or emotional qualities such as, self-confidence, teamwork, impact and influence, and developing others. Also, Goleman (1998a) in his research at nearly 200 large, global companies found that truly effective leaders are distinguished by a high degree of emotional intelligence. Without it, a person

can have world's best training, an insightful mind, and an interminable supply of good ideas, but he still won't make a great leader. Now EI has been identified as a popular measure for recognizing and developing effective leadership skills.

Conceptually, EI effectively supplements cognitive intelligence to predict superior performance through its components of self-appraisal, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. It is in the application of this competency, to identify, understand and use emotional information about oneself and others that leads to a superior performance (Boyatzis, 2008). EI competency is also seen to be increasingly significant to an individual's ability to be socially effective (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, and Boyle, 2006). Many researchers including Goleman (1998b), Côté and Miners (2006), and Brackett, Rivers, and Salovey (2011) reported the relationship between emotional intelligence and important work-related outcomes with the help of empirical research.

One important aspect of emotional intelligence that makes it more interesting and important to management researchers and trainers is that it is a learnable trait or competency. Researchers report that this trait can be developed by training (Goleman, 1995; Cooper, 1997).

1.1   Statement of the problem

The working environment of today has undergone a major transformation over the last decade, predominantly in terms of population in the workforce. The three generations compromising the workforce are the Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y approximately falling in the 51 to 69 years, 35 to 50 years, and 20 to 34 years age group respectively. These three generations greatly differ in their attitudes, skills, knowledge, perspectives, expectations, and working styles. The workforce comprising the Indian commercial bank branches is no exception. In the Indian banking sector an unusual high percentage of hiring has taken place past few years. The average hiring rate had increased to 60% by December 2013 from 15-20% in 2012-2013.This is primarily due to the branch

expansion by existing banks and the new banking licenses that are expected to be issued to corporate houses like Aditya Birla Group, Bajaj, etc. (Singh, 2014). In addition to this there are many employees in public sector banks who would be in their early 50s (Joshi and Joshi, 2009), which represents a good combination of three generations in banking sector. Since the banking sector plays a significant role in economic growth of our country which accentuates the need to manage the multigenerational workforce effectively.

There has been a significant change in the Indian banking sector and technological advances taking place at rapid pace play a key role in this change, so is operations, sales and distribution. Although this is an advantage for the new breed of clerical and officer cadre since they are well educated, technology oriented and highly energetic, but they are lured by lucrative salary and are highly aggressive in their career expectations which may result in low affective commitment to the banks. Conversely, the old employees are committed, knowledgeable, and experienced but not very techno savvy. These differences have potential for instigating interpersonal conflict at the workplace which makes it more challenging for the managers, particularly branch managers, to manage and motivate collaboration among their multigenerational employees.

The 'interpersonal conflict' is a phenomenon that arises between interdependent parties as they experience negative emotional reactions (jealousy, anger, anxiety or frustration) to perceived disagreements and interference with the attainment of their goals (Barki and Hartwick, 2001). Since as a bank branch manager one is required to supervise a team of employees at the branch, so the manager is likely to face interpersonal conflicts with his or her subordinates over work related issues. How effectively a branch manager is able to handle these interpersonal conflicts will determine his efficiency as a manager. Rao (1992 and 2004) in their study on identifying key performance areas (KPAs) of bank branch managers in India identified conflict *resolution* as an important area of 'managerial performance'. Also, managers spent about 24% of their time on handling conflicts, which makes it reasonable to consider *conflict resolution* as an

important factor determining 'managerial performance' (cited in Singh, 2006). In recent years, Emotional Intelligence is assumed to be related to conflict management at workplace. Those with higher levels of EI are more skilled at managing conflicts (Bodtker and Jameson, 2001; Jones and Bodtker, 2001). The present study is conducted to investigate that to what extent the emotional intelligence of the branch managers is related to their *mode* or *style* of handling interpersonal conflicts with their subordinates over work related issues.

1.2   The Indian Banking Scenario

The Indian Banking sector regulated by the apex banking authority in the country, the Reserve Bank of India, comprises scheduled and non-scheduled banks. The scheduled banks are listed in the second schedule of the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934. The scheduled commercial banks in India have been classified as: (a) public sector banks (State Bank of India and its associates, Industrial Development Bank of India, nationalized banks like Bank of Baroda, Punjab National Bank and Bank of India, and Regional Rural Banks), (b) private sector banks (old and new banks like Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India, Housing Development and Financial Corporation, and IndusInd Bank), and (c) foreign banks (e.g., Citibank, Royal Bank of Scotland, and Standard Chartered Bank). The Indian banking industry has undergone various stages of transition. Public sector banks had dominated the banking industry since independence. Post-independence, the government of India adopted a policy to promote economic growth and social change via banking sector. In the year 1969, banks were focussed on employment generation. This resulted in unprofitable and overstaffed banks with poor customer service in the year 1980s. Henceforth, in the 1990s, the Indian government adopted the policy of economic liberalization, privatization, and globalization in order to strengthen the Indian economy.

Post-economic liberalization, the Indian banking sector was opened to foreign banks and fresh licenses were issued in the private sector for new commercial banks. The new private sector banks with an advantage of having

adequate capital, lean staff, and being technology driven gave cut-throat competition to the public sector as well as the foreign banks. Earlier banks offered limited tangible services like different types of accounts, interest rates, and loan schemes to customers, but with increased competition, technological up gradation, and financial innovations customers have now an assortment of products and services to choose from. With the advent of information technology, the banking work technology has undergone a sea change. The majority of the banking operations have been computerized by most of the commercial banks especially in the last decade and the process is still on. Electronic banking has opened new vistas like internet banking, telephone banking, automatic teller machines (ATMs), and recently mobile banking to enhance customer's convenience.

Since banking sector plays an instrumental role in the economic development of any developing country like ours, its management is very important. The management of a commercial bank in India is quite unique and challenging in comparison to any other economic activity. In order to sustain in the competitive environment, banks need to focus on the management of their human resources. The fact that there has been no recruitment in public sector banks for the last several years till 2009 indicates that many of the employees would have reached 50 years of age (Joshi and Joshi, 2009). But in the past few years hiring has started at an unusual rate due to the expansion of branches by existing banks and the new banking licenses that are expected to be issued to some corporates. This has presented a new challenge before the managers in commercial banks, especially at the branch level, in terms of the management of multigenerational workforce. This variety of talent and differing views has the potential for conflict at the workplace, but a multigenerational workforce if managed effectively can be a source of competitive advantage for banks. Therefore, to capitalise on the strengths of a multigenerational team, bank managers need to manage interpersonal conflicts constructively at the workplace. This would keep their subordinates motivating, which in turn would result in developing a harmonious working environment.

1.3   Background of the study

As elaborated in the introduction that the immutable Intelligence Quotient (IQ), indicator of a person's overall mental ability, was believed to be the primary predictor of performance and success in life for a long time. It has also been presumed that managers with high IQ would be highly successful in their professional lives. But the researchers had become increasingly dissatisfied with the fact that general intelligence primarily predicted the success in one's life (Sternberg and Wagner, 1993; Sternberg et al., 1995). This resulted in further research to explore the unexplainable factors which greatly determine success in human life. The ensuing research suggest that apart from the cognitive abilities, other abilities like interpersonal and intrapersonal skills requiring emotional management need to be considered as types of intelligence (Gardner, 1983/2011). Being evolved from the multiple intelligence theory proposed by Gardner (1983/2011), emotional intelligence describes that not all problem-solving is cognitive in nature, but perception, interpretation, expression, and reaction to one's own and other's emotions are critical abilities required for solving problems that are personal and social in nature.

Emotional Intelligence has been the area of research for more than two decades. EI competency is seen to be significant to an individual's ability to be socially effective (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, and Boyle, 2006). Many researchers including Goleman (1998b), Côté and Miners (2006), and Brackett, Rivers, and Salovey (2011) reported the relationship between emotional intelligence and important work-related outcomes with the help of empirical research.

Emotional Intelligence is also related to management of conflict in work settings. Those with higher levels of EI are more adept at conflict management (Bodtker and Jameson, 2001; Jones and Bodtker, 2001). EI is related to conflict management in many ways. Emotions involve cognitive and behavioural/expressive aspects that come into play in any conflict situation. Bodtker and Jameson (2001) argue that to be in conflict is to be emotionally

charged. One is not aware that one is in conflict unless one identifies one is emotional about something. Pondy (1967) notes that there is a significant difference between perception of conflict (cognition) and felt conflict (affect), and that conflict is not manifested unless it is felt.

Gardner (1983/2011) suggests that one must identify and categorize one's own feelings before behaviourally responding to them. The cognitive aspect of emotion involves the ability to process the emotional information. Emotionally intelligent individuals may process this information more adeptly, which results in more constructive thinking (Abraham, 1999). To be successful in one's professional life requires the ability to identify other person's emotions and respond appropriately. People convey emotions primarily through facial expressions, vocal qualities, and body postures. Understanding how to interpret other's emotions may help to avoid potential conflict. The cognitive interpretation of the situation determines how emotions are experienced by the individual in any given situation (Bodtker and Jameson, 2001).

The ability to monitor and regulate one's emotional state helps in facilitating communication during conflict situations (Jones and Bodtker, 2001). Goleman (1998) states while resolving disagreements in a work setting those who can remain under emotional control no matter what emotional state they are in are more likely to be successful. When one is overwhelmed by a flood of emotions in a conflict situation, one's ability to function or think effectively diminishes (Jones and Bodtker, 2001). It is impractical to assume that emotions would not exist during a conflict situation, but one can be adept in handling emotional issues effectively. The behavioural aspect of emotion involves the way we express our emotions. In order to manage conflicts constructively one needs to control one's expressive behaviour which comprises verbal as well as non-verbal behaviour. Emotionally intelligent people are able to respond rationally to conflict (Abraham, 1999).

Management of conflict is an important function of one's work life. In order to be successful at any organisational level, conflict management skills are essential (Brewer, Mitchell, and Weber, 2002). The social skills component of emotional intelligence helps in inducing desirable responses in others so is critical for teamwork, conflict resolution, and collaboration (Abraham, 2004). Only emotionally intelligent personnel with sufficiently strong social skills (emotional competence) manage to build relationships and resolve conflicts (Young et al., 2000). As a matter of precaution, applying a conflict management technique inappropriately may create a conflict situation that did not previously exist, or aggravate one that did (Rahim, Buntzman, and White, 1999). Emotionally intelligent persons are more skilled at overcoming difficulties and redirecting their attention to conflict resolution (Abraham, 1999).

Thomas (1976) theorized two modes of handling conflict on the basis of the intentions of a party involved in conflict: cooperativeness (trying to satisfy the other party's concerns) and assertiveness (trying to satisfy one's own concerns). Similarly, based on the motivational orientations of a particular individual during conflict, Rahim (1983) differentiated the styles of handling interpersonal conflict using the dimensions of 'concern for self' and 'concern for others'. The combination of these two dimensions results in five different styles of handling conflict: integrating, dominating, compromising, obliging, and avoiding. The first two styles involve high concern for self, namely, the integrating and dominating styles. The integrating (problem solving) style represents high concern for self and for others. It is the most effective style of managing conflict and is concerned with exchange of information and collaboration between parties. The dominating (competing) style represents high concern for self and low concern for others. It is used in competitive situations and is identified with forcing behaviour to win one's position and often neglecting the needs and expectations of the others (Rahim, 1983).

The two styles involve low concern for self, namely, the obliging and avoiding styles (Rahim and Magner, 1995). The obliging (accommodating) style

represents low concern for self and high concern for others. It involves trying to play down the differences and sacrificing one's concern for satisfying other's concern. The avoiding (withdrawal) style represents low concern for self and for others. It is identified as being unconcerned about the conflict issue or the other party involved in conflict. The compromising style represents an equal level of concern with self and with others and is typically used when both parties have equal power (Rahim, 1983). The evaluation of conflict management styles helps to identify those who could benefit from training and development in order to handle conflict in a more effective manner at workplace.

The theoretical and research background of the study indicates that emotional intelligence is related to conflict management at workplace, but a little empirical evidence, particularly, in Indian context has been reported. Therefore, the present study is focussed on investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles of the managers when in conflict with their subordinates over work related issues. The investigator presumed a direct relationship between EI and interpersonal conflict management styles (CMSs) of the managers. The conceptual model relating EI to conflict management is presented in the Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1   The Conceptual Model used in the study
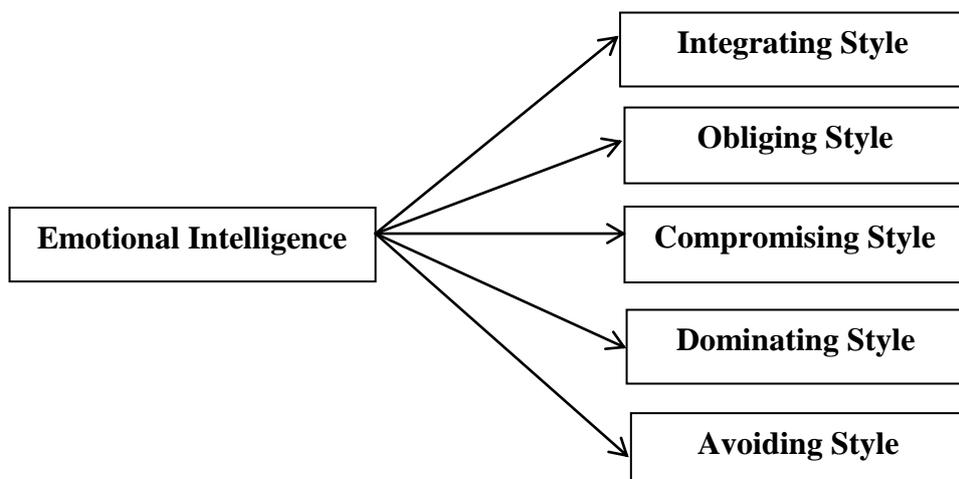
1.4   Objectives of the study

The study is mainly focussed on the emotional intelligence and its relation to the interpersonal conflict management styles of the branch managers. The relationship of emotional intelligence with respect to the demographic variables of the branch managers is also examined. The objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To assess the level of emotional intelligence among the branch managers.
2. To identify the styles of conflict management used by the branch managers when in conflict with their subordinates.
3. To examine the relationship between the emotional intelligence of the branch managers and their interpersonal conflict management styles.
4. To find out if the demographic variables such as, age, gender, marital status, educational qualifications, and experience have any relationship with the emotional intelligence of the branch managers.

1.5   Scope of the study

The scope of the study is limited to the following:

1. Branch managers working in various branches of commercial banks i.e., public sector and private sector banks in the state of Rajasthan (India). It excludes the foreign bank branches since they are very few in numbers in Rajasthan.

2. The scope of the study is one area of performance i.e., conflict management, while the financial performance and the other areas of performance of a branch manager is not included.

3. The interpersonal conflict between superior (branch manager) and his subordinates over work related issues has been considered.

1.6   **Significance of the study**

The present study is highly significant from the application point of view since a very few studies have been conducted, wherein the relationship between emotional intelligence and different conflict management styles of managers has been explored in Indian context and that too in banking sector. If the emotional intelligence of the managers is found to be related to their different styles of managing conflicts then suitable training programmes can be designed to enhance EI skills which would help managers in dealing with conflicts effectively at workplace, which is important both in terms of efficient individual and organisational performance, and in terms of health at the workplace.

1.7   **Organisation of the thesis**

The thesis includes overall 7 chapters. The second chapter describes the conceptual framework of the two variables i.e., emotional intelligence (EI) and conflict management styles (CMSs). Chapter 3 presents the review of previous studies in the field of EI and conflict management. Chapter 4 elaborates the methodology, besides the variables and hypotheses of the study, sample of the study, data collection tools, and the reliability and validity of the data collection tools. Chapter 5 provides the evidence to support or negate the hypotheses by analysing the collected data. Chapter 6 summarizes the findings and discusses the interpretation of results derived from statistical analysis. Chapter 7 presents the summary of findings, implications, agenda for future research, and limitations.

Chapter 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE VARIABLES

2.1   EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI), since its inception, has brought in together two separate entities of psychology, namely, affect (emotion) and cognition (intelligence) under one 'umbrella term'. The term 'Emotional Intelligence' was originally coined by Peter Salovey and John Mayer in 1990 to delineate qualities like understanding one's own emotions, empathy for feelings of others, and managing one's emotions in a way that enhances living. Later, the concept was popularized by Daniel Goleman (1995) with the publication of his best-selling book titled *Emotional Intelligence*. Also, the topic of EI gained more media coverage and interest among academicians and researchers when Time Magazine mentioned on its cover page, "It's not your IQ. It's not even a number. But emotional intelligence may be the best predictor of success in life, redefining what it means to be smart" (Time, 1995). Since then, many researches have proliferated in the area of EI signifying its influence on both personal and professional lives of an individual.

The emerging field of emotional intelligence has been enriched by the contributions of experts of diverse areas like psychology, human resource management, and others which has resulted in a range of terminology which includes social intelligence (Thorndike, 1920 cited in Kihlstrom and Cantor, 2000), personal intelligences (Gardner, 1983/2011), emotional intelligence (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Goleman, 1995), emotional literacy (Steiner, 1997), etc.

Emotional Intelligence can be considered as the ability to validly reason about emotions and to use emotions and emotional knowledge to augment our

thoughts (Mayer, Roberts, and Barsade, 2008). EI is quite very relevant in today's dynamic working environment as measures of EI provide a new way to analyse individual's management styles, attitude, behaviour, and competence which aids in overall development of an organization and an individual. Although the historical roots of EI are deeply rooted in the field of psychology, the concept of EI has been extended to several fields such as education, health, human resources, assessment, transcultural psychology and sport psychology. Specifically, in human resources, EI is considered to be an important parameter in human resource planning, recruitment, selection, succession planning, management development, customer service, etc.

The conceptual underpinnings of EI mainly include three principles (Cherniss, 2010). The first is that emotions play an important role in life. Second, people vary in their ability to perceive, understand, use, and manage emotions. And third, these differences affect individual adaptation in a variety of contexts, including the workplace.

2.1.1   Emotions at a glance

Emotion is an essential part of our life, as it affects every aspect of our life whether professional or personal. Emotions being the motivation of one's behaviour serve as one of the most important ingredients of human nature. They provide an individual an opportunity to express oneself and also enable an observer to infer about a person's emotional experience. Emotions, when combined with the thinking process, result in the experience of feelings. Emotions are our warning systems, as they alert us to something urgent and offer an immediate plan for action. They play a significant role in 'social survival' by helping in forming and maintaining social relationships and one's social position relative to others (Fischer and Manstead, 2008). Most significantly, emotion is the soul of every relationship and as an experience exhibits a person's existence as a living being. Caudron (1999) very rightly stated, "Like it or not, emotions are an

intrinsic part of our biological makeup, and every morning they march into the office with us and influence our behaviour".

The field of emotions has been swayed by philosophers and psychologists for over two millennia. As Solomon (2008) states, philosophers like Plato have been concerned about the nature of emotions since Socrates. Although emotion was considered inferior to reason, but Aristotle (1941) observed emotions to be central and essential to the good life. Descarte (1649/1989), the "father" of modern philosophy, treated emotion as the perception of soul which can be influenced by reason. Furthermore, Solomon (2008) adds that Spinoza (1677/1982) proposed an early version of cognitive theory of emotion.

Certainly, emotions constitute an elementary aspect of human functioning, but defining and categorizing these shams a complex intellectual challenge. The word 'emotion' basically stems from the Latin verb '*motere*' which means "to move" plus the prefix "e-" to connote "move away," suggesting that in emotional situations, people move: they act and react (Goleman, 1995). But different languages use different words to refer to this particular phenomenon of feeling and behavioural inclination. For instance, the Sanskrit word '*bhava*' means 'something like a state of mind that becomes or that is one that movements flow from' (Shweder and Haidt, 2000). The Greek term '*pathema*' and French and English term '*passion*' refer to mental events involving passivity and the Latin word '*affectus*' means event or experience that one is affected by (Frijda, 2008). Bhava, pathema, affectus, and passion, all these terms signify that feeling is critical to the experience of emotion. Izard (1971) mentioned feelings to be the elementary subjective experiences underpinning the more complex processes called emotion (cited in Kleinginna and Kleinginna, 1981). Feelings derive from sensory processes that make an organism aware of what is happening (Izard, 2007).

Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) examined that feelings have been accentuated more frequently than any other aspect of emotion in various

definitions of emotion in extant psychological literature. According to Das (1998), emotion is a state in which the person is aroused and is aware of the bodily changes produced by the arousal. These changes concomitant with emotion can be classified into at least three categories: overt expressions, physiological responses, and internal or psychological changes involving our feelings, thoughts, and perceptions.

Conceptually, emotions are identified as one of the three fundamental classes of mental operations. These classes consist of conation (motivation), affect (emotion), and cognition (thought) (Izard, 1993). Among this 'trilogy of mind', emotions appear to have evolved across mammalian species so as to indicate and react to changes in relationships between the individual and the environment. It was way back in 1872, when Charles Darwin in his influential book, *The Expression of Emotions in Man and Animals,* emphasized the evolution of emotions for an adaptive purpose of communication. He associated specific facial expressions to some emotions and contended that expressions inform others about one's internal state, which apprises about the expected behaviour of an individual (Darwin, 1872/1998). Thereafter, several emotion theorists (e.g., Ekman, 1992a, 1992b, 1999a; Izard, 1992) proposed a set of 'basic emotions' such as, happiness, sadness, anger, fear, disgust, and surprise, which appear to exist in all cultures and are universally associated with and recognizable by characteristic facial expressions. These emotions appear to serve identifiable biological functions related to the survival needs of the individual.

In the opinion of social constructivists, language and social experience are important in the construction of different emotions. According to Wierzbicka (1986), language plays a key role in structuring of emotions across cultures. Also, recent research findings demonstrate the social construction of emotions within three embedded contexts: moment-to-moment interactions, developing and on-going relationships, and sociocultural contexts (Boiger and Mesquita, 2012). The cultural construction of emotions is apparent from difference in pattern of emotions in different cultural contexts. It seems that the most prevalent emotions

in a given cultural context are the ones that fit the culturally preferred relationship arrangements (Mesquita and Leu, 2007). Research has also evidenced subtle differences in emotional expressions across cultures. Although emotional expressions are largely universal, they are guided by the prevalent cultural values, beliefs, and rules regarding appropriate expression (Ekman, 1999b).

Consequently, emotion is a complex multifaceted process which is natural as well as nurtured, having its roots both in biology and in the cultural context. As Ekman (2003) opines, emotions are constituted by antecedent event, appraisal, physiological change, emotional experience, action readiness, behaviour, change in cognitive functioning, and regulatory processes (cited in Sibia and Misra, 2011). Earlier, emotions have largely been viewed as disorganizing forces that impair an individual's ability to reason and think. But in this era of tough competition and intense stress, emotions are no more lurked in the background. Research has also shown that without emotions, the decisions we make may not be in our best interest (Bechara et al., 2000).

Nowadays, the ability to manage our emotions effectively is highly related to interpersonal relations, attainment of goals, and well-being. Psychologists also suggest an optimal level of emotional regulation somewhere between total strangulation and completely unfettered expression (Gross and Levenson, 1997). For instance, Sen (2012) underscores that anger management must include unapparent anger too because even if anger is held within, it still leads to the bewilderment of the intellect, poor access to memory, loss of discretion and steers an individual towards destructive behaviour. This requires the ability to understand and regulate emotions both in oneself and in others, which is foundational to the development of the concept 'Emotional Intelligence'.

2.1.2   A minuscule glimpse of Intelligence

The field of human intelligence has been explored by scholars for centuries, whereby they generally differ on different aspects of intelligence. For

instance, philosophers like Plato referred to intelligence as the "ability to learn", Aristotle as "quick wit", and Pascal as "precise intellect and mathematical intellect" (cited in Srivastava and Misra, 2007). Thereafter, a number of studies have been carried out to understand people's conceptions (implicit theories) of intelligence. One such study was conducted by Sternberg and his colleagues in 1981, which revealed three factors in people's conceptions of intelligence: verbal ability, practical problem-solving ability, and social competence (cited in Sternberg, 1995).

Moreover, according to an analysis of some of the early definitions of intelligence suggested by psychologists, intelligence comprises the ability to learn from experiences and to think abstractly using symbols and concepts (e.g., reasoning, problem solving, etc.), which helps in acclimatizing to new environment (Srivastava and Misra, 2007). It is quite evident here; people's implicit theories of intelligence seem to go somewhat far beyond the psychologist's viewpoint of intelligence.

The first systematic attempt to develop a test of intelligence for identifying children academically at risk was made by Alfred Binet, a French psychologist, along with his colleague Theodore Simon in the early 1900s. Afterwards, the German Psychologist Stern (1912) proposed the name and measure of the *Intelligence Quotient (IQ)* or the ratio of one's mental age to one's chronological age, with the ratio to be multiplied by 100. Since then, IQ has been considered as an indication of a person's overall mental ability (cited in Gardner, 1999). Ever since Binet's success in developing IQ tests, the intelligence tests based on psychometric approach have been widely used in selection, training, diagnosis, and evaluation in both industrial and educational settings.

Subsequently, during the first half of the twentieth century, psychologists had proposed various theories based on the psychometric approach which considered IQ as an indicator of general intelligence. Although the psychometric approach to intelligence had devised the methods to quantify human intellect but

during the second half of the twentieth century, it had become increasingly less popular mainly because it specifies little or nothing about the processes of intelligence (Sternberg, 2000). This resulted in the advent of modern theories which could specify the mental processes underlying intelligence.

But the researchers had become increasingly dissatisfied with the fact that general intelligence theories although anticipated academic performance to some extent, but very poorly predicted the success in life (Sternberg and Wagner, 1993; Sternberg et al., 1995). Additionally, the traditional IQ tests were also criticised as they failed to predict well the life outcomes for many individuals (McClelland, 1973). This provided an impetus for reviving the old conception of social intelligence and developing some new theoretical constructs such as multiple intelligence, emotional intelligence, practical intelligence, successful intelligence and spiritual intelligence which could better clarify the unexplainable factors associated with human life success.

The construct of *Social Intelligence* was originally proposed in 1920 by E.L.Thorndike, professor of educational psychology at Columbia University Teachers College. According to him, there are three different types of intelligences. The first type is Abstract Intelligence which aids in understanding and managing ideas. The second type is Concrete or Mechanical Intelligence which helps in understanding and manipulating objects and shapes. The third type is Social Intelligence which refers to the ability to understand and relate to people. He defined social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls – to act wisely in human relations" (cited in Kihlstrom and Cantor, 2000).

His definition of social intelligence encompassed various facets of human intelligence ranging from social, psychological, economic, emotional, personality types, affective and non-affective. But the measurement tests developed for measuring individual differences in social intelligence such as George Washington Social Intelligence Test, the first measurement test, failed to

discriminate social intelligence from abstract intelligence to a large extent, which led to declining interest in the whole concept of social intelligence as a distinct intellectual entity (Thorndike, 1936).

The construct of social intelligence has been revived by Howard Gardner, Professor at Harvard Graduate School of Education, by developing the *theory of Multiple Intelligences* which was based on neurological, evolutionary, and cross-cultural evidences and was first published in his book *Frames of Mind* in 1983. In this book Gardner (1983/2011) defined intelligence as "the ability to solve problems or to create products that are valued within one or more cultural settings". He further claimed that all human beings possess not just a single intelligence (or general intelligence), but seven discrete and independent intelligences, wherein the last but two have been included in *personal intelligences*;

1. *Linguistic Intelligence* – This encompasses sensitivity to spoken and written language, the ability to learn languages, and the capability to use language to accomplish certain goals.

2. *Musical Intelligence* – This involves sensitivity to tone, pitch and rhythm, and the ability to reproduce them.

3. *Logical–Mathematical Intelligence* – This entails the capacity to analyse problems logically, perform mathematical operations and investigate issues scientifically.

4. *Spatial Intelligence* – This characterizes the potential to recognize and manipulate the patterns of wide space, as well as the patterns of more confined areas.

5. *Bodily–kinesthetic Intelligence* – This features the potential of using one's whole body or parts of body to solve problems or style products.

6. *Interpersonal Intelligence* – This indicates a person's ability to understand the moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions of others and, subsequently, to work effectively with others.

7. *Intrapersonal Intelligence* – This encompasses the ability to understand one's own desires, fears, and capacities and to use this information effectively in regulating one's own life.

Gardner (1999) added eighth intelligence to the previously proposed list of seven intelligences. Moreover, he opined that these eight intelligences although separate from one other, tend to be used in conjunction with one another, as well as each of us has a unique blend of these intelligences arising from the combination of a person's genetics and life conditions in a given culture. The eighth intelligence is *Naturalist Intelligence,* which entails the expertise to recognize and classify the numerous species – flora (plants) and fauna (animals). A person is fascinated and noticeably affected by changes occurring in one's natural environment, as found in environmentalists, geologists and florists (Gardner, 1999).

In Gardner's (1983/2011) view, the traditional IQ tests measure only linguistic, logical–mathematical and some aspects of spatial intelligence almost ignoring the other types. Although he clearly points out that these proposed intelligences exist not as physically verifiable entities but only as potentially useful scientific concepts, his theory has been applied in hundreds of schools since *Frames of Mind* was first published in 1983.

Another renowned psychologist, Robert Sternberg proposed the influential '*triarchic'* theory of intelligence in 1985, which has been referred to as the *theory of successful intelligence* in 1997. This theory provides the middle ground between the theory of general intelligence and the theory of multiple intelligences, which not only recognizes the multifarious nature of intelligence, but also is subjected to empirical tests. This theory delineates successful intelligence as the skills and knowledge required for success in life, according to one's own connotation of success, within one's sociocultural context. One acquires and utilizes these skills and this knowledge by capitalizing on strengths and by correcting or compensation for weaknesses; by adapting to, shaping, or

selecting environments; and through a combination of analytical, creative, and practical abilities (Sternberg, 1999).

Finally, Sternberg (2005) accentuates that success is attained through a balance of the three components of successful intelligence: analytic, creative and practical. *Analytical* or componential intelligence consists of internal mental mechanisms that people use to analyse, judge, compare and contrast, and evaluate information. This intelligence is the one measured by the traditional tests of academic abilities. *Creative* or experiential intelligence is needed in creating, inventing, discovering, and innovating, as well as to automatize tasks that are encountered repeatedly. *Practical* or contextual intelligence helps people to effectively adapt to different contexts, shape their environments, and utilise their available resources.

Sternberg (2004) opines that the solutions to problems which are considered intelligent in one culture may be different from the solutions considered to be intelligent in another culture because cultures evaluate their members as well as members of other cultures in terms of their own conceptions of intelligence. As Ramanujan (1989) has observed that Hindu Indian culture contrasts with Western culture as it emphasizes more on what he characterises *context-sensitive* in comparison with *context-free* cognitive orientations. Since intelligence may be conceived in different ways in different cultures, one cannot now create culture-free or culture-fair ability tests but rather can create culture-relevant ability tests (Sternberg, 2004).

2.1.3   Delineation of Emotional Intelligence

The concept of emotional intelligence has provided new dimension to the understanding of human intelligence, which earlier highly counted upon cognitive intelligence for its evaluation. Emotional intelligence has expanded the horizon of basic intelligence and has emphasized few more abilities required for the survival of human being in a society. Similar to cognitive intelligence, several

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definitions and measures of emotional intelligence have been developed by different researchers according to their understanding of the concept of EI, whereby they have accentuated different features of the concept. As a result, currently there are lot of definitions of EI available in published literatures which do not necessarily match well. Since, EI is a multifaceted construct so in order to provide better understanding of the concept following are some of the widely used definitions at present.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) had provided the first formal definition of emotional intelligence and defined EI as the part of social intelligence that involves "the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions". According to this definition, the scope of EI consists of the verbal and nonverbal appraisal and expression of emotion, the regulation of emotion in the self and others, and the utilization of emotional content in problem solving.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) refined their original definition of emotional intelligence and defined EI as a set of abilities to perceive emotions, to access and generate feelings so as to aid thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth. This definition brings in together the ideas that emotions make thinking more intelligent and that one thinks intelligently about emotions.

Goleman (1998b) proposed that emotional intelligence is nothing but the ability to understand one's emotions and those of people around us, to motivate ourselves and to manage emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. His primary framework of EI included five components: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills.

Bar-On (1997) opined emotional intelligence as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures".

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) defined 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.

Weisinger's (1998) definition is quite similar to Goleman's definition. He defined emotional intelligence as "the intelligent use of emotions: you intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to help guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance your results".

According to Singh (2003), EI is an ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a variety of emotional stimuli educed from the inner self and the immediate environment. He proposed that EI constitutes three psychological dimensions: emotional competence, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity. These dimensions motivate an individual to recognise truthfully, interpret honestly, and handle tactfully the dynamics of human behaviour.

Emotional Intelligence has been defined by Shanwal (2004) as the awareness of use of emotions and their utilization within the parameters of individual cognitive styles to cope with situations and problems.

Kunnanatt (2004) emphasized that EI is the ability of an individual to use emotions as a guiding tool for interpersonal effectiveness in his or her social environment to produce win-win relationships and outcomes for him or her and others.

2.1.4   Genesis of Emotional Intelligence

The inception of emotional intelligence can be traced back to the seventeenth century, when some philosophers had argued that emotion plays a critical role in mental processes. Spinoza (1677), for instance, in *Ethics* mentioned that both emotion and cognition together contribute to the measurement of

cognition and he also suggested that there are three levels of cognition: emotional cognition, intellectual cognition, and a kind of intuition (cited in Sharma, 2012). Another philosopher, Aristotle (1984) also stressed on what reason dictates when one gets angry with the right person to the proper extent at the right time (cited in Thingujam, 2002). Similarly, Tomkins (1962), a philosopher by training, stated that "Reason without affect would be impotent and affect without reason would be blind" (cited in Sharma, 2012).

Thereafter, in the late 1970s, the interaction of emotion with cognition began to be considered in the modern conceptualization of intelligence. It was the inability of IQ notion to predict real life experiences, which resulted in increasing frustration among many psychologists. According to the review of several studies, the individual differences in the intelligence test performance account for utmost 25% of the life success factors (Sternberg et al., 1995), as a result, the rest of the 75% of factors remains unexplained. This ignited the search for modern, broader theories and tests of intelligence to supplement existing cognitive ability tests.

During the search of new theoretical constructs, many researchers started reviving the concept of social intelligence which was introduced way back in 1920s by E.L.Thorndike, who was the first to identify a variable integrated between the known concepts of intelligence, personality, and culture which he called social intelligence. In his opinion, social intelligence is an ability that "shows itself abundantly in nursery, on the playground, in barracks and factories and sales rooms, but eludes the formal standardized conditions of the laboratory" (cited in Kihlstrom and Cantor, 2000). It is quite relevant to mention that his concept of social intelligence did include elements like 'ability to deal with people' and 'introversion and extroversion' types of personality, which is more similar to today's emotional intelligence. But social intelligence has been defined so broadly that it is very difficult to distinguish it from verbal and visuospatial intelligences, both, theoretically and empirically (Mayer and Salovey, 1993).

Similarly, in 1940s, David Wechsler explained the effect of non-intellective factors on intelligent behaviour. Wechsler (1943) defined intelligence as the "aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his environment". He emphasized that an individual's intelligence is revealed by his behaviour as a whole ("global"), and that intelligence involves behaviour towards a goal, which may be more or less immediate ("purposefully"). He thought that "drive" and "incentive" are essential to intelligent behaviour which is implied in the capacity "to act purposefully" and "to deal effectively" with one's environment. In his opinion, the measure of total intelligence would be incomplete until the measurement tests also include some measure of non-intellective factors (cited in Freeman, 1965).

EI has its roots in Wechsler's transformation of psychometric intelligence testing into the field of clinical assessment. Although Wechsler did not mention specifically about the constructs of EI, but he included both measures and aspects of EI in the development and interpretation of Wechsler's tests (Kaufman and Kaufman, 2001). But his views did not gain much attention and psychologists didn't take many initiatives in this area for a few decades and continued to define intelligence in terms of an individual's intellective or thinking ability.

Thereafter, in the late 1960s, a Stanford University psychologist Walter Mischel conducted a psychological experiment, the marshmallow experiment, on small children (4 year olds) to find the qualities of brain and heart that determine success in life (Mischel, Shoda, and Rodriguez, 1989). This study established a ground for emotional intelligence as a significant predictor for determining success in life, which is not revealed in IQ tests. The marshmallow experiment conducted in US in 1960s is the most widely reported background paper on EI.

It was Howard Gardner's (1983/2011) research which was one of the reasons for emotions being given greater recognition and priority than had previously occurred. Some ten years after his theory of multiple intelligences was

first published, he summarised two varieties of personal intelligences: interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence (cited in Goleman, 1995).

Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other people: what motivates them, how to work cooperatively with them. Successful sales people, politicians, teachers, clinicians, and religious leaders are all likely to be individuals with high degrees of interpersonal intelligence.

Intrapersonal intelligence is a correlative ability, turned inward. It is a capacity to   form an accurate, veridical model of oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life. In other words intrapersonal intelligence relates to perceiving one's own emotions, and comprises self-awareness, self-regulation and self-motivation.

As was the case with social intelligence, emotional intelligence is a part of Gardner's personal intelligences. According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotional intelligence does not embrace the general sense of self and appraisal of others. It focuses, rather, on the processes involved in the recognition and use of one's own and other's emotional states to solve problems and regulate behaviour.

During early 1980s, one of the major breakthroughs took place in the conceptualization of emotional intelligence, when the American-born Israeli clinical psychologist Dr. Reuven Bar-On began to explore this field. He attempted to combine the emotional and social components of this construct. Bar-On (1988) in his doctoral dissertation on 'psychological well-being' hypothesized that effective emotional and social functioning should eventually lead to a sense of psychological well-being. He coined the term *Emotional Quotient (EQ)* during his doctoral studies, an analogous to Intelligence Quotient (IQ), long before the concept gained immense popularity as a measure for emotional intelligence and before Mayer and Salovey had published their first model of emotional intelligence. Later, in 1997, he published the first self-report measure of

emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour, popularly known as the Emotional Quotient Inventory (the EQ-i) (cited in Bar-On, 2000).

The term 'Emotional Intelligence' was used for the first time in 1960s on an occasional basis in literary criticism (Van Ghent, 1961) and psychiatry (Leuner, 1966), without paying much attention to defining it (cited in Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2004). Two decades later, Wayne Payne (1986/1983) tried to define emotional intelligence in his unpublished doctoral dissertation, *A study of emotion: Developing emotional intelligence*. But Payne could not clearly elaborate some aspects of emotional intelligence subsumed in his definition of the construct (cited in Mayer and Cobb, 2000).

During the same time, investigators began to examine the effect of moods and emotions on the thought processes. Bower (1981), for example, demonstrated that happy moods activated happy thoughts and sad moods activated sad thoughts. Furthermore, researchers like Salovey and Birnbaum (1989) showed that thought processes could be affected by mood inductions. It was in this context that the concept of emotional intelligence emerged. Emotions can be distinguished from the closely related concept of moods in that emotions are generally more intense and last for lesser duration.

'Emotional Intelligence' was formally introduced to scientific psychology in 1990 by Yale psychologist Peter Salovey and the University of Hampshire's John (Jack) Mayer through two pivotal articles. In the first article "Emotional Intelligence", Salovey and Mayer (1990) originally identified EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" and described EI as 'a type of social intelligence'. In the second article, they demonstrated empirically how aspects of EI could be measured as a mental ability, wherein the participants examined the set of colours, faces, and designs and had to identify each one's emotional content (Mayer, DiPaolo, and Salovey, 1990). The findings from the empirical study indicated that emotion and cognition

can be combined to perform more sophisticated information processing than either is capable of alone.

In the follow-up editorial in 1993, in the journal *intelligence*, the difference between traits such as extraversion, self-confidence, and EI was discussed and EI was characterized as potentially meeting the rigorous definition of an intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1993). It should be noted that the pioneering work of Peter Salovey and John Mayer in the field of emotional intelligence has been extremely influential and has provided the basis to considerable number of academic research in the field. Their publications have been instrumental in the conceptualization of EI in its current form.

EI, however, was mostly unacquainted to general public and academicians alike until Daniel Goleman (1995), a Harvard psychology Ph.D. and a former New York Times science writer, adapted the work of Salovey and Mayer and popularized EI with the phenomenal success of his book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. His book quickly sparked the interest of media, laypeople and investigators in emotional intelligence (e.g., Gibbs, 1995). Goleman in his book claimed that EI was "as powerful, and at times more powerful, than IQ" in predicting success in life, which was in sheer contrast with Herrnstein and Murray's viewpoint in their book, *The Bell Curve*, introduced in 1994. This book propagated the message that relatively immutable IQ is the primary predictor of success in life, which was distrusted by many investigators (e.g., Sternberg, 1995).

Thereafter, in 1997, Mayer and Salovey revised their original definition of EI as it did not include thinking about feelings and based on it introduced the first ability measure of EI, the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS), in the following year. According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), "emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate

thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth".

Furthermore, after the splendid response given to Goleman's first book on emotional intelligence published in 1995, he wrote another book, *Working with Emotional Intelligence* in 1998. In this book, data from studies of more than 500 corporations were analysed to prove that emotional competencies could create more successful employees and companies. Goleman's first book was an attempt to widen our view of human intelligence and to acknowledge the significant role played by emotions in determining one's success in life. Subsequently, in the second book he focused on workplace applications of emotional intelligence.

Goleman (1998b) describes EI as "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". He considers EI distinct from, but complementary to, academic intelligence, the purely cognitive capacities measured by IQ. Goleman's views on EI, in part because they were articulated for or to the public, often went far beyond the empirical evidence available (Mayer and Cobb, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2000). Yet, professionals from various fields like education, psychology, human resource, and corporate, began to incorporate EI into their daily dialect and professional practices. During the last two decades, the advancements in the field of intelligence have gradually blurred the distinction between cognition and affect.

2.1.5   The Major Emotional Intelligence Models

According to Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology (Spielberger, 2004), there are currently three major conceptual models of emotional intelligence (cited in Bar-On, 2006):

a) **The Mayer-Salovey model:** This defines EI as the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions to facilitate thinking;

b) **The Goleman model:** This views EI as a wide array of emotional and social competencies and skills that drive managerial performance; and

c) **The Bar-On model:** This describes EI as a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that influence intelligent behaviour.

The theory as formulated by Salovey and Mayer framed EI within a 'model of intelligence'. Goleman's model formulates EI in terms of a 'theory of performance'. Bar-On has placed EI in the context of personality theory, specifically a 'model of well-being'. Goleman (1998b) opines that all these EI models; however, share a common core of basic concepts. Emotional intelligence, at the most general level, refers to 'the abilities to recognize and regulate emotions in ourselves and in others'.

According to Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000), Goleman model and Bar-On model are considered as *mixed models*, as they contain a melange of abilities, behaviours, and general disposition and conflate personality attributes with mental ability, whereas Mayer-Salovey model is a *pure model* since it focuses exclusively on cognitive abilities.

2.1.5.1 The Mayer-Salovey Model (Ability Model)

The first formal model of emotional intelligence, more popularly known as the 'Ability Model of EI' was developed in 1990 by Peter Salovey and John Mayer. It is the one Daniel Goleman relied on in making the concept popular. The model was then revised in 1997 and divided EI into four branches of abilities. This model views emotions and thoughts as working hand in hand in adaptive ways, as well as identifies that emotions convey information about relationships

that can and ought to be processed. It defines EI as 'intelligence' in the traditional sense, that is, as a set of mental abilities concerned with emotions and the processing of emotional information that are a part of, and contribute to, logical thought and intelligence in general. These abilities are considered to be different from talents and traits, or preferred ways of behaving (Mayer and Salovey, 1993).

Emotional intelligence denotes in part an ability to recognize the meanings of emotional patterns and to reason and solve problems on the basis of them (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Mayer and Salovey (1997) described emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotion in order to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

The Ability Model, also known as the 'four branch model of emotional intelligence', was proposed to develop a framework to organize the study of individual differences in 'abilities related to emotion'. As per the model, these distinct yet related abilities, are arranged hierarchically from basic psychological process to the more psychologically integrated and complex, and are expected to develop with age and experience, from childhood to adulthood, in the manner similar to crystallized abilities (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). However, all these abilities fit within the general matrix of self-other recognition or regulation. The four branches of the ability model, each representing different emotional abilities, are as following:

1. **Perception and Expression of emotions (Identifying Emotions):**

The first branch represents the foundational skill of identifying and differentiating emotions in the self and others. At the most basic level, this ability enables one to identify emotions accurately in physical states (including bodily expressions), feelings, and thoughts. At a more advanced level, one is able to identify emotions in other people, artwork, and objects through sound, colour,

language, appearance, and behaviour. The ability to appropriately express emotions and related needs is considered a more sophisticated perceiving ability. Finally, discriminating between honest and false emotional expressions in others indicates more complex problem solving on this branch.

Perceiving and expressing emotions may represent the most basic ability of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible. Individuals who accurately perceive and respond to their own emotions and better express those emotions to others are likely to be better understood by them, and also can better connect with people when they are able to skilfully perceive emotions in others and empathize (the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself) with them (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

2. **Assimilation of emotions in thought (Using emotions to facilitate thinking):**

The second branch includes the ability to harness emotional information to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as reasoning, problem solving, and interpersonal communication. The most basic skill involves using emotions to prioritize thinking by directing attention to important information about the surroundings or other people. The more advanced skills refer to producing vivid emotions to aid judgment and memory processes, and generating moods to facilitate the consideration of multiple perspectives. Generating emotional states to differentially foster specific thinking styles represents an especially high level of ability on this branch. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his or her changing moods so as to best fit the task at hand.

3. **Understanding and Analysing emotions:**

The third branch encompasses comprehension of the language and meaning of emotions and an understanding of the antecedents of emotions. The

basic ability includes labelling emotions with accurate language as well as recognizing similarities and dissimilarities between emotion labels and emotions themselves (e.g., comparison between annoyance and anger). The more advanced skill constitutes an interpretation of meanings and origins of emotions (e.g., fear can result from threat) and an understanding of complex emotions such as contradictory moods or emotions (e.g., simultaneous feeling of love and hatred), or blends of emotions (e.g., hope as a combination of faith and optimism). Identifying transitions between emotions or the 'patterned chain', which implies how emotions follow upon one another (e.g., anger may lead to rage which may lead to guilt or satisfaction) and reasoning about progression of feelings or sequences of emotion over time (e.g., feeling angrier and angrier may result in rage) is an especially complex component of this branch.

4.   Managing emotions

The fourth branch (highest level) of emotional intelligence involves the ability to modulate, enhance, modify, or prevent an emotional response in oneself and others, as well as to experience an emotion while deciding about the appropriateness of an emotion in a given situation. The basic aspect of emotion regulation ability refers to attending to and staying open to pleasant and unpleasant feelings, while the more advanced level ability refers to engaging or disengaging from an emotion depending upon its perceived utility in a situation.

Finally, reflectively monitoring one's own and other's emotions (e.g., processing whether the emotion is clear, typical, acceptable, or influential) and regulating emotions without exaggerating or suppressing the information they may convey constitutes a high level of ability on this branch. But people differ in their ability to manage their emotions as well as in their ability to regulate and alter the affective reactions of others (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

It is important to mention that the four branch model of emotional intelligence is based on the hypothesis that emotional skills cannot exist outside of the social context in which they operate. In order to use these skills in a useful

manner, one must be attuned to the social and cultural norms of the environment in which one interacts (Grewal and Salovey, 2005). Further, the mental ability model of emotional intelligence makes predictions about the internal structure of the intelligence and also its implications for a person's life (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2000).

The model predicts that emotional intelligence meets traditional standards or three empirical criteria for an intelligence (Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 2000; Mayer et al., 2001). First, mental problems have right or wrong answers, as assessed by the convergence of alternative scoring methods. Second, the measured skills correlate with other measures of mental ability as well as with self-reported empathy. Third, the absolute ability level rises with age.

The two ability-based indicators of EI developed in an intelligence testing tradition are, namely, Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS; Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 1999), and Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT; Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 2000). The MEIS has 12 subtests to assess the four branches: (1) Perception, (2) Assimilation, (3) Understanding, and (4) Managing Emotions, while the MSCEIT includes two subtests for each branch. These ability tests yield an overall EI score as well as subtest scores for each branch. The ability tests assume that people must have knowledge about emotional processes to exhibit emotionally intelligent behaviour.

2.1.5.2 The Goleman Model (Emotional Competencies Model)

Daniel Goleman after the immense popularization of his first book on emotional intelligence, *Emotional Intelligence* (1995), proposed the competency based model of emotional intelligence in his second book, *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998b). His model was basically an adapted version of a few existing models and included the various personal and social competencies considered to be imperative for exceling especially in one's profession. He

emphasized how EI is altered throughout life, how it benefits one in succeeding in his life, and the cost paid for what he calls "emotional illiteracy". Goleman (1998b) clarified that emotional intelligence does not mean giving free rein to feelings but rather it means managing feelings so that they are expressed appropriately and effectively.

The EI model proposed by Daniel Goleman considers EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive managerial performance. The competency based model of EI by Goleman (2001) has been designed specifically for enhancing performance at workplace. In *Working with Emotional Intelligence,* Goleman (1998b) claimed EI to be the strongest predictor of success in the workplace based on findings of various samples taken across global companies.

Goleman's (1998a) model of emotional intelligence is a *mixed model* and it is characterized by the five self-management and relationship skills. **Self-Management skills** comprise 1) knowing one's emotions (*self-awareness*), 2) managing emotions (*self-regulation*), and 3) *motivating oneself*. **Relationship skills** comprise 4) recognising emotions in others (*empathy*), and 5) handling relationships (*social skill*). He summarised the five broad areas of his EI model in the popular article published in Harvard Business Review (HBR) in 1998, and further elaborated the model in his book, *Working with Emotional Intelligence*.

Goleman (1998b) clustered emotional competencies – personal and social competencies – into groups, each based on a common underlying emotional intelligence capacity (Table 2.1). *Personal Competence* determines how we manage ourselves, whereas *Social Competence* determines how we handle our inter-personal relationships. Emotional competencies are not innate talents but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman suggests that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.

Table 2.1 Goleman's Competency-based Model of EI

EI COMPONENT	DEFINITION	COMPETENCIES
SELF (PERSONAL COMPETENCE)		
SELF-AWARENESS	The ability to recognize and understand one's moods, emotions, and drives, as well as their effect on others.	• Emotional awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence
SELF-REGULATION	The ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods. The propensity to suspend judgment – to think before acting.	• Self-Control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Adaptability • Innovation
MOTIVATION	A passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status. A propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence.	• Achievement drive • Commitment • Initiative • Optimism
OTHER (SOCIAL COMPETENCE)		
EMPATHY	The ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people. Skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions.	• Understanding others • Developing others • Service orientation • Leveraging diversity • Political awareness
	Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks.	• Influence • Communication • Conflict management

SOCIAL SKILL	An ability to find common ground and build rapport.	• Leadership • Change catalyst • Building bonds • Collaboration and cooperation • Team capabilities

The competency based EI model of 1998 was refined on the basis of statistical analyses by Goleman's colleague Boyatzis (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee, 2000), which supported collapsing of the original 25 competencies into 20, and the five domains into four. The Boyatzis-Goleman model is strongly influenced by the work of McClelland (1973), and Spencer and Spencer (1993).

Accordingly, Goleman (2001) proposed four components of emotional intelligence: *Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management, or Social Skill* (Table 2.2). The first component reflects the ability to know what one feels; the second component involves the ability to regulate the distressing effects of negative emotions and to inhibit emotional impulsivity; the third component deals with empathy; and the fourth component implicates the skill to handle human relationships effectively. Additionally, according to an analysis of data on workplace effectiveness, Michelle Burckle at Hay Group found that Social Skill depends on a foundation of Self-Management and Social-Awareness (particularly Empathy), each of which in turn relies on Self-Awareness (Goleman, 2001).

Goleman (2001) opines that the underlying abilities of the model are necessary, though not sufficient, to manifest competence in anyone of the four EI domains and that the emotional competencies are job skills that can be learned. Within this context, Goleman defines emotional intelligence as the ability to recognize and regulate emotions both within the self and others.

Table 2.2 Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Competencies

	SELF (PERSONAL COMPETENCE)	OTHER (SOCIAL COMPETENCE)
RECOGNITION	*Self-Awareness* • Emotional self-awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence	*Social Awareness* • Empathy • Service orientation • Organizational awareness
REGULATION	*Self-Management* • Emotional self-control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Adaptability • Achievement drive • Initiative	*Relationship Management* • Developing others • Influence • Communication • Conflict management • Visionary leadership • Catalysing change • Building bonds • Teamwork and collaboration

Although each of the EI competencies has a significant impact on performance in life – and particularly on the job – emotional competencies seem to have most powerful impact when operating in synergistic groupings, as evidenced by Boyatzis and his colleagues (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee, 2000). Also, McClelland (1998) in his analysis of competencies found that star performers are not just talented in one or two competencies – they have strengths in at least one competency from each of the four EI areas.

The primary measure associated with this model is the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) which consists of 110 items and assesses 20 competencies that are organized into four clusters: (1) Self-Awareness, (2) Self-Management, (3) Social Awareness, and (4) Relationship Management (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee, 2000). The ECI is a 360-degree assessment that includes self, subordinate, peer, and supervisory ratings. The ECI is designed for use only as a developmental tool; not for making hiring, promotion, or compensation decisions. Lately, Goleman (2006) has distinguished between EI and "social intelligence", and he has proposed that the last two components in the original model, which he now terms *social awareness* and *social facility*, be considered components of social intelligence.

2.1.5.3   The Bar-On Model (Emotional-Social Intelligence Model)

Likewise Goleman, Bar-On explicitly included non-ability traits in his emotional intelligence model to elucidate Emotional Intelligence, therefore, it is also known as *mixed model* of EI. Bar-On (2000) combines the emotional and social components of EI resulting in somewhat broader construct to which he more generically refers as "emotional-social intelligence" rather than "emotional intelligence" or "social intelligence". This comprehensive model of emotional and social intelligence conceptualizes EI as an array of emotional, personal, and social abilities that interact with one another to influence one's overall ability to effectively cope with daily demands and pressures; this ability is apparently based on a core capacity to be aware of, understand, control, and express emotions effectively.

The significant contributions of many earlier theorists, such as Darwin, Thorndike, and Wechsler had highly influenced the development of the Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI). Being swayed by Darwin's (1872/1998) early work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation, the Bar-On model also emphasizes the importance of emotional expression and views the outcome of emotionally and socially intelligent

behaviour in terms of effective and successful adaptation. Thorndike's description of social intelligence in 1920's and its importance for human performance as well as Wechsler's observations in 1940's related to the impact of non-cognitive and conative factors on what he referred to as 'intelligent behaviour' have also influenced the development of the Bar-On model. Furthermore, Gardner's (1983/2011) conceptualization of *intrapersonal* (emotional) and *interpersonal* (social) intelligences, within the framework of multiple intelligences, had an impact on the development of the intrapersonal and interpersonal components of the Bar-On model of ESI.

The Bar-On model provides the theoretical basis for the Emotional Quotient Inventory (the EQ-i) which was published in 1997 (Bar-On, 2000). The EQ-i was originally developed in 1980s as an experimental instrument to examine various factors thought to be the key components of effective emotional and social functioning that lead to psychological well-being (Bar-On, 1988). It is quite significant to mention, the EQ-i has played an instrumental role in developing the Bar-On model of ESI as well as this model is operationalized by the EQ-i. The EQ-i is the first test of EI to be published by a psychological test publisher and also the one which has been successfully used for making hiring decisions.

The Bar-On model of ESI is the result of his inquisitiveness for knowing, "Why are some individuals more able to succeed in life than others?" which had made him review the psychological literature for personality characteristics that appeared related to life success. According to this model, emotional-social intelligence is a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands (Bar-On, 2006).

Bar-On (2000) has operationalized emotional-social intelligence model according to fifteen conceptual components pertaining to five specific domains of emotional and social intelligence (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3 Bar-On Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence

EI COMPONENT	COMPETENCIES	DEFINITION
INTRAPERSONAL	Self-regard	To accurately perceive, understand, and accept oneself
	Emotional self-awareness	To be aware of and understand one's emotions and feelings
	Assertiveness	To effectively and constructively express one's feelings
	Independence	To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others
	Self-actualization	To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one's potential
INTERPERSONAL	Empathy	To be aware of and understand how others feel
	Social responsibility	To identify with one's social group and cooperate with others
	Interpersonal relationship	To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others
STRESS MANAGEMENT	Stress tolerance	To effectively and constructively manage emotions
	Impulse control	To effectively and constructively control emotions
ADAPTABILITY	Reality-testing	To objectively validate one's feelings and thinking with external reality
ADAPTABILITY	Flexibility	To adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations
	Problem-solving	To effectively solve problems of a

		personal and social nature
GENERAL MOOD	Optimism	To be positive and look at the brighter side of life
	Happiness	To feel content with oneself, others, and life in general

Bar-On's theoretical work combines what may qualify as mental abilities (e.g., emotional self-awareness) with other characteristics that are considered discrete from mental ability, such as personal independence, self-regard, and mood; this makes it a mixed model (Mayer et al., 2000). On the basis of the manner this model is conceptualized, to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express ourselves, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. This is based, first and foremost, on our intrapersonal ability to be aware of ourselves, to understand our strengths and weaknesses, and to express our feelings and thoughts non-destructively.

On the interpersonal level, being emotionally and socially intelligent embraces the ability to be aware of other's emotions, feelings and needs, and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. Ultimately, being emotionally and socially intelligent implies to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions as per the need. This necessitates the management of emotions so that they work for us and not against us, and requires us to be sufficiently optimistic, positive and self-motivated to achieve personal goals.

Bar-On proposes that the components of this model develop over time, change throughout life, and can be improved through training and development programmes, and that the model relates to the potential for performance and success, rather than performance or success itself, and is considered process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented.

Thus, all these models of EI (ability model and mixed model) agree on the importance of awareness and management of one's own emotions and awareness and management of other's emotions.

2.1.6   Emotional Intelligence in Indian Context

Emotion is a culturally grounded process and as emotional competencies are acquired during the process of socialization so culture is expected to play a significant role in it as well. According to Elfenbein and Ambady (2002) the culture specific elements of emotional behaviour are learned, either by growing up in the culture or else by later exposure to the culture. The individuals may be able to recognize more accurately emotions expressed by members of their own culture, which suggests the presence of culture specific elements of emotional behaviour. Srivastava et al. (2008) suggest that broadly culture can be distinguished under two categories – the collectivist and the individualist (cited in Gayathri and Meenakshi, 2013).

Moreover, Markus and Kitayama (1991) consider individualism and collectivism to be best represented as systems of meanings, practices, and social institutions in the context of which the nature of emotion should be expected to vary. 'Collectivism' is a set of meanings and practices that emphasize the relatedness of a person to his or her in-group and, more generally, to the world. Similarly, 'individualism' is a set of meanings and practices that underline the individual as bounded, unique, and independent. Therefore, EI competencies are likely to be affected by the individualistic and collectivistic culture. The way people perceive, express and suppress emotions varies according to their cultural background. What applies to one culture will be a glitch to another. Thus, it becomes essential to understand EI from the perspective of different cultures of the world.

Although models of EI originated in the West but based on the observations of many useful measurements of IQ and personality in the country,

Thingujam (2002) expressed his belief that the 'ability model' of EI can be applied effectively in the Indian context. Similarly, according to Sharma (2012) there is hardly any serious research on EI in Indian perspective but anyone who is aware of the ancient Indian literature can find EI embedded in every text. The Indian perspective of EI is deeply rooted in the rich, traditional, religious, philosophical context focusing on the role of family and society in shaping one's emotions, which have to be harnessed for a harmonious life. Indians treasure relationships which are nurtured in the process of socialization and remain important throughout the lifespan. The Indian view of self is characterized more as interdependent. The Indian self is constructed around 'we', 'our', and 'us', in contrast to the Western 'I' and 'my', that is always in relation to social context (Sibia and Misra, 2011).

However, the Indian philosophy as well as EI underscores the power of emotions, they both differ in certain basic aspects. According to Gayathri and Meenakshi (2012) the EI focuses on a man's success from the materialistic point of view − an emotionally intelligent person becomes a successful manager, becomes adept in handling relationships etc. − whereas, the Indian texts have a more holistic view. They consider mind to be a powerful instrument which has the capacity to lead a person to eternal happiness or to interminable suffering. They believe in the theory of 'Karma'− every thought and action of a man has its aftermaths. A man's 'Karma' binds him to this materialistic world and an enlightened man strives to escape this web of 'Karma' by focusing his thoughts and actions on the Supreme Being as well as dedicating them to him (Gayathri and Meenakshi, 2012).

There is a gamut of Indian literature − the Upanishads, the epics, the Vedas − which elaborate the nature of human mind and the significance of regulating it. The *Bhagavad Gita (BG)*, a section of the epic *Mahabharata*, considered as the fifth Veda (essence of the four Vedas) is Lord Krishna's discourse on morality to Arjuna on the battle field. In Indian tradition, there is considerable emphasis on emotion regulation. A self-realized person takes life's

struggle as trivial compared to the inner struggle for control over one's mind and thoughts and is prepared to encounter the challenges of achieving inner peace and tranquillity. The Indian literature focuses on this need for emotional stability which aids an individual in facing both external and internal battles of life. The various theories of EI also emphasize on this aspect of emotional regulation for a successful life.

Consequently, Gayathri and Meenakshi (2013) describe striking similarities between Lord Krishna's emotionally stable person (*Sthithapragnya*) and Mayer and Salovey's (1997) emotionally intelligent person. In BG, attachment has been identified as the root cause of all emotional turmoil that leads to destruction of an individual.

Thinking of sense objects with desire and greed man becomes attached to the sense objects and when the desire is not fulfilled anger sprouts. (as translated by Varma, 2008).

(BG, Ch. II, Sloka 62)

From anger arises lack of discrimination which causes erosion of memory, which in turn destroys intellect (discrimi-nation). With the erosion of intellect and wisdom man becomes like a dead wood. (Varma, 2008).

(BG, Ch. II, Sloka 63)

Lord Krishna describes the qualities of an emotionally stable person in 18 slokas (55 - 72) of chapter two of BG. Accordingly, a *sthithapragnya* is one who remains calm in the face of calamity, and takes good or evil with equanimity or *samatva*, evenness of mind (BG, 2.48). He has the power to emotionally attach or detach from any situation, at his will. This is quite similar to EI. In order to achieve emotional stability, Krishna prescribes the path of 'Nishkama Karma' – action with detachment to the outcome of the action – to common man (BG, 2.47 – 2.51). He insists that one must abide to his obligatory duties and execute them without expecting anything in return then he becomes 'karam yogi' which is the

first step towards becoming a *sthithapragnya* – the emotionally stable person. This is the desired end towards which the proponents of EI are working.

Moreover, Goleman's (1998b) original competency based model of EI has identified 'Empathy' as an important social competence, which has also been recognized as the most important trait of a 'karam yogi' in BG.

Oh Arjuna! That yogi is the supreme who treats and feels the pain and pleasure of others like his own pain and pleasure. (Varma, 2008).

(BG, Ch. VI, Sloka 32)

It is, rather, a matter of concern that EI as a specific set of skills can be used for either prosocial or antisocial purposes. Some emotionally intelligent people may use these skills either to inspire their colleagues or to exploit them. Being emotionally intelligent does not necessarily make one an ethical person. So, when the aforementioned insights from the eastern philosophy are incorporated into the theory of EI, it can surely relieve the modern man from the quagmire of conflict and moral dilemmas. Since intelligence in the Indian context goes beyond the rational and logical concept and adopts an integrated viewpoint which enables a person to realize one's potential by discharging one's responsibilities towards self, others and environment.

2.1.7 Neurological basis of Emotional Intelligence

Neuroscientists and evolutionists have been exploring the reasons underlying some of the most unreasonable behaviour for a long time. In the past few decades or so, scientists have erudite enough about the functionality of human brain with respect to the origination of emotions and its necessity. The latest research in neurobiology has unveiled that human beings operate from two minds: the emotional mind – one that feels and the rational mind – one that thinks (Goleman, 1995). Ekman (1992) states, "It is the fact that we cannot choose the emotions which we have," that allows people to explain away their actions by

saying they were in the grip of emotion. But with the help of rational mind one can ordinarily control the course of those reactions. The synergy between the two minds is what constitutes emotional intelligence.

Joseph LeDoux, a neuroscientist at the Center for Neural Science at New York University, was the first to discover the key role of amygdala in the emotional brain. LeDoux (2000) overturned the prevailing notion about the pathways travelled by emotions through his research on fear in animals. The conventional view in neuroscience had been that the sensory organs (e.g., eye, ear, etc.) transmit signals to the thalamus, where these are translated into the language of the brain, and from thalamus to sensory processing areas of the neocortex, where the signals are analysed and assessed for the meaning and appropriate response. From the neocortex the signals go to the limbic brain to activate the emotional centers. But LeDoux discovered a smaller bundle of neurons that leads directly from the thalamus to the amygdala, allowing the amygdala to receive some direct inputs from the senses and start a response before they are fully registered by the neocortex (LeDoux, 2000).

So, once the amygdala is activated by a sensory event, it can begin to regulate the cortical areas that project to it. Through such connections emotions can have direct influences on attention and perception. The amygdala's influence on attention and perception ensures that stimuli that are arousing and emotionally salient receive priority in initial stimulus processing and amygdala's influence on memory ensures that emotional events are also more likely to be remembered over time (LeDoux and Phelps, 2008).

The inner brain – and more precisely the amygdala is responsible for triggering the emotional feelings, which sometimes are responsible for pre-programmed "primitive" impulsive actions. This implies that emotional intelligence actually contributes to rational intelligence. It is our emotional brain that analyses emotional decisions of our life. It is now believed that our emotions

take priority over our thoughts in making decisions, because the rational mind takes a little longer to register and respond than the emotional mind.

According to Goleman (1995) the prefrontal cortex (PFC), located behind the forehead, plays an important role in bringing a more analytic response to our emotional impulses, modulating the amygdala and other limbic areas. In the neocortex a cascading series of circuits registers and analyses the sensory information, comprehends it, and, through the prefrontal lobes, synchronizes a reaction. If during this an emotional response is expected, the prefrontal lobes command it, working in unison with the amygdala and other circuits in the emotional brain (Goleman, 1995).

Research in the newly emerging field of 'affective neuroscience' (Davidson, Jackson, & Kalin, 2000) proposes that the PFC allows one to hold in mind or remind oneself of positive feelings that will come when one attains one's goals and at the same time allows one to inhibit the negative feelings that would discourage one from continuing to strive towards those goals. It also suggests that in humans a major locus of ability to regulate negative affect appears to be the circuit between the amygdala and the left PFC.

Although prefrontal cortical areas sub serve the cognitive functions measured by IQ tests, subcortical systems are more crucial for emotional and social functions such as empathy. Researches had shown that neurological patients with lesions to the ventromedial PFC, the amygdala, and insular regions display normal levels of cognitive function as assessed by IQ tests, while having impairments in social judgements and decision making (Bar-On et al., 2003).

Perchance the most spectacular recent discovery in behavioural neuroscience is the identification of 'mirror neurons' in widely disseminated areas of the brain. These were accidentally discovered between 1980 and 1990 by Italian neuroscientists (Sen, 2012). The discovery of these brain cells reveals that the brain is spattered with a special type of neurons that mimic, or mirror, what

another being does. According to Goleman and Boyatzis (2008) mirror neurons provide the biological basis of how as a living being we feel each other's pain and read each other's thoughts and feelings. These operate as neural Wi-Fi, allowing one to navigate one's social world. When a person consciously or unconsciously detects someone else's emotions through their actions, his mirror neurons reproduce those actions. Collectively, these neurons create an instant sense of shared experience. Thus, facilitating the ability to get along with others that hinges on attributes of empathy and compassion (Goleman, 2006).

2.1.8   Can Emotional Intelligence be developed?

This is a thought-provoking question and this particular aspect - enhanceable, made this concept immensely popular all over the world and also made it possible for people to acknowledge this new mantra of success at workplace. Are people born with certain levels of empathy, for example, or do they acquire empathy as a result of life's experiences? Goleman (l998b) replies the answer is both. He stated that the scientific inquiry strongly suggests that there is a genetic component to emotional intelligence. He further puts that psychological and developmental research indicates that nurture plays a role as well. How much of each perhaps will never be known, but research and practice clearly demonstrate that emotional intelligence can be learned (Goleman, 1998b).

He further opines that the EI can be improved with the help of the training programmes focused on the right part of the brain. EI is born largely in the neurotransmitters of the brain's limbic system, which governs feelings, impulses, and drives. Research indicates that the limbic system learns best through motivation, extended practice, and feedback. Comparing this with the kind of learning that goes on in the neocortex, which governs analytical and technical ability and helps in figuring out how to use a computer or make sales call by reading a book, Goleman (l998b) says not surprisingly-but mistakenly-neocortex is also the part of the brain targeted by most training programmes aimed at enhancing emotional intelligence. Based on his research with the

Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organisations, he further adds that when such programmes take, in effect, a neocortical approach can even have a negative impact on people's job performance. Goleman (1998b) opines that the organisations must refocus their training to include the limbic system to enhance the emotional intelligence of the employees and the training programme requires an individualized approach.

It is imperative that an individual puts in concerted effort if he sincerely desires to build his emotional intelligence. A brief seminar won't help; nor can one buy a how-to learn manual. It is much harder to learn to empathize- to internalize empathy as a natural response to people- than it is to become adept at regression analysis (Goleman, 1998b). Goleman (2000) elucidates that improving one's EI may take months rather than days because the emotional centers of the brain, not just the neocortex are involved. The neocortex, the thinking brain, that learns technical skills and purely cognitive abilities, gains knowledge very quickly, but the emotional brain does not. To master a new behaviour, the emotional centers need repetition and practice. Improving one's EI, then, is akin to changing one's habits. Brain circuits that carry habits have to unlearn the old ones and replace them with the new. The more often a behavioural sequence is repeated, the stronger the underlying brain circuits become. Then at some point, the new neural pathways become the brain's default option (Goleman, 2000).

The most persuasive evidence of improvement of EI competencies in people comes from the longitudinal study conducted at the Weatherhead School of Management at Case Western University (Boyatzis, Cowen, and Kolb, 1995). The results of this study have revealed that EI competencies can be significantly improved, and, moreover, these improvements are sustainable over time (cited in Emmerling and Goleman, 2003). Recent research on 'mindfulness' training – an emotional self-regulation strategy – has also shown that training can actually change the brain centers that regulate positive and negative emotions. Mindfulness training focuses on helping people to better stay concentrated on the

present, thus keeping distressful and distracting thoughts at bay, and to pause before acting on emotional impulse (Davidson et al., 2003).

In Indian context, Sen (2012) examines some interventions suggested to be inculcated as characteristics of dharma mentioned in *Manusmriti* (Shastri, 1997) and also tries to identify content that is related to EI with its neurological basis. She emphasizes that processes that require brain circuitry to be viable and invigorated through use are actions that require practice. So, people can get better at emotional regulation and self-control only by practicing it again and again.

On the same note, Goleman (1998a) concludes his famous HBR article as "It is fortunate, then, that emotional intelligence can be learned. The process is not easy. It takes time and, most of all, commitment. But the benefits that come from having a well-developed emotional intelligence, both for the individual and for the organisation, make it worth the effort".

2.2   ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT

Conflict is inevitable in personal, organizational, and societal life of human beings. When two or more individuals, groups, organizations, and nations interact with one another for attainment of their goals, they may come across a situation of conflict due to competition, difference in values, attitudes, beliefs, experiences, skills, and perception of limited resources. Conflict manifests itself in a variety of shapes, sizes, and even disguises. According to Bisno (1988), it refers to 'a process of social interaction involving a struggle over claims to resources, power and status, beliefs, and other preferences and desires'. During this interaction the parties may attempt to gain acceptance of a preference, or securing a resource advantage, to the extremes of injuring or eliminating opponents.

Conflict appears throughout the entire gamut of human interactions. It is a pervasive phenomenon that permeates a multitude of organizational processes

and outcomes. Certainly, it is one of the major organizational phenomena. The conceptualization of "conflict" has undergone many changes since its inception and still remains rather vague and contextual. Early definitions of conflict had focussed on a wide variety of different phenomena (Fink, 1968). For instance, Pondy (1967) has suggested that organizational conflict can best be understood as a dynamic process underlying organizational behaviour.

2.2.1   Defining conflict

In one of the earlier definitions of conflict, March and Simon (1958) considered conflict as "a breakdown in standard mechanisms of decision making", so that an individual or group finds it difficult to choose an alternative. Thereafter, the researchers focused on disagreements on ends or goals for explaining conflict (Boulding, 1962; Seiler, 1963; Walton and Dutton, 1969). Later, researchers like Jehn (1997) have also considered incompatibilities in means as a reason for occurrence of conflict. Kolb and Putnam (1992) suggests that conflict happens when there are perceived differences in interests, views or goals. Others propose that for a conflict to happen, one party must actually behave so as to interfere with the aims of another (Deutsch, 1973). Pondy (1967) poses conflict in terms of opposing interests involving scarce resources and goal divergence. Conflict has also been considered as a cognitive bargaining process (Pinkley, 1990). In general, conflict (Wall and Callister, 1995) can be thought of as 'a process in which one party perceives that its interests are being opposed or negatively affected by another party', or, as the 'process that begins when one party perceives that the other has negatively affected something that he or she cares about' (Thomas, 1992).

The distinction between concepts of conflict and competition has also led to some conceptual ambiguity (Schmidt and Kochan, 1972). The perception of goal incompatibility has been posed (Fink, 1968) as a necessary precondition for either conflict or competition; however, according to Boulding (1962), all situations of incompatibility result in competition, but conflict occurs when the

parties become *aware* of the incompatibility and desire to *interfere* with each other's goal attainments. Although competition is not automatically conflict, it often leads to conflict (Bisno, 1988). Conflict is also thought to occur in mixed-motive relationships where persons have both competitive and cooperative interests (Tjosvold, 1998).

It can be observed that the definitions of conflict have been varied in scope, meaning and focus but not resulting in a clear definition of conflict. In the views of Pondy (1967),

[…] the term conflict has been used at one time or another in the literature to describe: (1) antecedent conditions (for example scarcity of resources, policy differences) of conflictful behaviour, (2) affective states (e.g., stress, tension, hostility, anxiety, etc.) of the individuals involved; (3) cognitive states of individuals (i.e. their perception or awareness of conflictual situations); and (4) conflictful behaviour, ranging from passive resistance to overt aggression.

Broadly, the definitions of conflict have gradually moved from the process-oriented, descriptive view to a more contingent view of conflict considering the contextual implications, with Kolb and Putnam's (1992) definition even including emotion as a necessary condition for the occurrence of conflict. A more comprehensive definition of conflict can be 'a phenomenon that occurs between interdependent parties as they experience negative emotional reactions to perceived disagreements and interference with the attainment of their goals' (Barki and Hartwick, 2001).

2.2.2   Classification of conflict

As mentioned in the literature of organizational behaviour and management, conflict may be categorised on the basis of its sources. It may also be categorised on the basis of organizational levels (individual, group, etc.) at which it may instigate.

2.2.2.1 Sources of conflict

Conflicts may be often classified on the basis of the antecedent conditions that lead to conflict. Conflict may originate from a variety of sources, such as one's selfish concern, different goals, different ideologies, tasks, limited resources, power issues, relationships, and so on. The conflicts on the basis of these sources can be classified as follows:

1). *Substantive versus Affective Conflicts:* Guetzkow and Gyr (1954) first distinguished between conflict based on task and those based on interpersonal or socio-emotional issues. Substantive conflict occurs when two or more organizational members disagree on their tasks or content issues, while affective conflict occurs when two interacting social entities become aware that their feelings and emotions regarding some issues are incompatible.

2). *Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Conflicts*: Haiman (1951) proposed this classification. Intrinsic conflict consists of rational, ideational, or intellectual contents, while extrinsic conflict consists of psychological and emotional contents. Resolving intrinsic conflicts require analytical approach and skill while extrinsic conflicts require social tactics and diplomacy.

3). *Realistic versus Non-realistic Conflicts*: Realistic and non-realistic conflicts are similar to Haiman's (1951) intrinsic and extrinsic conflicts. Realistic conflict refers to incompatibilities that have rational content such as tasks, goals, values, means, and ends whereas non-realistic conflict is not related to group or organizational goals (Ross and Ross, 1989). Non-realistic conflict occurs as a result of a party's need to release tension and express hostility or ignorance.

4). *Conflict of Interest*: This type of conflict occurs when there is an inconsistency between two parties in their preferences for the allocation of a scarce resource (Druckman and Zechmeister, 1973).

5). *Conflict of Values*: This conflict occurs when conflicting parties differ in their values or ideologies on certain issues (Druckman, Broome, and Korper, 1988). This is also referred to as *ideological* conflict.

6). *Displaced Conflict*: Deutsch (1977) proposed this conflict, which occurs when the conflicting parties either direct their frustrations to social entities who are not involved in conflict or fail to identify the actual issue and argue over secondary issue.

7). *Misattributed Conflict*: This type of conflict involves misdirection, i.e., the conflict may be between the wrong parties, over the wrong issues, or based on an incorrect attribution as to basic causes (Deutsch, 1977).

Furthermore, according to Pondy (1967) conflict can be classified as bargaining, bureaucratic, and systems conflict. Bargaining conflict refers to the conflict originating from bargaining among interest groups in competition for scarce resources, bureaucratic conflict to that between parties involved in superior subordinate relationship, and systems conflict refers to lateral conflict or conflict among parties involved in a functional relationship.

2.2.2.2 Levels of conflict

Organizational conflict may also be classified as *intraorganizational* or *interorganizational*. The prefix *inter* is used for depicting conflict "between" units or parties whereas the prefix *intra* is used to refer conflict "within" unit or party. Intraorganizational conflict may also be classified on the basis of levels (individual, group, etc.) at which it occurs. So, accordingly intraorganizational conflict may be classified as intrapersonal, interpersonal, intragroup, and intergroup. These four types of conflict are elaborated below:

1). *Intrapersonal Conflict*: This type of conflict is also called *intraindividual* or *intrapsychic* conflict. It occurs when an organizational member is expected to perform certain tasks and roles that mismatch his or her expertise, interests, goals,

and values. There are several types of intrapersonal conflicts including interrole, intrarole, person-role conflict, etc.

2). *Interpersonal Conflict*: This type of conflict is also known as *dyadic* conflict. It occurs between two or more organizational members of the same or different hierarchical levels or units. Such conflict may occur due to individual differences in perception of problems, perception of situations, attitudes, values apart from differences due to control and allocation of resources. The studies pertaining to styles of handling conflict with one's superior(s), subordinates, and peers relate to this type of conflict.

3). *Intragroup Conflict*: This is also called *intradepartmental* conflict. It refers to conflict among members of a group or between two or more subgroups within a group in association with its tasks, goals, procedures, and so on. This kind of conflict may also occur due to incompatibilities or disagreements between some or all the members of a group and its leader(s).

4). *Intergroup Conflict*: This is also known as *interdepartmental* conflict. It refers to conflict between two or more units or groups within an organization in connection with tasks, resources, information, and so on. The examples of this type of conflict can be conflicts between line and staff, production and marketing, and headquarters and field staffs. The conflict between labour and management is a special type of intergroup conflict.

Conflicts classified by sources can occur at the interpersonal, intragroup, or intergroup levels. In other words, incongruences as a result of these sources can take place in the context of two individuals, a group, or two groups.

2.2.3   Conflict management

Earlier, in the literature of conflict, the emphasis was laid on *conflict resolution*, but the contemporary view of dealing with conflict emphasizes on conflict management. According to academicians (Robbins, 1978; Boulding, 1968), the difference between conflict resolution and conflict management is more

than semantic. Conflict management does not necessarily mean avoidance, reduction, or termination of conflict. It includes designing effective strategies to diminish the dysfunctions of conflict and to enhance the constructive functions of conflict in order to improve organizational learning and effectiveness. The contemporary organizations need conflict management, not conflict resolution (Rahim, 2001). Since, the focus of the present research is on the management of interpersonal conflict so the different styles of managing interpersonal conflict are only considered.

Interpersonal conflicts can be handled with different styles of behaviour. The various models of the styles of handling interpersonal conflict in organizations are as described below.

Model of Two Styles

Deutsch (1949) was first to suggest the cooperative-competitive model in the area of research on social conflict. Deutsch and his associates have proposed that a cooperative relationship is more effective than a competitive relationship in managing conflict. Although they have been able to provide evidence that shows that a cooperative relationship results in a more functional outcome than does a competitive relationship, but these studies have been unable to provide evidence of a positive relationship of cooperative style to job performance, productivity, or other independent measures of outcome. The two-factor model does not incorporate other styles, but in managerial settings, a person hardly encounters purely cooperative or purely competitive conflict situations. So, this cooperative-competitive dichotomy is hardly used in the conflict literature.

Model of Three Styles

Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) identified the three styles of handling conflict: forcing, smoothing, and confrontation. Another empirical evidence for the three styles of handling interpersonal conflict was provided by Putnam and

Wilson (1982), namely, non-confrontation (obliging), solution-orientation (integrating), and control (dominating).

The other two models were developed by Rands, Levinger, and Mellinger (1981) (attack, avoid, and compromise) and Billingham and Sack (1987) (reasoning, verbal aggression, and violence). These models received some attention in research in the area of marital conflict, but the researchers have not provided any evidence of the relationships between the three interpersonal conflict management styles and individual, group, and organizational outcomes.

Model of Four Styles

Pruitt (1983) empirically evidenced the four styles of handling conflict: yielding, problem solving, inaction, and contending. These styles were based on the two-dimensional model that includes concern for self (high or low) and concern for others (high or low). This model is more advanced than the previous two, but it also does not include compromising as a distinct style. Pruitt (1983) and other researchers have provided evidence that problem solving is the best for managing conflict effectively but they have not provided any evidence of the relationships of the four styles to job performance or productivity.

Kurdek (1994) suggested another four-factor model of conflict styles: problem solving, conflict engagement, withdrawal, and compliance. This model received some attention in the operationalization of marital conflict.

Model of Five Styles

Follett (1940) was first to conceptualize the five styles of handling interpersonal conflict in organizations in 1926. She conceptualized three primary styles of handling organizational conflict-domination, compromise, and integration-as well as other, secondary styles of handling conflict, such as avoidance and suppression. Blake and Mouton (1964) first presented a conceptual scheme for categorizing the modes (styles) of dealing with interpersonal conflicts.

They elaborated the five modes (forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving) of handling conflict based on the attitudes of the manager: concern for production and for people. Thomas (1976) reinterpreted this conceptual scheme. His classification of modes of handling conflict into five types was based on the intentions of a party: cooperativeness (trying to satisfy the other party's concerns) and assertiveness (trying to satisfy one's own concerns).

Similarly, Rahim (1983) differentiated the styles of handling interpersonal conflict using the dimensions of concern for self and concern for others. The first dimension highlights the degree (high or low) to which a person wants to satisfy his or her own concern. The second dimension highlights the degree (high or low) to which a person attempts to satisfy the concern of others. It is significant to note that these dimensions represent motivational orientations of a particular individual during conflict. The five conflict management styles emerging from this dual concern model are as shown in the Figure 2.1 (Rahim and Bonoma, 1979).

The five styles of handling interpersonal conflict are elaborated as follows:

1). *Integrating Style*

This style represents high concern for self as well as for the other party involved in conflict. This style is also called 'problem solving'. It encompasses collaboration between the parties (i.e., openness, exchange of information, and analysis of differences) to find a solution acceptable to both parties.

2). *Obliging Style*

This style represents low concern for self and high concern for the other party involved in conflict. This is also called 'accommodating style'. It is associated with trying to play down the differences and focusing on commonalities to satisfy the concern of the other party. An obliging person sacrifices his or her own concern to satisfy the concern of the other party.

Figure 2.1 The five conflict management styles
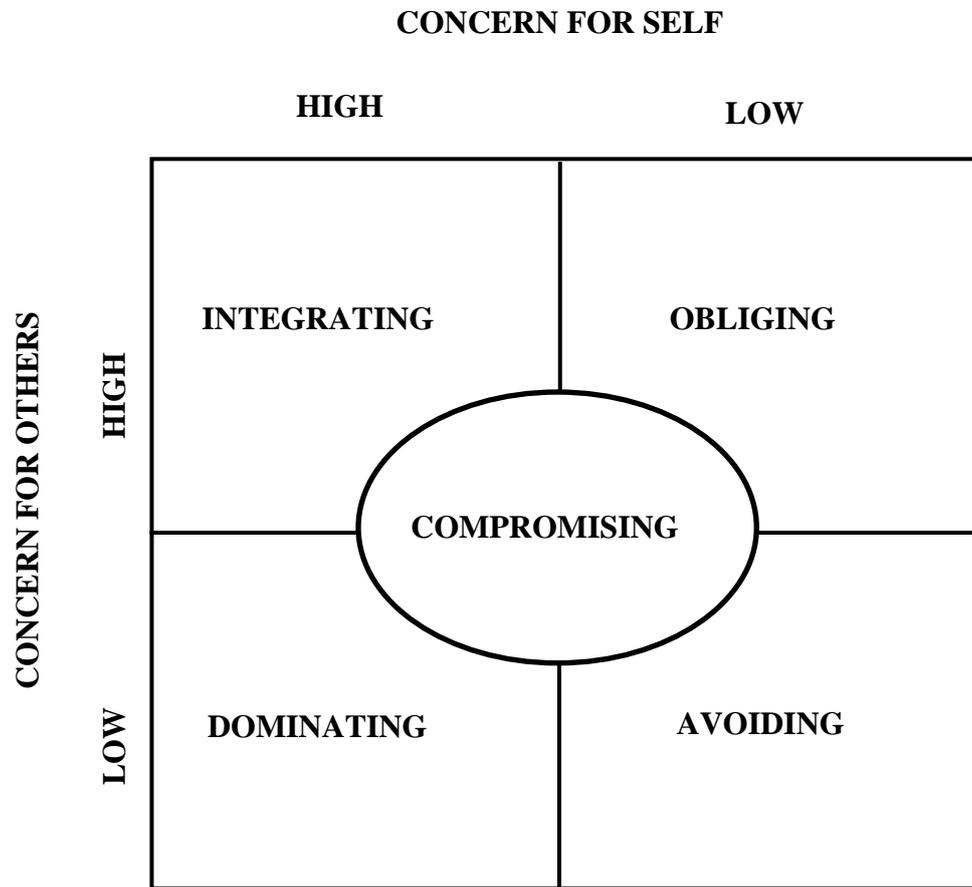
CONCERN FOR SELF

3). *Dominating Style*

This style represents high concern for self and low concern for the other party involved in conflict. This is also called 'competing style'. It is identified with forcing behaviour to win one's position. A dominating person wants to achieve his or her objectives at any cost and, as a result, often neglects the needs and expectations of the other party.

4). *Avoiding Style*

This style represents low concern for self as well as for the other party involved in conflict. This is also called 'suppression' or 'withdrawal style'. It is often identified as unconcerned attitude towards the issues or parties involved in conflict. An avoiding person fails to satisfy his or her own concern as well as the concern of the other party.

5). *Compromising Style*

This style represents moderate concern for self as well as for the other party involved in conflict. It comprises give-and-take whereby both parties give up something to find a mutually acceptable solution. A compromising party gives up more than a dominating party but less than an obliging party. Also, such a party considers an issue more directly than an avoiding party but does not involve in in-depth analysis as an integrating party.

Approach-avoidance Styles

Pareek (1992) recommended approach and avoidance mode of conflict management based on the perception of the outgroup (the 'other' group, contrasted with 'our' group). He believed there are two main dimensions of the perception of the outgroup. It may be either perceived as always opposed to the interests of the ingroup and as belligerent, or as having its own interests, but interested in peace. Or, it may be perceived as unreasonable, or as open to reason. When combined, these two types of perceptions result in four modes of conflict management. Avoidance is based on fear which may result in defensive behaviour like denial, rationalization, and emotional displacement, while approach is based on hope characterised by making efforts to find a solution with the help of others. The approach mode includes conflict management styles such as, confrontation, arbitration, compromise, and negotiation, whereas avoidance modes or styles include resignation, withdrawal, appeasement, and defusion.

Table 2.4 presents the eight conflict management styles or modes by combining the two aspects, perception of the outgroup, and the approach and avoidance dimension Pareek (2011).

Pareek (1992) identifies negotiation as the most effective mode of conflict management. In this he refers to the affective method of conflict resolution through the establishment of positive feelings by each party and minimizing feelings of anger, threat or defensiveness by depersonalising the problem.

Table 2.4 Conflict Management Styles

Mode	Perception of outgroup	Style
Approach	- Unreasonable - Opposed to our interests and belligerent	Confrontation
	- Open to reason - Opposed to our interests and belligerent	Arbitration
	- Reasonable - Having own interests, but interested in peace	Compromise
	- Open to reason - Having own interests, but interested in peace	Negotiation
Avoidance	- Unreasonable - Opposed to our interests and belligerent	Resignation
	- Open to reason - Opposed to our interests and belligerent	Withdrawal
	- Unreasonable - Having own interests, but interested in peace	Appeasement
	- Open to reason - Having own interests, but interested in peace	Defusion

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter encompasses the important findings and suggestions of previous researches carried out in the field of emotional intelligence. The studies which were linking EI with employee's performance have been reported first, followed by the studies linking EI with conflict management at workplace. The literature review has been presented under two sections:

1. Emotional Intelligence and Performance
2. Emotional Intelligence and Conflict management

3.1   Emotional Intelligence and Performance

Emotional Intelligence has been found to contribute in superior performance of employees at work place. The findings of relevant studies have been encapsulated in this section as present below:

Carmeli and Josman (2006) empirically examined the effects of emotional intelligence on two aspects of work outcomes: task performance and organizational citizenship behaviours (altruism and compliance). A sample of 215 employees, employed in a diverse set of organizations in Israel, was requested to participate in this study. For the study purposes, data were collected on site from both the employees and their supervisors. EI was assessed by self-report measure, whereas work outcomes were assessed by the employee's supervisors. The findings of the study supported a positive relationship between EI and work outcomes.

Côté and Miners (2006) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence, and job performance (task performance and

organizational citizenship behaviour). The participants were 175 managerial, administrative, and professional full-time employees of a large public university. The study revealed that cognitive intelligence moderated the association between EI and job performance. EI became a stronger predictor of job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour directed at the organization (e.g., "defend the organization when other employees criticize it") as cognitive intelligence decreased. Results also suggested that using cognitive intelligence tests alone to predict job performance involves risk, because employees with low cognitive intelligence can perform effectively if they have high EI.

Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, and Salovey (2006) investigated that how emotional intelligence was associated with positive work place outcomes in 44 analysts and clerical/administrative employees from the finance staff for the Eastern region of Fortune 400 insurance company. It was found that emotionally intelligent employees received greater merit increases and held higher company rank than their counterparts. They also received better peer and/or supervisor ratings of interpersonal facilitation and stress tolerance than their counterparts.

Law, Wong, Huang, Li (2008) focussed their study on how emotional intelligence affected job performance among 102 research and development scientists of a large Chinese computer company in Beijing. The results of this study demonstrated that the effect of EI on job performance was also valid for a job position that demanded a very high General Mental ability (GMA). Moreover, EI accounted for about 10% of overall job performance on top of GMA.

Heffernan, O'Neill, Travaglione, and Droulers (2008) explored the possible links between financial performance of relationship managers and their levels of emotional intelligence and trust. The sample included 129 branch managers (in charge of the day-to day running of the branch and the development of relationships with residential customers) and 92 relationship managers (dealing one-on-one with the banking needs of small-to-medium business customers) at branches of a major international bank in Australia. The findings of the study

indicated that the higher the level of EI a relationship manager possesses, the higher their profitability for the bank.

Khokhar and Kush (2009) tried to explain the performance of executives on different levels of emotional intelligence and provided a link between EI and effective work performance. For this study, 20 Male executives (out of 200) from a public sector manufacturing company in Haridwar and a public sector power generation company in Rishikesh of Uttarakhand State (India) were selected on random basis. The findings of the study revealed that executives having higher emotional intelligence showed better quality of work performance as compared to their counterparts.

Jadhav and Mulla (2010) studied the impact of emotional intelligence on job performance and the moderating role of job characteristics (i.e., interpersonal interaction) on the relationship between EI and job performance. The sample included 101 working executives in the manufacturing unit of a large pharmaceutical company in Mumbai, India. Analysis of the data showed no significant relationship between EI and job performance for the entire sample. However, for individuals having high interpersonal interaction on their jobs, EI was significantly related to job performance. On the hand, for individuals having low interpersonal interaction on their jobs, EI was not related to job performance.

Mishra and Mohapatra (2010) explored empirically the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among 90 executives employed in various organizations (public and private sectors) in Delhi NCR (National Capital Region). The results of the study showed that there is a significant relationship between EI and work performance. Although all the components of EI, i.e., competency, maturity, and sensitivity, were found to contribute towards overall work performance, emotional competency was identified as the major contributor to overall work performance in this study.

O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawyer, and Story (2011) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the relation between emotional intelligence and job performance. In total, they identified 1163 citations pertaining to the relation among EI, Five Factor Model (FFM), cognitive ability, and job performance. The findings of meta-analysis indicated that EI represents one important predictor of job performance.

Ahangar (2012) empirically explored the links between emotional intelligence and job performance among Iranian executives. A total of 200 executives from different geographical areas of Iran organizations participated in this study. The findings of the study revealed that there is a significant relationship between EI and performance among executives. Employees with high EI are more adept at using their emotions to facilitate job performance. The executives having higher EI show better quality of job performance as compared to their counterparts.

Rahman, Ferdausy, and Karan (2013) intended to investigate the relationship between the components of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills) and job performance as perceived by the participants. Data for this study were collected from 201 MBA students working in different organizations (such as, manufacturing, merchandising, financial services, education, healthcare, service industry, and others) and enrolled at four private universities in Chittagong, a port city of Bangladesh. They were asked to rate their supervisor's EI and job performance. The results supported a positive relationship between all five components of EI and job performance of supervisors as perceived by their subordinates.

Schutte, Schuettpelz, and Malouff (2001) suggested that there may be a relationship between emotional intelligence and cognitive task performance. The sample of 38 participants was recruited from various workplaces such as, a pharmacy, a medical clinic, an electronics firm, and from a university. The results showed that those with higher EI performed better on cognitive tasks. Moreover,

when individuals encountered difficulties in working on cognitive task, they were better able to hold off the detrimental emotional effects of the difficulties and persisted on the task. The results presented EI as a promising construct for better understanding and perhaps in the future enhancing of cognitive task performance.

Quoidbach and Hansenne (2009) explored the relationships between emotional intelligence, work team performance, and team cohesiveness among 23 nursing teams which included 421 nurses, auxiliary nurses, and physiotherapists working in the regional hospital centre in Belgium. Nursing team performance was measured at four different levels: job satisfaction, chief nursing executive's rating, turnover rate, and health care quality. The study results indicated that of the four main criteria of team performance, only health care quality significantly correlated with emotional regulation. Emotion regulation was also positively correlated with group cohesiveness. These results suggest that EI and, specially, emotional regulation may provide an interesting new way of enhancing nursing team's cohesion and patient/client outcomes.

Deshmukh and Madhur (2014) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance of employees working in IT sector in Pune city, India, by focusing on the important aspects like attitude & behaviour. The results suggested that emotional intelligence is significantly related with individual attitude and behaviour and ultimately job performance.

Sy, Tram, and O'Hara (2006) investigated the associations among employee's emotional intelligence, their manager's emotional intelligence, employee's job satisfaction, and performance for 187 food service employees. They found that employee's EI was positively associated with job satisfaction and performance. Also, manager's EI had a more positive correlation with job satisfaction for employees with low EI than for those with high EI.

Ramo, Saris, and Boyatzis (2009) attempted to provide evidence for emotional intelligence measure's predictive validity. They examined how

emotional and social competencies are related with job performance as well as whether emotional and social competencies will be more successful in predicting performance than universal personality dimensions such as, the Big Five personality traits. They collected data from 223 executives of three medium-sized Spanish organizations that were involved in a competency management project based on emotional and social competencies. The results exhibited that EI emotional competencies and personality traits are valuable predictors of job performance as measured by the nominations procedure in the study. Additionally, competencies seem to be more strong predictors of performance than global personality traits.

Cumming (2005) intended to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace performance as well as to determine the relationship between demographic factors, EI and workplace performance. The sample included employees from one large insurance company in New Zealand. The results of this study suggested a significant relationship between EI and workplace performance. However, the results related to demographic factors, EI and workplace performance found only one relationship to be significant that was the relationship between occupation and workplace performance.

One major study for empirically demonstrating the impact of emotional intelligence on occupational performance was conducted in the U.S. Air Force (USAF). Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) was used to assess EI and performance ratings based on individual productivity used for assessing occupational performance for 1,171 USAF recruiters. The EQ-i scores were compared with their performance as recruiters. The recruiters were categorised as high performing (those who met or exceeded 100% of their annual recruitment quotas), and low performing groups (those who meet less than 80% of their annual recruitment quotas). The results showed that the high performers had significantly higher EQs than low performers and vice versa. This indicates that high performers are more emotionally intelligent than low performers based on the population samples. The results also suggested that EI predicted 28% of the

variance in the performance of these two groups which means EI is able to predict performance in the workplace. The findings clearly indicate that individuals who are more emotionally intelligent are expected to perform better in the workplace. This study could identify high and low performing recruiters with 72% accuracy rate.

Thereafter, USAF combined pre-employment EI screening with interviewing; the USAF increased its ability to predict successful recruiters by nearly threefold. The EQ-i correctly classified 81% of all successful and unsuccessful recruiters, which was more than anticipated (i.e., 72%). The selection of emotionally intelligent USAF recruiters proved financially advantageous by placing right recruits in right positions and hence, decreasing the cost incurred in hiring mismatched recruits (Bar-On, Handley, and Fund, 2006).

In an exploratory study conducted by Wong and Law (2002), evidences for the effects of the emotional intelligence of both leaders and followers on job outcomes were found. Applying Gros's emotion regulation model, they argued that the EI of leaders and followers would have positive effects on job performance and attitudes. They also anticipated that emotional labour of the job moderated the EI–job outcome relationship. The results revealed that the EI of followers affected job performance and job satisfaction, while the EI of leaders affected their satisfaction and extra-role behaviour. For followers, the proposed interaction effects between EI and emotional labour on job performance, organizational commitment, and turnover intention were also supported.

Higgs (2004) conducted a study to explore the relationship between the emotional intelligence, and ratings of the performance of call centre agents in UK. A sample of 289 agents from three organisations was considered. Results indicated a strong relationship between overall EI and individual performance, as well as between several EI elements from the model and performance.

Patnaik, Satpathy, and Pradhan (2010) investigated the relationship of emotional intelligence with work performance of executives working in the Cooperative bank and Gramya Banks in Odisha (India) and the results revealed that high EQ is essential for better performance in the banking sector.

Davar and Singh (2014) in their survey of 250 employees working in public-sector banks, private sector banks, cooperative banks, and insurance companies from different districts of North India found emotional intelligence to be directly related to job performance.

Barone, Dyer, and Geiser (2015) explored the relationship between the emotional intelligence of salespeople and salary as a measure of sales performance. Results indicated that salespeople with higher salaries (high-performing salespeople) exhibited higher levels of EI than did salespeople with lower salaries (low-performing salespeople).

Lindebaum and Jordan (2012) disputed the notion that emotional intelligence improves all types of work performance and argued that there is a complex relationship between EI and work performance in which both task and context play a role. They collected data from a sample of 55 project managers in UK construction industry using a cross-sectional survey design. Findings suggested that project manager's levels of EI are linked to most relational performance dimensions. However, project manager's EI was not associated with cognitive task related performance dimensions. These findings significantly advance our understanding of how the constructs of EI and project manager performance relate in a given context. Managers who work in contexts that are person-oriented or those that deal with tasks that are interpersonal in nature potentially benefit from EI.

Mathew and Mulla (2011) investigated the impact of Emotional Intelligence, General Mental Ability (GMA) and conscientiousness on managerial performance. The study was conducted on a sample of 100 students pursuing a

one-year MBA program, who had prior experience in supervisory or managerial roles in organizations across India, and used three measures of managerial performance- one self-report (measuring intrinsic performance) and two objective measures (measuring extrinsic performance). The results showed that subjective and objective measures of performance were not related and EI predicted managerial performance over and above GMA and conscientiousness for the self-report measure of managerial performance but EI was not related to the other two objective measures of performance.

Langhorn (2004) conducted a research in relating the emotional competencies of individual general managers to the key performance outputs under their direct control. EQ-i was used to assess EI of a group of managers operating in the pub restaurant sector of the leisure industry in the UK. The results evidenced the correlation in key areas of profit performance relating to the EI pattern of the general manager.

Sinha and Jain (2004) examined the relationship of emotional intelligence with some of the organizationally relevant outcome variables based on the data collected from 250 middle-level male executives from six plants of two-wheeler automobile manufacturing organizations belonging to public sector, located in five different cities of North India. The variables included were categorized in two categories of outcomes for organization: individual level outcomes and organizational level outcomes. The individual or personal level outcome variables were job satisfaction, personal effectiveness, organizational commitment, reputational effectiveness, general health, organizational trust, turnover intention. The organizational level outcomes variables were organizational effectiveness and organizational productivity. The results suggested that the different EI dimensions were found to be considerably associated with organizationally relevant variables in general.

Sjöberg, Littorin, and Engelberg (2005) conducted a study in which, 45 salespersons in a large telecommunications company were tested for emotional

intelligence (EI), additional dimensions of work motivation and personality, and work performance. It was found that EI was related to other variables, most remarkably to life/work balance (positively), to positive affective tone (positively), and to materialistic values and money obsession (negatively). EI was most clearly related to citizenship behaviour and less to core task performance. Core task performance was strongly related to conscientiousness and positive affect, and also to willingness to work and work interest. Job satisfaction had a weaker relationship to performance. In this study EI emerged as a dimension possible to measure and with expected properties.

3.2   Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management

Emotional Intelligence is related to management of conflict in work settings. Managers with higher levels of EI are more adept at conflict management. A brief account of some previous studies relating emotional intelligence to conflict management has been reported here:

The study conducted by Rahim et al., (2002) explored the relationships of the five dimensions of emotional intelligence: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills of supervisors to subordinate's strategies of handling conflict: problem solving and bargaining. For this study, the responses were collected with questionnaires from 1,395 MBA students in seven countries (U.S., Greece, China, Bangladesh, Hong Kong and Macau, South Africa, and Portugal). The results in the U.S. and in the combined sample provided support for the model which suggests that self-awareness is positively associated with self-regulation, empathy, and social skills; self-regulation is positively associated with empathy and social skills; empathy and social skills are positively associated with motivation; which in turn, is positively associated with problem solving strategy and negatively associated with bargaining strategy.

Carmeli (2003) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes ,behaviour and outcomes i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, career commitment, job involvement, job performance,

organizational citizenship behaviour, and work-family conflict (family interference with work) in a group of 98 senior managers. The empirical study indicated that emotional intelligence augments positive work attitudes, altruistic behaviour and work outcomes, and moderates the effect of work-family conflict on career commitment but not the effect on job satisfaction.

Jordan and Troth (2004) investigated the utility of emotional intelligence for predicting individual performance, team performance, and conflict resolution styles. Three-hundred-and-fifty respondents working in 108 teams were administered a measure of team member's emotional intelligence. Participants then completed a problem-solving task, individually and as a team member, and afterwards reflected on the conflict resolution tactics used to achieve the team outcome. It was observed that emotional intelligence indicators were positively linked with team performance and were differentially linked to conflict resolution methods.

Lenaghan, Buda, and Eisner (2007) in their empirical study investigated the impact of emotional intelligence in the work-family model. A total of 205 people participated in this study. This sample was drawn from a large university representing a large variety of jobs including unionized trade workers to executive managers. They found that EI acts as a protector variable of one's wellbeing in the face of work-family conflict. Also, higher EI positively influenced well-being. Specifically, those individuals in the sample who had high EI with low work-family conflict reported the highest well-being while those with low EI and high work-family conflict reported the lowest well-being.

Ayoko, Callan, and Härtel (2008) proposed to integrate features of conflict, reactions to conflict, and team emotional intelligence climate. They gathered data from 528 employees in 97 organizational teams. They found that teams with less-well-defined EI climates were associated with increased task and relationship conflict and increased conflict intensity. Additionally, team EI climate, especially conflict management norms, moderated the link between task conflict and destructive reactions to conflict.

Godse and Thingujam (2010) examined the relationship between conflict resolution styles and emotional intelligence over and above personality. The respondents were 81 information technology professionals in India. The results revealed that overall emotional intelligence was significantly correlated with the integrating style of conflict resolution and negatively and significantly correlated with the avoiding style of conflict resolution.

Feizi, Shahbahrami, and Azhandeh (2011) examined the relationship between manager's emotional intelligence and their conflict management strategies. This study comprised a population of 103 administrators in Iran university of Medical Sciences. The results revealed no correlation between emotional intelligence and control strategy. A positive correlation was found between EI and conflict resolution strategy while the correlation between EI and conflict avoidance strategy was negative. The findings suggest that manager's EI can be considered as an important factor in recognizing conflicts and adopting strategies for conflict management in organizations.

Heris and Heris (2011) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management strategies in physical education experts of Tehran University. The sample included 82 experts from public universities in Tehran. The results showed significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles (dominance, avoiding, collaborative, and compromising), but no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management tolerance style (yield) was found.

Kumari (2015) tried to describe an association of emotional intelligence with conflict resolution styles among a sample of 80 comprising of middle level managers from different organizations in India. The findings of the study suggested that amongst eight conflict resolution styles (approach and avoidance styles), compromise (approach) and diffusion (avoidance) styles are significantly

predicted by emotional intelligence. Higher level of EI leads employees towards alignment with organization's goals and objectives.

Suliman and Al-Shaikh (2007) attempted to examine the concept of emotional intelligence in the Arab world and explore the role of EI in affecting work outcomes, namely family-work conflict, goal conflict, frustration, and readiness to create and innovate. They surveyed 500 employees from 19 organizations (financial and service sectors) in the United Arab Emirates by using a self-administered questionnaire. The results revealed significant differences between employee's perceptions of EI, conflict and readiness to create and innovate. Employees with higher levels of EI tended to report lower levels of conflict and higher levels of readiness to create and innovate. Based on the results of this study, organizations must increase the levels of EI for their employee's, which will help them to manage these conflicts properly and reduce its negative impact on their life and work.

Yu, Sardessai, Lu, and Zhao (2005) tried to explore the relationship between supervisor's emotional intelligence and subordinate's styles of handling interpersonal conflicts. They surveyed 227 employed MBA students enrolled in a large university in China. The results indicated significant influence of emotional intelligence on both integrating and compromising conflict management styles. An interesting finding was that supervisor's emotional intelligence had significant positive influence on subordinate's dominating style, not negative as predicted.

Shih and Susanto (2010) investigated the relationship among emotional intelligence, conflict management styles and job performance at selected local governments in Indonesia. The sample consisted of 228 respondents who filled the questionnaire. The findings indicated that EI was an antecedent of conflict management styles for integrating and compromising styles. Also, the integrating style partially mediates the relationship between EI and job performance. This study verifies that EI within public sectors can be beneficial as discovered in private organizations.

Schlaerth, Ensari, and Christian (2013) conducted a meta-analysis to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and constructive conflict management, and the moderating role of leadership position and age. They examined total 20 studies yielding 280 effect sizes and involving 5,175 participants. The results indicated a positive association of EI with constructive conflict management, and this relationship was stronger for subordinates than leaders. The age was not found to be a significant moderator as it was predicted.

Chan, Sit, and Lau (2014) examined the association of emotional intelligence and implicit theories of personality with conflict management styles. The cross-sectional quantitative survey of 568 undergraduate nursing students was conducted at a nursing school at a university in Hong Kong. As a result, emotional intelligence emerged as a significant predictor of all five conflict management styles (integrating, obliging, compromising, dominating, and avoiding). The higher the EI, the more students used integrating, obliging, compromising and dominating. The lower the EI, the more students used avoiding style of conflict management.

Hopkins and Yonker (2015) investigated the critical relationship between emotional intelligence abilities and conflict management styles in the workplace. The study encompassing 126 participants indicated that the EI abilities of problem solving, social responsibility, and impulse control were the most directly related to how participants managed conflict at the workplace which has practical implications for management development purposes.

Zhang, Chen, and Sun (2015) carried out a study on 159 employees in construction industry in China to investigate the relationship among emotional intelligence, conflict management styles, and innovation performance. The results revealed that EI is positively and significantly related to integrating, compromising, and dominating styles, as well as innovation performance of

employees. This study also confirms the role of integrating style as a mediating variable in the relationship between EI and innovation performance.

Morrison (2008) attempted to determine if a relationship exists between emotional intelligence and preferred conflict-handling styles of registered nurses. A total of 94 registered nurses working in South Mississippi healthcare facilities participated in this study. The significant finding was that higher levels of EI positively correlated with collaborating and negatively with accommodating style of conflict management. In a healthcare facility, understanding how EI levels and conflict skills correlate can be used to improve interpersonal relationships among medical professionals.

Pradhan, Awasthy, Kumar, and Pattanayk (2005) examined the role of emotional intelligence in conflict management and organizational commitment. The study comprised 66 executives randomly selected from various departments of a reputed private company located in the North-East States of India. The major findings of the study indicated that EI only contributes significantly to integrating strategy of conflict management, which implies that EI does not contribute much for better conflict management.

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The present study is conducted to examine the relationship between branch manager's emotional intelligence and their conflict management styles. This study is basically descriptive and analytical in nature as it describes the emotional intelligence and different conflict management styles of branch managers and also analyses the relationship between these variables. The objectives of the study and hypotheses were formulated after the in-depth review of literature. The methodology opted for carrying out the study with respect to defining major variables, defining the sample, sampling methods, and tools of data collection and tools used for analysing the collected data are elaborated in this chapter.

4.1   Variables of the study

Emotional intelligence is the important independent variable considered for the study. The instrument used for gauging emotional quotient (EQ) as a measure of emotional intelligence of branch managers had assessed three dimensions of the concept, namely, emotional sensitivity (ES), emotional competency (EC), and emotional maturity (EM). Conflict management styles, namely, avoiding, dominating, compromising, obliging, and integrating styles of the branch managers are considered as the major dependent variable.

Age, gender, marital status, educational qualifications, and work experience were also considered as independent variables. Though emotional intelligence is the major independent variable of the study, the relationship of emotional intelligence with the other variables age, gender, education, etc., were also tested. While examining such relationships, the variable emotional intelligence has been considered as a dependent variable.

4.2   Hypotheses

After reviewing the literature following alternate hypotheses were formulated by the researcher;

H1:   Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has significant relationship with avoiding style of conflict management.

H2:   Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has significant relationship with dominating style of conflict management.

H3:   Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has significant relationship with compromising style of conflict management.

H4:   Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has significant relationship with obliging style of conflict management.

H5:   Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has significant relationship with integrating style of conflict management.

H6:   Age and experience of the branch managers have significant relationship with their emotional intelligence.

H7:   Gender, marital status, and educational qualifications of the branch managers have significant relationship with their emotional intelligence.

4.3   Operational definitions of major concepts

The concepts of emotional intelligence and conflict management styles are operationally defined:

4.3.1   Emotional Intelligence

Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as a set of abilities to perceive emotions, to access and generate feelings so as to aid thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Goleman (1998b) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to understand one's emotions and those of people around us, to motivate ourselves and to manage emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships.

Operational definition:

Emotional intelligence is an ability of the managers to understand, manage, and harness emotions both in oneself and in others, which enables them to think constructively and to use their problem solving skills effectively in a conflict situation at workplace.

For the purpose of this study, EI of the branch managers has been considered as the scores achieved by them on Emotional Intelligence test devised by Dr. Chadha in 2006.

4.3.2   Conflict Management Styles

The conflict management style of a manager represents the mode or style of handling an interpersonal conflict. Rahim (1983) suggested five styles of handling interpersonal conflicts based on two dimensions, concern for self and for others. The five styles are integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising. The operational definitions of five styles are described below:

Operational definition:

1. **Integrating** (high concern for self and others) style implies that the manager openly discusses, exchanges information, and examines differences to reach an effective solution acceptable to him and the other party involved in conflict.

2. **Obliging** (low concern for self and high concern for others) style indicates that the manager attempts to play down the differences and

emphasizes commonalities to satisfy the concern of the other party involved in conflict.

3. **Dominating** (high concern for self and low concern for others) style denotes that the manager tries to win one's position and often neglects the needs of the other party involved in conflict.

4. **Avoiding** (low concern for self and others) style implies that the manager is not much concerned about the conflict issue or the other party involved in conflict. The manager fails to satisfy his or her concern and the concern of the other party while using this style.

5. **Compromising** (moderate concern for self and others) style indicates that both manager and the other party involved in conflict give up something to find a mutually acceptable solution.

4.4   Sample

The data with respect to the number of commercial bank branches of public sector, private sector, and foreign banks in Rajasthan (India) was retrieved from the official website of Reserve Bank of India and it was found to be 3,905 in September 2012. Out of 3,905 commercial bank branches, 390 (10%) bank branches were selected after employing the concept of multistage sampling. While adopting the multistage sampling technique, the researcher's concern was to ensure a good mix of branches (in terms of business mix) and varieties of branch managers (in terms of age, qualifications, experience, etc.) so that the sample selected is representable enough of the entire population of bank branches within Rajasthan (India). In the first stage of sampling, the researcher selected revenue centres (metropolitan, urban, and semi-urban) of bank branches on the basis of its population size as per the Census 2001. Based on the size of the population, a centre is classified either into metropolitan, urban, semi-urban, or rural as mentioned below:

(i)   Metropolitan: 10 lakh and above

(ii)   Urban: 1 lakh and above and less than 10 lakh

(iii)   Semi-Urban: 10,000 and above and less than 1 lakh

(iv)   Rural: population less than 10,000

In the second stage of sample selection, the bank branches were selected randomly from the previously selected revenue centres. Then, the branch manager or branch head was surveyed from each selected bank branch. A 'branch manager' or 'branch head' is the in charge of a branch and is accountable for the financial performance of the branch and also supervises a team of employees handling different profiles at his or her branch.

There were seven foreign bank branches in Rajasthan which were excluded from the study to avoid contamination of results. A total of 310 questionnaires were obtained from branch managers indicating a response rate of 79.48% [(310/390) ×100] out of which 261 questionnaires were usable responses. Thus, the valid sample for the study was 261 branch managers (Table 4.1). Out of the 49 discarded responses, some of them were inadequate and the rest were unengaged responses.

Table 4.1 Sample distribution with respect to population size & bank type

Serial No.	Type of Bank	Population size			Total sample
		Metropolitan	Urban	Semi-Urban	
1.	Public sector	44	61	77	182
2.	Private sector	20	23	36	79
Total		64	84	113	261

4.5   Data collection tools

The primary data for the purpose of study was collected personally by the researcher from the branch managers of public and private sector banks through questionnaire and unstructured interview. The test instruments were administered to each branch manager at his/her workplace. The respondents were assured complete anonymity of responses and requested to fill the questionnaire within the stipulated time. The data has been collected from the respondents by administering two test instruments. Emotional intelligence and conflict management styles were measured by two independent tests which are mentioned below:

1.   Emotional Intelligence Test by N. K. Chadha.
2.   Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI) – II, Form B.

The demographic details of the branch managers were collected by administering a personal profile sheet along with the aforementioned tests.

4.5.1   Emotional Intelligence Test

The EQ test for measuring emotional intelligence devised by Dr. N. K. Chadha in 2006, a Psychology professor at the University of Delhi, has been used to assess EI of the branch managers. The researcher has used the third revised version of the EQ test which gives total EQ score and the scores on three dimensions of EI, namely, emotional sensitivity, emotional maturity, and emotional competency. The primary reason for using this EQ test in the present study is that it has been prepared for the Indian population and has been standardised on various Indian professional managers, businessmen, bureaucrats, artists, and graduate student population. As cultural differences were reported with respect to EI measurements by some researchers so a measure of EI developed in Indian culture has been used. Secondly, it is a task-based test, not a Likert type-scale based measure, which states that EI can be measured most

directly by asking an individual to solve an emotional problem. This test includes real-life situations experienced by persons in their day-to-day life.

This EQ test has a test-retest reliability of 0.94 and the split-half reliability in the case of odd-even items was 0.89 and for the first half and second half was 0.91 and 0.89 respectively. Both reliability coefficients are significantly higher which indicates that the present EQ scale has high reliability. Validity was determined with the help of two techniques (1) face validity, and (2) empirical validity. Face validity was confirmed for the test on the basis of the agreement of the five experts who found the test valid. The empirical validity of the scale was assessed by correlating the scale with 'external criteria'. The test, designed by Daniel Goleman, and the present scale were administered to a group of subjects and the scores obtained from both tests were correlated to determine the validity index. The validity was found to be 0.89, which indicates that the present EQ scale is valid. Further, the present scale was co-related with the first version of this emotional intelligence test, developed in 2001, on a group of subjects to determine the validity index. The validity was found to be 0.78 which indicates that the present test is valid. The EQ test consists of total 22 situations. The scores on the EQ test are interpreted as shown below in the Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 The norms of the EQ test

EQ Dimensions	Level of dimensions		
	High	**Moderate**	**Low**
	Range of score	**Range of score**	**Range of score**
Emotional Sensitivity	86-100	66-85	25-65
Emotional Maturity	113-140	88-112	35-87
Emotional Competency	141-200	97-140	50-96
Total EQ	308-440	261-307	110-260

4.5.2   Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI) – II

The conflict management styles of branch managers were measured using an abridged and adapted version of the organizational conflict inventory developed by Rahim (1983). Mishra, Dhar, and Dhar (1999) had suggested that a comprehensive scale in simple language needs to be developed and standardised for measuring conflict management styles in Indian context. Also, based on the feedback of 50 branch managers in pilot survey and after consulting experts in the area of organizational behaviour some of the items in original scale were modified, a couple of items were added and a few deleted. Thus, the researcher adapted the standardised measurement scale and measured the responses on 28 items of the revised scale.

The construct validity of the construct was tested by exploratory factory analysis (EFA) followed by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The SPSS 22.0 software package was used to perform principal factor analysis and the Amos 22.0 software package was used to perform CFA. As a result of factor analysis the items with factor loading on the variable less than 0.40 were eliminated. This stage of analysis helped to identify and eliminate poorly performing items. The other 18 items in the measurement scale with factor loading ranging between 0.40 and 0.69 were retained for further analysis. The various fit measures of GFI (=0.933), CFI (=0.908), AGFI (=0.909), and RMSEA (=0.038) of the scales were obtained and found to be satisfactory. The inter-item consistency of the measurement scale was found and the Cronbach alpha coefficient of reliability (α) was reported to be 0.63, which indicates moderate reliability of the construct (Nunnally, 1978).

The final scale consisting of 18 items measured five conflict management styles i.e., avoiding (3 items), dominating (4 items), obliging (4 items), integrating (4 items), and compromising (3 items). The response descriptions against each item were on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'never' (=1) to 'always' (=5). The *avoiding style* is measured by items 1, 5, and 9, e.g., 'I avoid an

argument with my subordinates.' The *dominating style* is measured by items 2, 6, 10, and 13, e.g., 'I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.' The *obliging style* is assessed by items 3, 7, 15, and 18, e.g., 'I try to satisfy the needs of my subordinates.' The *integrating style* is measured by items 4, 8, 12, and 16, e.g., 'I try to investigate an issue with my subordinates to find a solution acceptable to us.' The *compromising style* is assessed by items 11, 14, and 17, e.g., 'I negotiate with my subordinates so that a compromise can be reached.' High additive score on total items of respective conflict management styles indicated how frequently the particular conflict management style was used.

In the present study the responses on both EQ test and measure of conflict management styles (CMSs) were collected by the same respondents (branch managers) which may result in common method variance i.e., the lack of independence between independent and dependent variables (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). In order to overcome this problem, different measures i.e., the Likert-type scale for the dependent variable (CMSs) and the task-based EQ test for the independent variable (EI) were used.

4.5.3   Personal profile sheet

Apart from the introductory details such as bank type, designation, age, gender, etc., four questions were included in the profile sheet to gather information about the branch managers with respect to the educational qualifications, total work experience and experience as a branch manager, and number of subordinates at the branch. The preliminary profile sheet was administered to a sample of 50 branch managers to ensure simplicity of the language used. Based on the experience in the pilot study a few questions were modified to enhance their clarity and avoid confusion.

Two more questions were included to acquire information on EI training programme conducted in banks and perception about emotional intelligence. The

detailed questionnaire used in the study for branch managers is reported in the Appendix.

4.6   Data Processing and Analysis

The data collected by conducting survey has been processed and analysed by the researcher with the help of SPSS 22.0 software package. The data of 261 respondents was rechecked for any missing values and unengaged responses and then carefully entered to the SPSS spread sheet for analysis. Descriptive and inferential statistical tools were used to calculate different measures, coefficients, and test results. The Q-Q plot was used for testing the normality of the distribution of responses. Statistical tests such as, Correlation, t-test, ANOVA, and the Post Hoc test were used to test the relationships between various independent and dependent variables considered in the study.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS

The data collected has been analysed using SPSS 22.0 and the same is presented in this chapter. The first part of the data analysis describes the profile of the respondent branch managers, the second part analyses the normality of distribution of the responses with respect to different variables considered in the study, and the third part tests all the hypotheses proposed in the previous chapter using appropriate statistical tests and also analyses the other measured data. The contents of this chapter have been organized in three parts as shown below.

Part I   Personal profile of the sample

Part II   Distribution of the responses with respect to different variables used in the study

Part III   Hypothesis testing and analysis of the other measured data

5.1   PERSONAL PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE

The classification of the 261 respondent branch managers from different public and private sector banks with respect to their Age, Gender, Marital Status, Educational Qualifications, and Experience is presented below:

5.1.1   Age of branch managers

The age of the 261 branch managers was varying from 25 years to 59 years with a mean age of 41.48 (SD = 9.93) years. The range (=34) between the minimum age and the maximum age is very wide as branch managers belonging to various age groups were included in the sample. The most of the respondents (49.81%) were belonging to the 28 to 40 years age group followed by those falling in the age group of 49 to 59 years (31.80%) as shown in the Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 Age wise distribution of the sample

25-27 yrs, 9, 3.45%

49-59 yrs, 83, 31.80%

28-40 yrs, 130, 49.81%

41-45 yrs, 22, 8.43%

46-48 yrs, 17, 6.51%
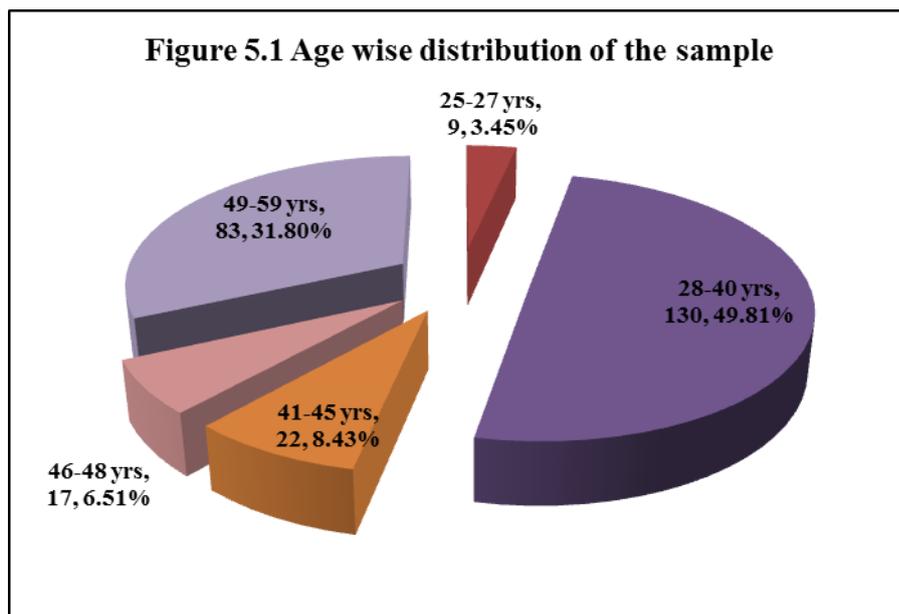
5.1.2 Gender wise distribution of the sample

The distribution of the sample with respect to gender is shown in the Figure 5.2. The sample consists of 240 males (92%) and only 21 females (8%). The statistics represent comparatively less number of female branch managers even though the sample was collected from different branches of public and private sector banks operating in areas of different population sizes in Rajasthan.

Figure 5.2 Gender wise distribution of the sample

Female 8%

Male 92%
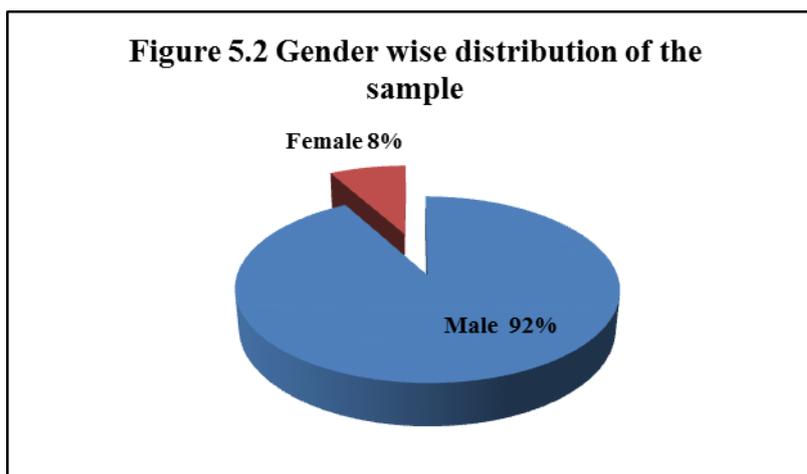
5.1.3 Marital status of the sample

The sample of 261 branch managers included 242 married managers (92.7%), 17 unmarried managers (6.5%), and the rest 2 (0.8%) falling into 'others' category which include widow or divorcee respondents as shown in the Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3 Marital status of the sample
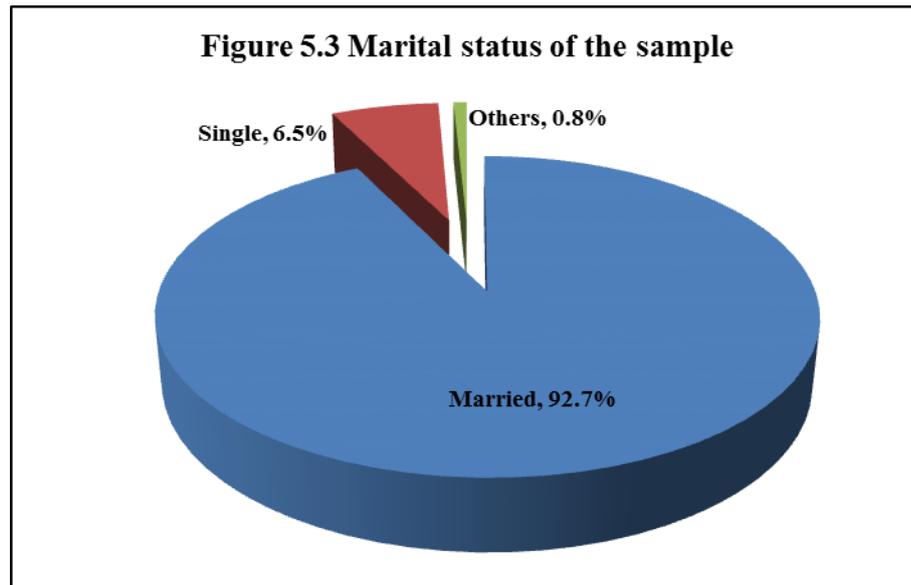
5.1.4 Educational Qualifications of the sample

The data on educational qualifications of the respondents was collected in order to analyse further that difference in educational background of respondents has any relationship with their emotional intelligence. The sample was classified into five groups on the basis of their educational backgrounds as shown in the Table 5.1 (Figure 5.4).

The statistics represent that highest number of respondents (36.4%) were either Masters in Business Administration (M.B.A.) or has Post Graduate Diploma in Business Management (P.G.D.B.M.), followed by Post Graduates other than MBA's (33%). Post Graduates including MBA's were 69.4% which is more than half of the respondents. Managers with technical or professional

qualifications other than M.B.A. were just 4.6%. The graduates were 25.3% and the rest 0.7% were Ph.Ds.

Table 5.1 Educational background of the sample

Serial No.	Qualifications	Frequency	Percent
1	Graduate	66	25.3
2	Post Graduate	86	33.0
3	Technical/Professional	12	4.6
4	M.B.A./P.G.D.B.M.	95	36.4
5	Ph.D.	2	0.7
	Total	261	100.0

Figure 5.4 Educational background of the sample
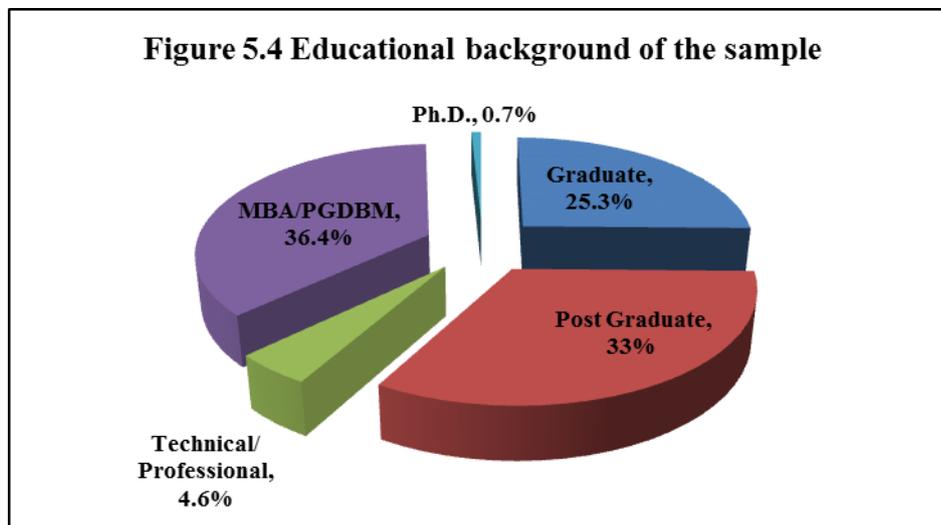
5.1.5 Experience of the branch managers

The profile of branch managers with respect to their work experience has been summarised below in the Table 5.2. The total work experience of the respondent bank managers was varying from 2.42 years (2 years and 5.04 months)

to 39.17 years (39 years and 2.04 months) with a mean experience of 18.43 years (18 years and 5.16 months). The total work experience of the respondent bank managers as a 'branch manager' or 'branch head' was varying between 0.25 years (3 months) and 25.00 years with a mean experience of 5.53 years (5 years and 6.36 months) which indicates that majority of the bank managers in the sample had comparatively high total work experience but low total work experience as the head of a branch. The number of subordinates supervised by 261 branch managers at their respective branches was varying between 3 and 30 with a mean value of 9.49 (SD = 5.26).

Table 5.2 Profile with respect to work experience of the sample

Experience	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total experience in years	261	2.42	39.17	18.43	10.46
Total experience as Branch Manager or Branch Head in years	261	0.25	25.00	5.53	5.28

5.2   Distribution of the responses with respect to different variables

The study was conducted to examine the relationship between the independent variable i.e., emotional intelligence and the dependent variable i.e., conflict management styles, namely, avoiding, dominating, compromising, obliging, and integrating. The variables were measured by using standardised instruments of proven reliability and validity as described in the previous chapter.

To observe whether the responses of the sample with respect to both independent and dependent variables are following normal distribution, normal curve has been plotted over the histogram which represents the frequencies of each variable. Normal Q-Q Plot has also been prepared to verify the normality of the distribution as presented below.

5.2.1   Emotional Intelligence

It is clearly evident from the Figure 5.5 that the distribution of the emotional intelligence scores of the sample is normal. Since emotional intelligence is the major independent variable of the study Normal Q-Q plot has also been plotted which also confirms the normality of the EI distribution and the same has been shown in the Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.5 Distribution of the EI scores of the sample
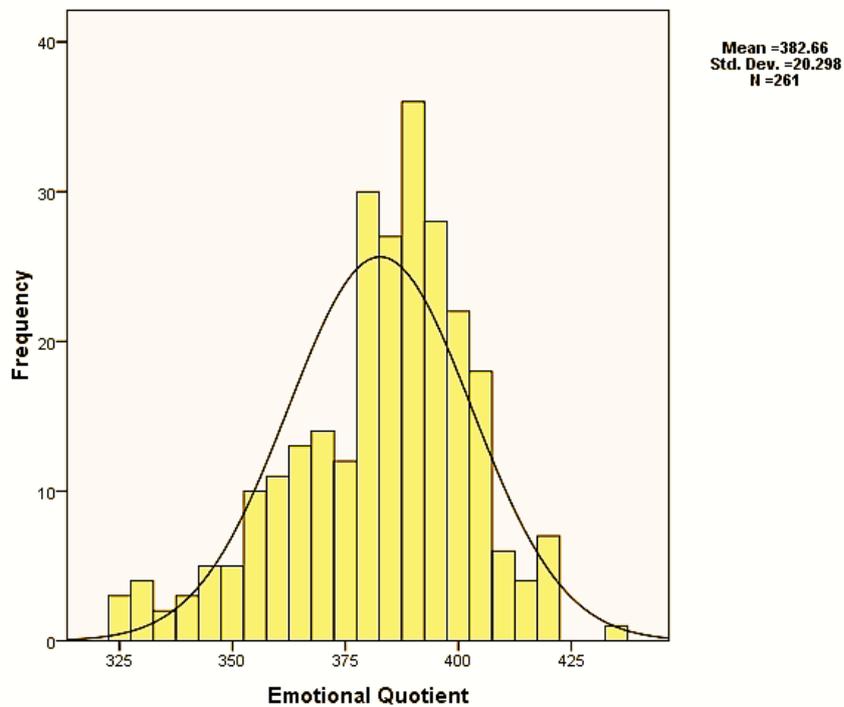
Figure 5.6 Normal Q-Q Plot of Emotional Quotient
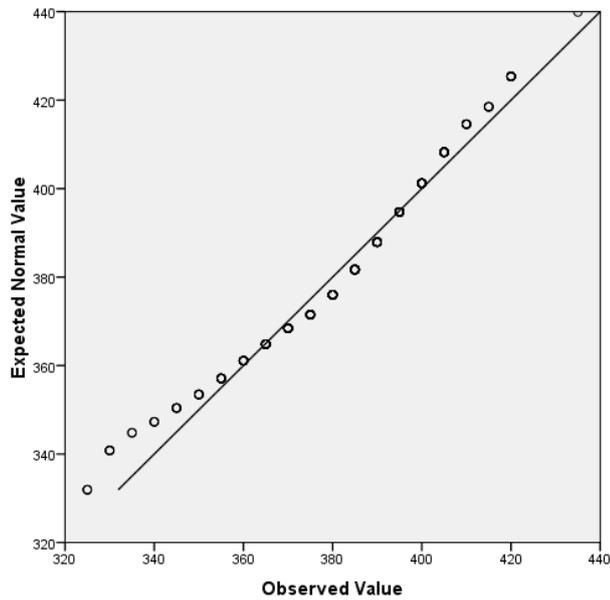
5.2.2   Conflict Management Styles

Since conflict management styles of the branch managers were considered as the dependent variable so the various conflict management styles (avoiding, dominating, compromising, obliging, and integrating) were subjected to normality testing by using Normal Curve and Normal Q-Q Plot testing. It is obvious from the following figures that both the Normal curve and Normal Q-Q Plot exhibit a normal distribution for each of the conflict management styles.

Figure 5.7 Distribution of the Avoiding Style scores of the sample
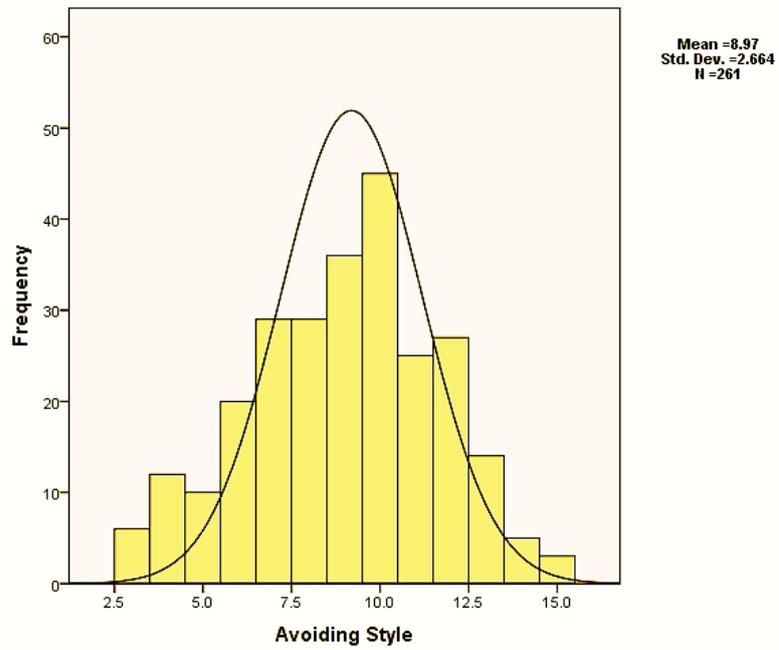
Figure 5.8 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Avoiding Style of Conflict Management
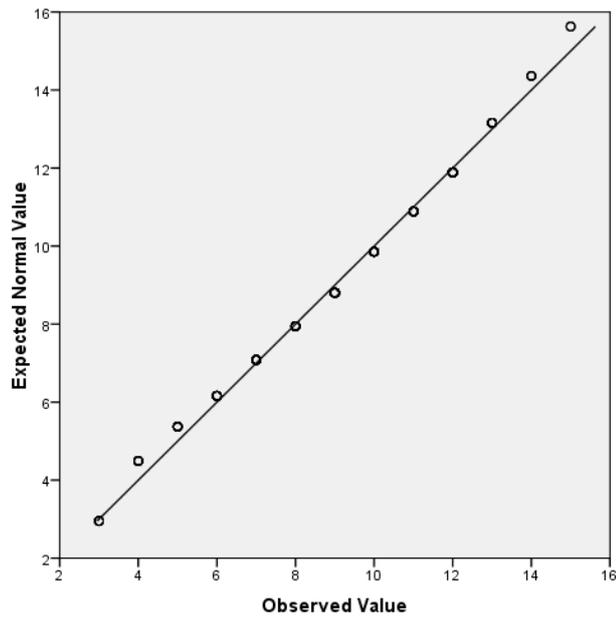
Figure 5.9 Distribution of the Dominating Style scores of the sample
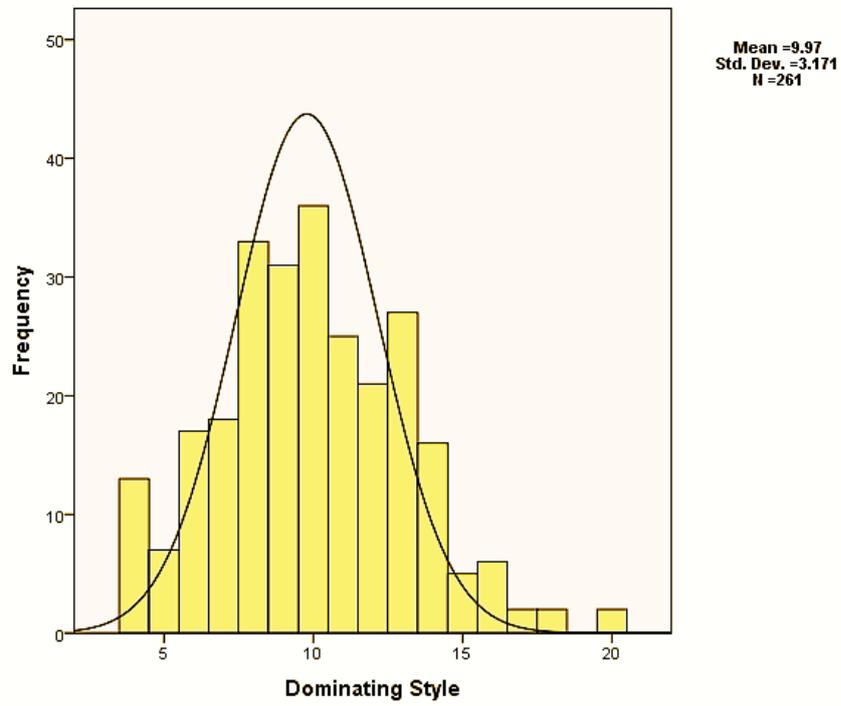
Figure 5.10 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Dominating Style of Conflict Management
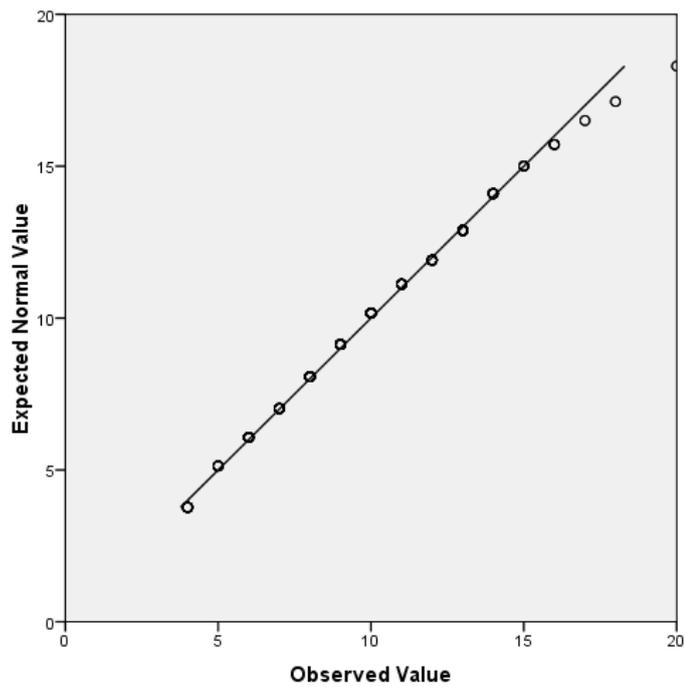
Figure 5.11 Distribution of the Compromising Style scores of the sample
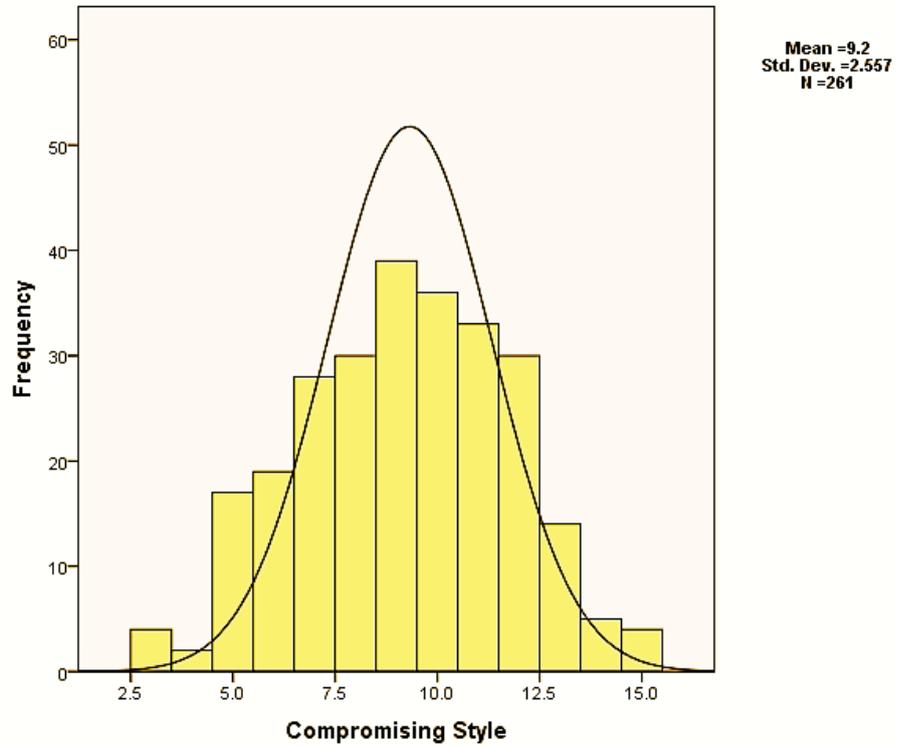
Figure 5.12 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Compromising Style of Conflict Management
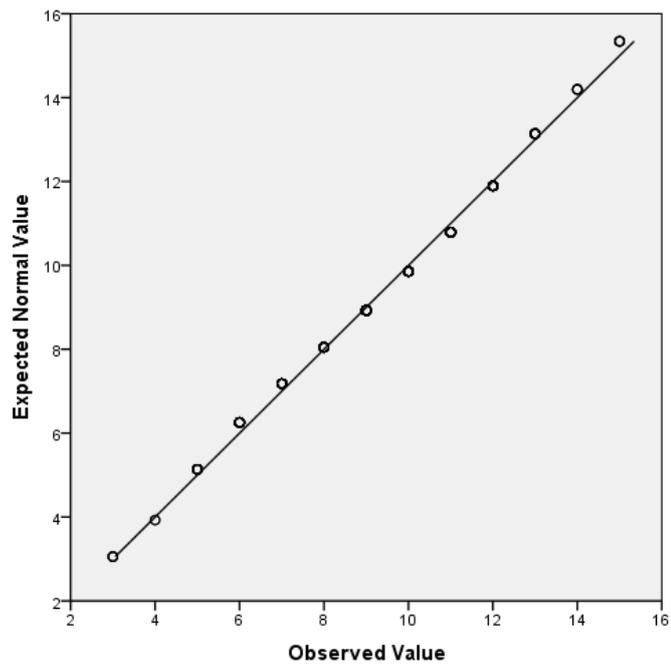
Figure 5.13 Distribution of the Obliging Style scores of the sample
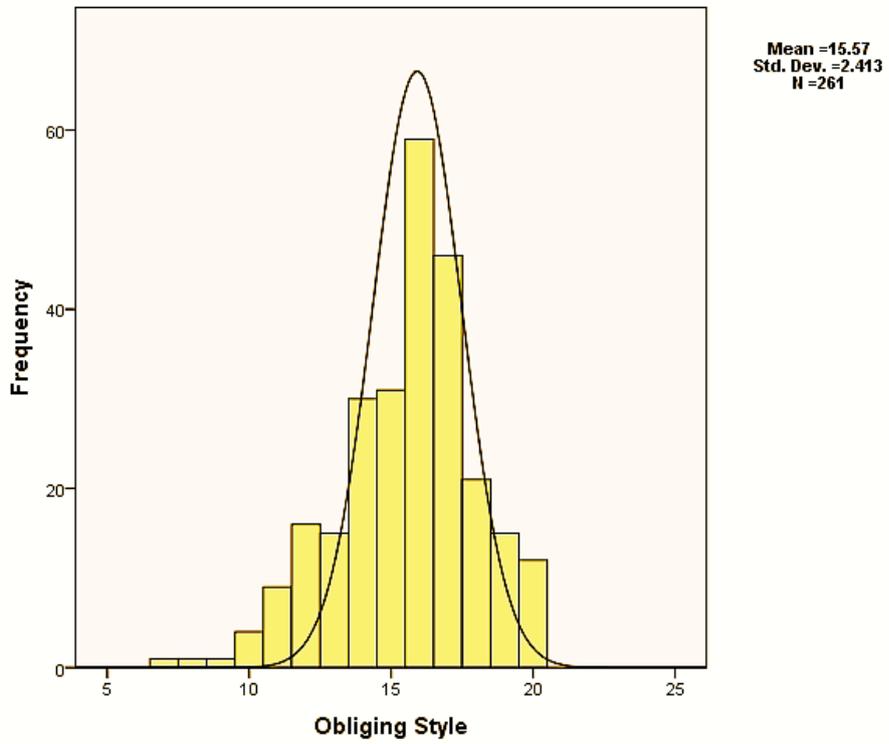
Figure 5.14 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Obliging Style of Conflict Management
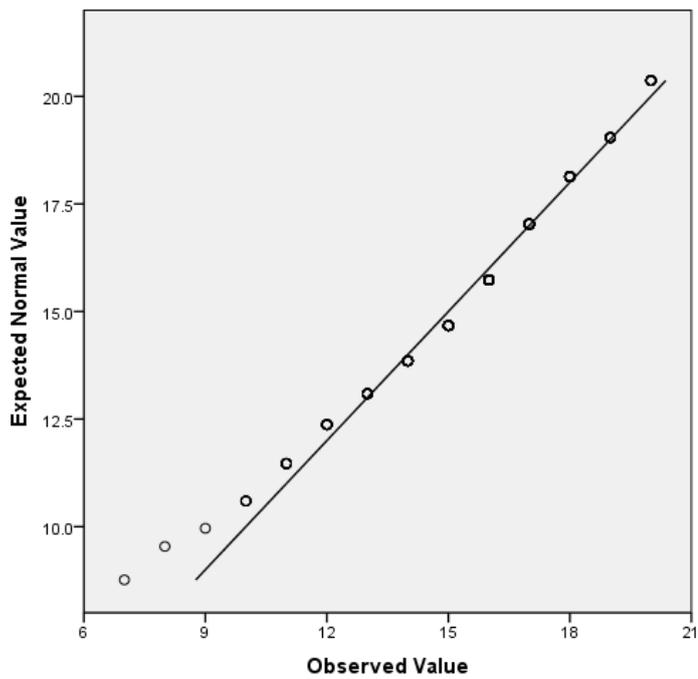
Figure 5.15 Distribution of the Integrating Style scores of the sample
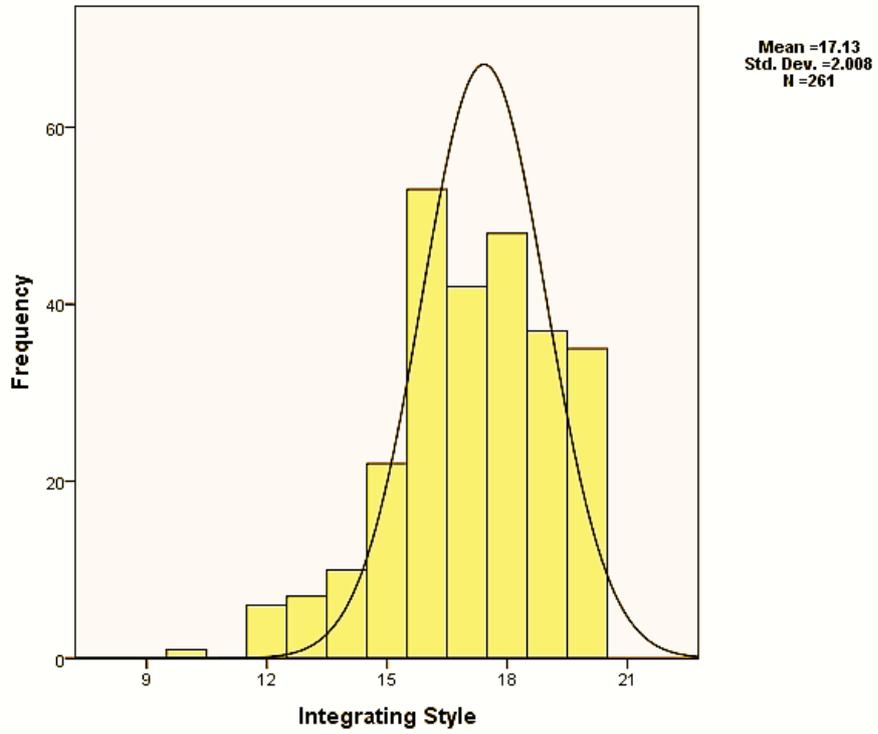
Figure 5.16 Normal Q-Q Plot of the Integrating Style of Conflict Management
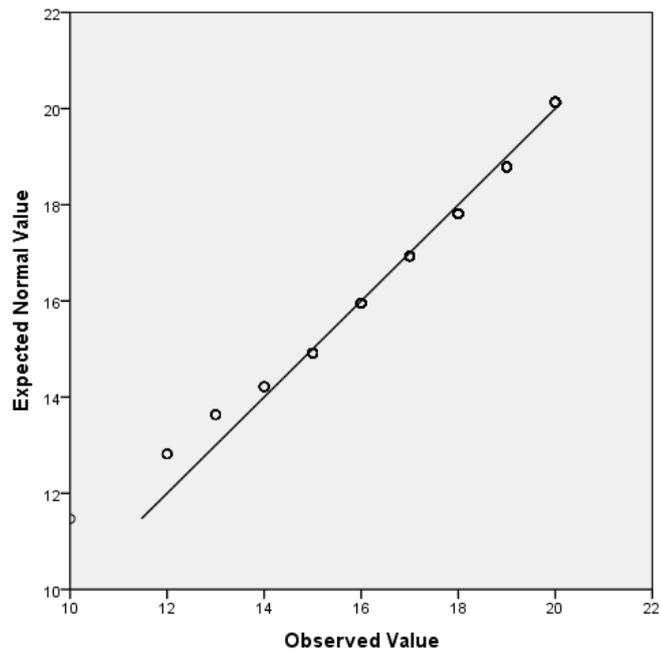
5.3 HYPOTHESIS TESTING AND ANALYSIS OF THE OTHER MEASURED DATA

The hypotheses proposed previously have been tested by using statistical tests like Correlation, ANOVA, t-test, and Post Hoc test. Also the analysis of other measured data is done in this part as presented below.

5.3.1 Emotional Intelligence of the branch managers

The Emotional Intelligence of respondent branch managers was assessed using a standardised test which gives total score of Emotional Quotient (EQ) and scores on its three psychological dimensions, namely, Emotional Sensitivity (ES), Emotional Maturity (EM), and Emotional Competency (EC). The mean score of EQ for branch managers was found to be 382.66 (SD = 20.30) and mean scores of its three dimensions, emotional sensitivity, emotional maturity, and emotional competency were 89.52 (SD = 6.46), 118.87 (SD = 9.87), and 174.27 (SD = 13.94) respectively as tabulated below in the Table 5.3. The respondents were found to have high total EQ scores as well as the scores on its individual dimensions i.e., ES, EM, and EC were high for all the managers as per the norms of the standardised test (refer Table 4.2) which indicates that the level of EI in the branch managers is high.

Table 5.3 Total EQ score and scores on EQ dimensions of the respondents

Dimensions	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
EQ	261	325.00	435.00	382.66	20.30
ES	261	50.00	100.00	89.52	6.46
EM	261	90.00	140.00	118.87	9.87
EC	261	125.00	200.00	174.27	13.94

5.3.2 Conflict Management Styles of the branch managers

The five conflict management styles of respondents when in interpersonal conflict with their subordinates over work issues were assessed using an adapted and abridged version of a standardised measurement scale. The average rating per scale per manager for avoiding, dominating, compromising, obliging, and integrating conflict management styles were 2.98 (SD = 0.88), 2.49 (SD = 0.79), 3.06 (SD = 0.85), 3.89 (SD = 0.60), and 4.28 (SD = 0.50) respectively as presented below in the Table 5.4. The relative ranks for various conflict management styles are also presented in the same table.

Table 5.4 Conflict Management Styles scores of the branch managers

Styles	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Avoiding	261	2.98 (4)	0.88
Dominating	261	2.49 (5)	0.79
Compromising	261	3.06 (3)	0.85
Obliging	261	3.89 (2)	0.60
Integrating	261	4.28 (1)	0.50

As it can be seen in the table 5.4, branch managers viewed integrating style as the most preferred style for handling interpersonal conflicts, which was followed in descending order by obliging, compromising, avoiding, and dominating. The mean values for integrating (4.28) and obliging (3.89) fall into the 'mostly' applied response category. The mean values for compromising (3.06) and avoiding (2.98) fitted well into the 'sometimes' applied response category. The least preferred style was dominating, as reflected from its lower mean value of 2.49. This value is a bit above the 'occasionally' applied response category. It can be inferred that the managers argue and also allow argument regarding an

issue with a view to encourage involvement of the other party concerned, but only occasionally forced the matter.

5.3.3 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles

Literature review indicated a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and different styles of conflict management. The relationship between emotional intelligence and interpersonal conflict management styles has been examined in this section, particularly for branch managers. Since to be in conflict is to be emotionally activated, it is important to identify and manage emotions during conflict in order to deal with conflict effectively. It is in this context the following five hypotheses have been formulated.

H1: Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has significant relationship with avoiding style of conflict management.

H2: Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has significant relationship with dominating style of conflict management.

H3: Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has significant relationship with compromising style of conflict management.

H4: Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has significant relationship with obliging style of conflict management.

H5: Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has significant relationship with integrating style of conflict management.

The degree and direction of relationship between EI of branch managers and their conflict management styles was determined by calculating Pearson coefficient of correlation and the same has been shown below in the Table 5.5. The results indicate a significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence of branch managers and their integrating style of managing interpersonal conflicts ($r = 0.17$, $p < 0.01$), but a significant negative correlation was found between emotional intelligence and dominating style of interpersonal

conflict management of the branch managers (r = -0.18, p < 0.01). Hence, hypothesis (H2) that EI is associated with dominating style is accepted as well as the hypothesis (H5) that EI is related to integrating style is accepted. There was no significant correlation observed between EI and other styles of conflict management i.e., avoiding, compromising, and obliging style. Hence, none of the hypotheses (H1, H3 and H4) that EI is related to avoiding, compromising, and obliging style of conflict management are supported.

A significant positive relationship was observed for both emotional sensitivity (r = 0.16, p < 0.01) and emotional competency (r = 0.12, p < 0.05) of managers with their integrating style of conflict management but emotional competency was found to have significant negative relationship with dominating style of managing interpersonal conflicts (r = -0.20, p< 0.01). The intercorrelations among the five styles of handling interpersonal conflicts were found to be low, which indicates that they are measuring distinct behavioural styles.

Table 5.5 Correlation Coefficients between Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles

	EI	ES	EM	EC	AV	DO	CO	OB	IN
EI	1								
ES	0.41**	1							
Sig.	0.00								
EM	0.64**	0.03	1						
Sig.	0.00	0.60							
EC	0.82**	0.10	0.20**	1					
Sig.	0.00	0.09	0.00						
AV	-0.09	-0.05	-0.12	-0.02	1				
Sig.	0.15	0.45	0.05	0.73					
DO	-0.18**	-0.09	-0.03	-0.20**	0.09	1			
Sig.	0.00	0.17	0.68	0.00	0.14				
CO	-0.08	0.00	-0.01	-0.12	0.14*	0.14*	1		
Sig.	0.17	0.92	0.84	0.06	0.02	0.02			
OB	0.03	0.04	0.03	-0.00	0.05	0.05	0.31**	1	
Sig.	0.68	0.56	0.62	0.98	0.45	0.46	0.00		
IN	0.17**	0.16**	0.07	0.12*	-0.03	-0.10	0.12	0.36**	1
Sig.	0.00	0.00	0.28	0.04	0.57	0.09	0.05	0.00	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

EI = Emotional Intelligence; **ES** = Emotional Sensitivity; **EM** = Emotional Maturity; **EC** = Emotional Competency; **AV** = Avoiding; **DO** = Dominating; **CO** = Compromising; **OB** = Obliging; **IN** = Integrating.

5.3.4   Age and Emotional Intelligence

The previous researches indicate that emotional intelligence varies with age as well as with experience. As age increases the accumulated experience also increases. The researcher presumed the following hypothesis in this regard.

H6:   Age and experience of the branch managers have significant relationship with their emotional intelligence.

The age of the respondents was varying from 25 years to 59 years and the mean age was 41.48 years. So, the sample was divided into five age groups such as, 25 to 27 years, 28 to 40 years, 41 to 45 years, 46 to 48 years, and 49 to 60 years for the purpose of analysis. To test whether emotional intelligence varies with age or not, the statistics were subjected to ANOVA test. The results of the same are presented below in the Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 ANOVA – Age and EI of the branch managers

Age Group	N	Emotional Intelligence	Emotional Sensitivity	Emotional Maturity	Emotional Competency
25 to 27 yrs.	9	373.33	88.33	118.33	166.67
28 to 40 yrs.	130	380.69	89.61	118.58	172.50
41 to 45 yrs.	22	387.50	87.72	120.45	179.32
46 to 48 yrs.	17	375.88	87.35	116.76	171.76
49 to 60 yrs.	83	386.87	90.42	119.40	177.05
Total	261	382.66	89.52	118.87	174.27
F		2.51*	1.39	0.42	2.96*
Significance		0.04	0.23	0.79	0.02

* $p < 0.05$ is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of ANOVA test showed that there was significant difference between the mean EI scores of these five age groups (F = 2.51, p < 0.05) with a 'p' value of 0.04. The Table 5.6 clearly depicts that the mean EI consistently increased from the minimum age group (25 to 27 years) to 41 to 45 years age group and then decreased for the 46 to 48 years age group and again increased to next highest mean score value of EI for the maximum age group (49 to 60 years). Although there was a decline in the mean score of EI for the 46 to 48 years age group, otherwise EI was found to increase with age which supports the alternate hypothesis of age having significant relationship with EI. The Table 5.6 also shows that there was significant difference between the mean EC scores of these age groups (F = 2.96, p < 0.05) with a 'p' value of 0.02, but no significant difference was found between the mean ES scores as well as between the mean EM scores of these groups.

5.3.5   Gender and Emotional Intelligence

The sample comprised 240 male and only 21 female branch managers. The relationship between gender of the branch managers and their level of emotional intelligence was studied by using the independent sample t-test as summarized in the Table 5.7.

H7:   Gender, marital status, and educational qualifications of the branch managers have significant relationship with their emotional intelligence.

The relationship of gender, marital status, and educational qualifications with EI are tested separately and reported in continuation to this.

Table 5.7 t test – Gender and EI of the branch managers

Gender	N	Emotional Intelligence	Emotional Sensitivity	Emotional Maturity	Emotional Competency
Male	240	383.04	89.45	119.19	174.40
Female	21	378.33	90.23	115.24	172.82
Total	261				
t-value		1.01	-0.52	1.76	0.48
Significance		0.30	0.59	0.07	0.62

The mean value of EI for males was 383.04 and for females it was found to be 378.33. The results of t-test showed no significant difference between the mean EI of males and that of female managers implying that gender of the branch managers has no significant relationship with their emotional intelligence (t = 1.01, p = 0.30). Although males did have higher mean EI scores but the magnitude of the differences in mean is small. The mean values of ES, EM, and EC for males were 89.45, 119.19, and 174.40 respectively and for females these were reported as 90.23, 115.24, and 172.82 respectively. There was also no significant difference between the mean values of ES (t = -0.52, p = 0.59), EM (t = 1.76, p = 0.07), and EC (t = 0.48, p = 0.62) for males and females indicating that gender of the managers has no relationship with any of the EI dimensions.

5.3.6 Marital Status and Emotional Intelligence

The sample was divided into three groups based on the marital status of the branch managers such as, married (242), unmarried (17), and others (2) including divorcees or widows. The relationship between the marital status of the branch managers and their level of emotional intelligence has been examined with the presumption that the personal experiences of a marital relationship may contribute towards the development of high level of EI.

Table 5.8 ANOVA - Marital status and EI of the branch managers

Marital Status	N	Emotional Intelligence	Emotional Sensitivity	Emotional Maturity	Emotional Competency
Married	242	382.67	89.42	118.99	174.26
Unmarried	17	383.53	90.88	118.53	174.12
Others	2	375.00	90.00	107.50	177.50
Total	261	382.66	89.52	118.87	174.27
F		0.15	0.40	1.35	0.05
Significance		0.85	0.66	0.25	0.94

The mean EI for married, unmarried, and others category branch managers was found to be 382.67, 383.53, and 375.00 respectively (Table 5.8). The results of one way ANOVA test showed no significant difference in the mean EI scores of these three groups (F = 0.15, p = 0.85). The results also showed no significant difference in the mean scores of ES (F = 0.40, p = 0.66), EM (F = 1.35, p = 0.25), and EC (F = 0.05, p = 0.94) for these three groups. Therefore, it is concluded that the marital status of the branch managers does not hold any relationship with the development of EI of the branch managers.

5.3.7 Educational Qualifications and Emotional Intelligence

The sample comprised branch managers from diverse educational backgrounds which ranged from graduate to Doctor of Philosophy. Education plays key role in holistic development of an individual since the type of exposure and training during different educational programmes are different. Some educational programmes lay emphasis on theoretical aspects, while some others are focussed on practical training and the purpose of most of the professional programmes is to develop skills required at the workplace. It is in this regard the relationship between the educational qualifications of the branch managers and their emotional intelligence was observed.

Table 5.9 ANOVA – Educational Qualifications and EI of the branch managers

Education	N	Emotional Intelligence	Emotional Sensitivity	Emotional Maturity	Emotional Competency
Graduate	66	384.92	88.93	119.77	176.21
Post Graduate	86	383.31	90.23	119.13	173.95
Technical/ Professional	12	374.58	85.83	115.00	173.75
M.B.A./ P.G.D.B.M.	95	381.63	89.68	118.53	173.42
Ph.D.	2	377.50	92.50	117.50	167.50
Total	261	382.66	89.52	118.87	174.27
F		0.79	1.50	0.64	0.53
Significance		0.53	0.20	0.62	0.70

The branch managers have been categorised into five groups based on their educational backgrounds (Table 5.9). The different groups included 66 graduates and 86 post graduates. There were also 95 MBAs, 12 managers with other professional or technical qualifications, and 2 Ph. D. holders. The relationship of educational background of managers with their EI was tested by applying ANOVA test but no significant difference between the mean EI of the managers belonging to these groups was found (F = 0.79, p = 0.53). Hence, there is no significant relationship between the educational qualifications of the branch managers and their emotional intelligence. The same pattern of findings was observed for ES (F = 1.50, p = 0.20), EM (F = 0.64, p = 0.62), and EC (F = 0.53, p = 0.70) with respect to the educational qualifications of the managers indicating no significant relationship between them.

5.3.8   Experience and Emotional Intelligence

The experiences of the bank managers while dealing with their seniors, peers, subordinates, and customers at their respective branches help them in developing as a better manager. During these interpersonal interactions bank managers get immense opportunity to hone their interpersonal skills which would help them in developing better relationships with both their internal and external customers. Therefore, it is important to empirically test the relationship between total work experience and emotional intelligence of the branch managers. The branch managers have been classified into three groups such as, 2 to 8 years, 8 to 15 years, and 15 to 40 years based on their total work experience. These groups consisted of 54, 81, and 126 branch managers respectively (Table 5.10).

Table 5.10 ANOVA - Experience and EI of the branch managers

Experience	N	Emotional Intelligence	Emotional Sensitivity	Emotional Maturity	Emotional Competency
2 to 8 years	54	376.48	88.24	117.50	170.74
8 to 15 years	81	383.33	90.18	119.44	173.70
15 to 40 years	126	384.88	89.64	119.09	176.15
Total	261	382.66	89.52	118.87	174.27
F		3.36*	1.51	0.68	2.99
Significance		0.03	0.22	0.50	0.05

* $p < 0.05$ is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Figure 5.17 Relationship between Experience and EI of the branch managers
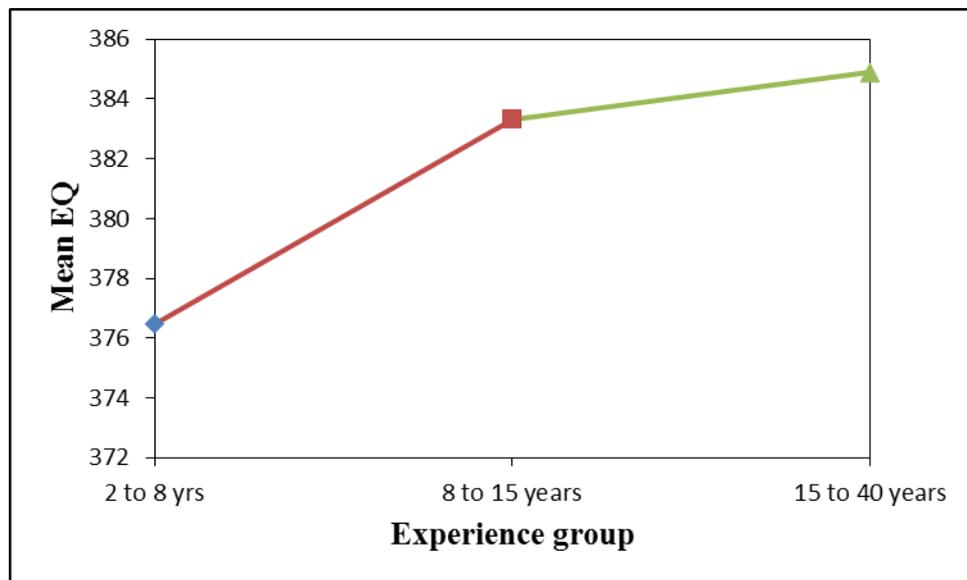
The relationship between the total work experience and EI of the branch managers was examined with ANOVA test and the results have shown significant differences between the mean EI scores of the managers belonging to different experience groups (F = 3.36, p < 0.05) with a 'p' value of 0.03. It is clearly depicted from the Figure 5.17 that the mean EI was consistently increasing from the minimum experience group (2 to 8 years) to the maximum experience group (15 to 40 years). Hence, it can be concluded that EI of the branch managers increases as their total work experience increases, which indicates that hypothesis (H6) is accepted. Experience has significant relationship with EI. Although the relationship between the three EI dimensions and total work experience of the managers was not found to be significant but the total EI was found to vary with the total work experience of the branch managers.

The Post Hoc comparison was done in order to determine the level of significance of the mean differences in relation to different experience groups of managers as shown in the Table 5.11. It was found that the mean difference between the group with lowest work experience (2 to 8 years) and group with

highest work experience (15 to 40 years) is significant with the 'p' value of 0.039 and no significant difference is observed in the case of other experience groups.

Table 5.11 Post Hoc comparison of mean differences in relation to experience and EI

Experience group (I)	Experience group (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Significance
2 to 8 years	8 to 15 years	-6.852	3.534	0.155
	15 to 40 years	-8.399*	3.272	0.039
8 to 15 years	2 to 8 years	6.852	3.534	0.155
	15 to 40 years	-1.548	2.865	0.864
15 to 40 years	2 to 8 years	8.399*	3.272	0.039
	8 to 15 years	1.548	2.865	0.864

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

5.3.9   Perceived importance of Emotional Intelligence

The importance of emotional intelligence at the workplace as perceived by the branch managers of public and private sector banks was determined and it was found that out of the total 261 respondents, 137 (52.5%) perceived EI to be important at workplace 'to a large extent', 99 (37.9%) perceived EI to be important 'to a certain extent', 19 (7.3%) perceived EI to be important 'to a limited extent', and only 6 (2.3%) perceived EI to be 'not at all' important at the workplace. It is quite clear that more than 50% of the branch managers perceived emotional intelligence as an important factor at the workplace (Figure 5.18).

Figure 5.18 Perceived importance of EI

To a limited extent
19, 7.3%

Not at all
6, 2.3%

To a certain extent
99, 37.9%

To a large extent
137, 52.5%
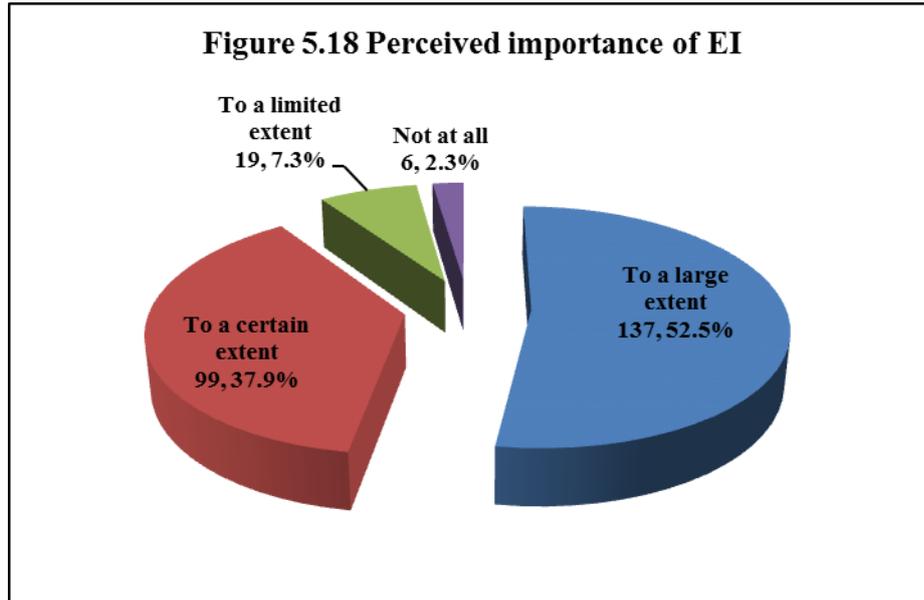
5.3.10   Emotional Intelligence training at the workplace

In order to determine whether the existing training and development programmes designed by the public and private sector banks lay emphasis on the development of emotional intelligence in managers, the branch managers were asked to state whether their banks provide any training related to developing emotional intelligence or not.

Table 5.12 EI training in the banks

Training conducted on EI	Yes	No	Not sure	Total
Frequency	78	171	12	261
Percent	29.90	65.50	4.60	100.00

In the opinion of 29.9% (78) respondents EI was incorporated in the management development programmes of their banks while 65.5% (171)

respondents reported that EI was not a part of the training modules of their banks and the rest 4.6% (12) were not sure whether their banks provide any training on EI or not (Table 5.12). It is quite apparent that only a few banks emphasize on the training related to development of EI and the majority of them do not include it in their training modules.

DISCUSSION

The results obtained in the previous chapter have been discussed in this section below:

6.2.1   Emotional Intelligence of the branch managers

In the present study the total emotional intelligence scores (M = 382.66, SD = 20.30) and the scores on the three EI dimensions i.e., emotional sensitivity (M = 89.52, SD = 6.46), emotional maturity (M = 118.87, 9.87) and emotional competency (M = 174.27, 13.94) of the branch managers, as assessed with the EQ test, has been found to be high as per the norms of the test (refer Table 4.2). This may be due to the fact that almost half of the respondents were either 40 or more than 40 years of age (M = 41.48 years, SD = 9.93) and as reported in the previous studies (Bar-On, 1997; Stein and Book, 2006), a peak in emotional intelligence is observed in the 40's age group which tapers a bit past 50. The rest of the branch managers who were less than 40 years of age maybe naturally high on EI or might have attended some training on EI earlier due to which there EI scores were found to be high as well. The young managers who are naturally high on EI can be an important source of human capital.

6.2.2   Conflict Management Styles of the branch managers

The rank ordering of the conflict management styles indicated branch managers as primarily using the integrating style of managing conflicts with their subordinates over work related issues, followed by obliging, compromising, avoiding, and dominating style (refer Table 5.4). The predominance of integrating or problem-solving style of dealing with conflicts has been exhibited in previous studies too (Bose, Pareek, and Bose, 1986; Burke 1969; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Rahim, 1986; Samantara, 2003). It can be further noticed that the

integrating, obliging, compromising, and avoiding styles are being significantly utilised by the branch managers, but the use of dominating style was rather insignificant, falling above the 'occasionally' used category of response. This indicates that branch managers by virtue of their seniority, work experience, and broader knowledge and understanding are in better position to adopt a more rational and more sympathetic attitude towards their subordinates, and thus involved in more of an integrating and obliging behaviours with them.

However, the results of a study carried out by Das (1987) in India reported a different pattern of conflict management styles opted by efficient branch managers, which is characterised by their preference for the avoiding style, followed by dominating and integrating style for resolving conflicts with their subordinates. This accentuates the need for educating managers about the advantages of adopting problem solving or integrating style to help them to handle conflicts with win-win strategy at the initial stage itself.

6.2.3 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles

In the present study, the integrating style of managing conflicts was found to have significant positive correlation with the higher levels of emotional intelligence of branch managers, while a significant negative association was found between dominating style of conflict management and higher levels of emotional intelligence of managers (refer Table 5.5). Although these correlational data do not establish causality due to low correlation magnitude, but they support the existing theory by confirming predictions about EI for its association with the integrating style and dominating style of conflict management. The managers who are high on EI are able to empathize well with the other party (subordinates in this case) involved in conflict and are not only concerned about one's needs but other party's needs as well, which is a characteristic of integrating style. However, emotionally intelligent managers do not tend to force their views on other party during conflict, which is contrary to the dominating style behaviour. These

findings are somewhat similar to the findings of the study conducted by Rahim et al., (2002) in seven foreign countries.

The significant relationship that was assumed between avoiding, compromising, and obliging style of handling interpersonal conflicts and emotional intelligence scores was not found (refer Table 5.5). This result supports the earlier findings of the study done by Pradhan et al., (2005) in Indian context, which indicated that EI of executives only contributes significantly to integrating strategy of conflict management. Another study carried out by Roberts (2002) on top executives of an America-based multi-national company in India revealed that EI was found to have significant positive correlation with only two conflict resolution styles i.e., collaborating and smoothing style (cited in Singh, 2003). The integrating style is generally considered to be the best style of handling conflicts, and EI skills are important for managing conflicts effectively at workplace. The significant positive influence of EI on integrating or collaborating style of managing conflicts has been shown in some studies conducted in foreign settings (Chan et al., 2014; Heris and Heris, 2011; Hopkins and Yonker, 2015; Morrison 2008; Shih and Susanto, 2010; Yu et al., 2005) on working professionals from diverse fields such as, education, healthcare, etc.

The two of the three EI dimensions i.e., emotional sensitivity and emotional competency were found to have significant positive correlations with the integrating style but only emotional competency was found to have a significant negative correlation with the dominating style of managing conflicts (refer Table 5.5). The probable explanation for this lies in the definition of these dimensions. Emotional competency means the ability to tackle emotional upsets such as frustrations and conflicts, tactful response to emotional stimuli, emotional self- control, and handling egoism, which helps in exchange of information and examination of differences to reach an effective solution acceptable to both the parties involved in conflicts i.e., using integrating style of conflict management. Emotional competency also helps in relating to others which helps in being more concerned for others than self and in turn being less dependent on dominating

style of conflict management. Emotional sensitivity means the ability to interpret emotional cues truthfully and maintaining rapport and harmony with others, which in turn helps in effective problem solving. Hopkins and Yonker (2015) found that the EI abilities of problem solving, social responsibility, and impulse control were the most directly related to how individuals managed conflict at the workplace which has practical implications for management development purposes.

A strong relationship of EI and scores on EI dimensions of branch managers with their conflict management styles has not been established in the present study due to significantly small or insignificant correlations (refer Table 5.5). This indicates that there may be some other factors or intervening variables such as, personality, which affect this relationship. The results from some previous researches (Antonioni, 1998; Baron, 1989; Chanin and Schneer, 1984; Wood and Bell, 2008) provide empirical evidence for the relationship of individual differences in personality to one's preferences for conflict handling. The other researches also indicate moderating role of personality traits on EI and conflict management styles (e.g., Ann and Yang, 2012). Furthermore, the managerial styles of Indian bank managers and their attribution of failure and success also influence their conflict management styles (Bose et al., 1986). Sayeed and Mathur (1980) found that leadership behaviour could also predict conflict management styles of managers working in public and private sectors.

6.2.4   Age, Experience and Emotional Intelligence

In the current study a significant positive relationship between age and emotional intelligence of the branch managers has been found (refer Table 5.6). This finding corroborates the study done by Bar-On (1997) on more than 3000 men and women of ages ranging from teens to 50's. The results exhibited small but steady and significant increases in their emotional intelligence with advancing age and a peak was observed in the 40's age group (cited in Goleman, 1998). Also, Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) in a comparison of several 100

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adolescents and adults found adults to be better at EI than adolescents. On similar line, Stein and Book (2006) reported a study of almost 4,000 people in Canada and the United States in which EQ was found to rise steadily from late teens to 40's, but past 50 it declined a bit. There are other studies too in which only a slight and positive correlation (Fariselli, Ghini and Freedman, 2006) between age and emotional intelligence was found. In light of these studies it can be inferred that one may acquire more knowledge and maturity as one grows older, which further suggests that EI is a developing ability.

The emotional intelligence of the bank branch managers has also been found to be increasing with their increasing years of work experience (refer Table 5.10; Figure 5.17). This finding is in consonance with the study carried out by Adeyemo (2008) among 215 workers in selected organizations in Oyo State in Nigeria in which working experience was found to have significant predictive effects on emotional intelligence. Similarly, Humpel and Caputi (2001) reported a significant relationship between emotional competency and years of experience for Australian mental health nurses. Nurses with six years and more experience were found to have higher levels of emotional competency. A study conducted among 90 executives in Indian context also found work experience to be positively associated with EI wherein experienced executives had significantly higher EI scores in comparison to less experienced executives (Mishra and Mohapatra, 2010). Shipley, Jackson, and Segrest (2010) did a study among 193 undergraduate business students at Southeastern University having either full-time or part-time work experience. They observed emotional intelligence to be positively related to work experience. As during the course of one's career an employee interacts with people of diverse background, personality, and preferences in life, which in turn helps in enhancing his interpersonal skills.

6.2.5 Gender, Marital Status, Educational Qualifications and Emotional Intelligence

The current study has not established any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and other demographic variables i.e., gender, marital status, and education qualifications (refer Table 5.7, Table 5.8, and Table 5.9). As with respect to gender, the findings concur with some of the previous studies, nevertheless, in some other studies gender differences in EI have also been noticed. Goleman (1998) supported the notion that there are far more similarities between the male and female groups than differences in emotional skills. Bar-On (1997) emphasized that there have been no gender differences regarding total emotional and social intelligence, however, differences may exist in few emotional capabilities (cited in Bar-On, 2006). Roberts (2002) also reported no significant gender differences in emotional intelligence (cited in Singh, 2003).

Some previous studies have found gender differences in emotional intelligence (Day and Carroll, 2004; Lyons and Schneider, 2005). In a study conducted on 200 adolescents EI scores were found to be significantly different between males and females, with females reporting higher EI levels (Harrod and Scheer, 2005). Punia (2005) carried out a study on 250 executives working in different organisations in Delhi and found that females are more emotionally stable due to their high level of EI. In the same study he reported that EI was not found to be related to the marital status of a person (cited in Singh, 2006).

However, the results of a study done among 414 information technology (IT) professionals in five major IT cities in India established a link between EI and marital status of the IT professionals (Verma, 2015). This may be an outcome of the experiences of a person in marital relationship which contribute towards the development of high EI. The findings of the present study with respect to the educational qualifications are in consonance with some previous studies (Mishra and Mohapatra, 2010; Tajeddini, Rangan, Malekzadeh, and Lallianzuali, 2014)

wherein no association of educational qualifications with emotional intelligence was reported.

EPILOGUE

This chapter presents summary of the findings, mentions the implications of the findings, specifies the agenda for the future research, and states the limitations of the study.

7.1   Summary of Findings

The study was mainly carried out to delve into the relationship between the emotional intelligence and interpersonal conflict management styles of the branch managers when in conflict with their subordinates over work issues. The interrelationship between these variables were analysed with correlational analysis. The seven hypotheses were formulated based on literature review and all of them were analysed by applying appropriate statistical tests. In addition to this, the relationship between demographic statistics of the branch managers and their emotional intelligence were investigated.

During the analysis significance of the relationship between three dimensions of emotional intelligence i.e., emotional sensitivity, emotional maturity, and emotional competency and five styles of conflict management of branch managers were also tested, although the hypotheses were not formulated earlier in relation to these EI dimensions. Additionally, data was collected on certain aspects pertaining to emotional intelligence due to academic interest of the researcher. The major findings of the study are as summarised below:

1.   The branch managers were found to have high emotional intelligence and they also scored high on individual dimensions of EI i.e., emotional sensitivity, emotional maturity, and emotional competency as assessed with the EQ test.

2. The branch managers viewed integrating as the most preferred style for dealing with conflicts with their subordinates over work issues, which was followed in descending order by obliging, compromising, avoiding, and dominating style.

3. Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has no significant relationship with the avoiding style of conflict management which implies H1 is not supported.

4. Emotional intelligence of the branch managers is negatively and significantly related to the dominating style of conflict management which suggests that H2 is accepted. Higher the emotional intelligence of the branch managers, lesser is their preference for the dominating style of conflict management.

5. Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has no significant relationship with the compromising style of conflict management which indicates that H3 is not supported.

6. Emotional intelligence of the branch managers has no significant relationship with the obliging style of conflict management which suggests that H4 is not supported.

7. Emotional intelligence of the branch managers is positively and significantly related to the integrating style of conflict management which implies H5 is accepted. Higher the emotional intelligence of the branch managers, higher is their preference for the integrating style of conflict management.

8. Age and experience of the branch managers have significant relationship with their emotional intelligence which means H6 is accepted. Higher the age and experience of the branch managers, higher is the level of their emotional intelligence.

9. Gender, marital status, and educational qualifications of the branch managers have no significant relationship with their emotional intelligence which indicates that H7 is not supported.

10. Emotional sensitivity of the branch managers was found to be positively and significantly associated only with the integrating style of conflict

management. Higher the emotional sensitivity of the branch managers, higher is their preference for the integrating style of conflict management.

11. Emotional competency of the branch managers was found to have significant positive correlation with the integrating style of conflict management and a significant negative correlation with the dominating style of managing interpersonal conflicts. Higher the emotional competency of the branch managers, higher is their preference for the integrating style of managing conflicts, but lesser is their preference for the dominating style of conflict management.

12. Emotional maturity of the branch managers has no significant relationship with any of the conflict management styles.

13. The branch managers falling in the 41 to 45 years age group were found to have higher emotional intelligence in comparison to managers belonging to other age groups.

14. Higher emotional intelligence was observed in the branch managers having more than 15 years of total work experience in comparison to managers having an experience of less than or equal to 15 years.

15. More than 50% of the branch managers perceived emotional intelligence as an important factor at the workplace.

16. The majority of the banks do not include emotional intelligence in their training modules designed for branch managers except a few.

7.2   Implications of the study

The present study has established a small significant positive association of emotional intelligence of branch managers with their integrating style of managing conflicts and a small significant negative association of manager's EI with their dominating style of managing conflicts. This is important from the point of view of the management of interpersonal conflicts among multigenerational workforce. If conflict is managed effectively at workplace, this will help in establishing symbiotic relationship among workforce, which in turn

will lead to a healthy working environment and contribute towards achievement of organisational goals. Since recruitments have been taking place in banking sector, particularly at branch level, for past few years so besides testing the IQ of aspiring candidates their EQ should also be tested. This will help in identifying the right candidates for the managerial position in banking sector.

Emotional intelligence should be incorporated in the training module of organisations for developing EI skills in their employees in order to impart constructive thinking and to enable the existing employees in using their problem solving skills effectively, particularly during conflicts. In banking sector, very few banks include EI in their training modules as reported by the branch managers of different public and private sector banks in Rajasthan. Since it has been established in the present study and also observed in previous studies that EI is a developable trait so encompassing aspects of EI in training programme will help new employees as well to compensate for their inadequate experience and inexperience.

The integrating style of conflict management has been considered as the best strategy for dealing with conflicts so the managers should be educated about this mode of settling conflicts. Managing conflicts effectively is of prime importance in the service sector and as working environment in banking sector is changing at a rapid pace so educating bank managers, who do not prefer this style at the first place during a conflict, on this mode of conflict management can help them in becoming more efficient at workplace.

This study is important from the application perspective as very few studies have been conducted, wherein the relationship between emotional intelligence and different conflict management styles of managers has been explored in Indian context and that too in banking sector.

7.3   Conclusion of the study

The present research was conducted with an objective to provide empirical evidence for the relationship, if any, between the emotional intelligence of branch managers and their interpersonal conflict management styles. The findings of the study ascertain the slight relationship of branch manager's EI with only two of their different styles of managing conflict. This implies that there may be some intervening factors like personality, which might have affected the relationship between the two. Nevertheless, emotional intelligence has an impact on various facets of human endeavour, which includes both professional and personal lives. Conflict in the workplace is inevitable so managing conflicts effectively at workplace is essential, which poses a big challenge before managers in the form of managing a multigenerational workforce. Higher emotional intelligence could help managers in empathising well with their subordinates, understanding their expectations, and capitalising on their strengths for increase in organizational performance.

Managers in banking sector predominately use integrating, obliging, compromising, and avoiding styles together with occasional or infrequent use of dominating style when in conflict with their subordinates. Thus, the managers tend to lay emphasis on harmonious relations with their subordinates so that issues might be resolved in a mutually beneficial manner. It can be concluded that EI is a developable trait of individuals/managers and those with low EI could improve their EI skills through training. Incorporating training programme aimed at enhancing EI skills of employees may be conducive to a healthier working environment and an increase in overall profitability for the organization.

7.4   Agenda for future research

Firstly, the study has been conducted in the state of Rajasthan in banking sector only, suggesting further scope to replicate the findings in other states as well as in manufacturing and other service industries like retail, tourism, and print

media. Secondly, the scope of present study has focussed only on one area of performance, which creates scope for exploring the relationship of emotional intelligence with financial performance and other areas of performance such as, innovation, and team building. Thirdly, further research could consider personality as a moderator variable relating emotional intelligence and conflict management. A moderator variable is a variable that affects the strength of the relationship between an independent and dependent variable. Fourthly, scope of the present study did not include organizational status *viz,* individuals from upper and lower status organizational positions, which may have affected the conflict management style used. Fifthly, a task based situational test for the measurement of one's conflict management style need to be developed in order to check whether a particular style has been applied in the appropriate situation or not.

7.5   Limitations of the study

There are certain limitations of the study that need to be acknowledged.

1. In this study self-report measure was used to assess the different styles of conflict management of branch managers which increases the possibility of giving socially desirable responses. The conflict management styles of managers as perceived by their subordinates if also considered can give better idea about the branch manager's style of managing conflicts.

2. Financial performance or the other areas of performance of the branch managers were not included in the study. Including other aspects of performance can provide new insights into relationship of EI with these performance areas.

3. There may be intervening variables like personality factors that were not taken into consideration during the conduct of the study which may influence the conflict management styles (CMSs) of branch managers or affect the relationship between EI and CMSs.

4. Foreign banks were excluded from the study. However, data from foreign banks can exhibit a different pattern of findings.

5. This study is carried out conducting survey of branch managers working in commercial banks in Rajasthan. However, data can be collected from other states of India to generalize the findings of the study.

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*Dear Sir / Madam, this survey is a part of research being conducted on banking professionals working all across Rajasthan. The survey is exclusively for academic purposes and the responses of participants will be kept confidential. It will take approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Kindly extend your cooperation in filling up this questionnaire. There is **No Right or Wrong answer**, so please give your response to all the questions or statements. Kindly answer fairly.*

Thank you so much for your time and kind support.

PART - A

Below are the situations that measure your emotional responses to different situations. Kindly respond on the basis of how you *FEEL* and not what you *THINK*. Do not spend too much time. Usually your first response is the best response. Please tick the relevant option against each situation.

1. **You have been denied a promotion by the management for which you were eligible. Moreover, one of your juniors has been promoted. You are emotionally upset and feel frustrated. What will you do?**

   a. Talk it over with your boss and ask for reconsideration of the management's decision.
   b. Start abusing the colleague who superseded you.
   c. Move to court and obtain a stay order to get justice.
   d. Identify your shortcomings and try to improve your performance.

2. **A freshly recruited professional graduate joins your organization as a management trainee. After a few weeks, she complains to you that she was not being taken seriously by her subordinates. What will you suggest her?**

   a. Ask her to handle the situation herself and not bother you with trivial matters.
   b. Tell her that such behavior should be ignored.
   c. Ask her to be bold, face the challenge and overcome the problem.
   d. Empathize with her and help her figure out ways to get others to work with her.

3. **At the workplace, due to some misunderstanding, your colleagues stop talking to you. You are convinced that there was no fault of yours. How will you react?**

   a. Wait till they come and start talking to you again.

b. Take the initiative, go forward and start talking to them.

c. Let things take their own time to improve.

d. Ask someone to mediate.

4. **You get into an argument with your colleague and end up attacking him/her personally. Later you realize that you never intended to tarnish the image of your colleague. How will you handle such ugly situation?**

a. Sit calmly and consider what triggered off the arguments, and was it possible to control your anger at that point of time.

b. Avoid future arguments and leave the room.

c. Apologize to your colleague for your behavior.

d. Continue with the argument till you reach some definite conclusion.

5. **Imagine you are an insurance salesperson selling insurance policies. You approach a number of prospective clients who slam the door on your face and refuse to buy policies. What will you do?**

a. Blame yourself and stop work for the day.

b. Reassess your capabilities as an insurance salesperson.

c. Come out with fresh strategies to overcome similar situations in future.

d. Contact the clients again some other day.

6. **When someone directly criticizes your behaviour, how will you behave?**

a. Tend to close up and stop listening.

b. Carefully listen to their opinion.

c. Tend to get upset about it.

d. Think of ways to change your behaviour.

7. **You are on an aircraft and suddenly the air-hostess announces that it has been hijacked by the terrorists. Everyone is in a state of shock. What will be your reaction?**

a. Blame yourself for choosing an inauspicious day for travelling.

b. Be in emotional control and attend to the instructions of the pilot/air hostess.

c. Continue to read your magazine and pay little attention to the incident.

d. Cry out and vow not to travel by air in future.

8. **Imagine that you are a police officer posted in a sensitive area. You get information of violent ethnic clashes between two religious communities in which people have been killed from both sides and property damaged. What action will you take?**

a. Decide not to visit the spot personally as there may be a danger to your life.

b. Relax; this is not the first time riots have taken place.

c. Try to handle the situation by taking action as per law.

d. Reach the spot and assuage the feelings of the victims.

9. **Your grown up daughter starts arguing with you every now and then. She tells you that you cannot impose your old-fashioned attitudes and outdated values on her. How will you tackle her?**

a. Accept her statement in helplessness and take a low-profile position in the family.
b. Send her to a psychologist to learn how to adjust with her environment.
c. Manage your emotions and explain your point of view as patiently as possible.
d. Talk to her and understand her emotions, beliefs and attitudes.

10. **After weeks of merger of two largest financial firms, hundreds of employees were expected to lose their jobs. You, being the General Manager (HQ), were told to convey to the employee the decision of the management. How will you convey the message?**

a. Give a gloomy picture and tell them you have no option but to fire half of them.
b. Give a bright picture and tell them that the company will be blessed with talented   people from both firms.
c. Tell them that you will collect more information to be fair and update them every few days on how things will take shape.
d. Announce the decision and let the employees take a decision about what they want.

11. **You are a professor in a college. While delivering a lecture, a student comments that you have not prepared the topic properly and you are just passing the time. This has hurt your self-esteem. What will be your reaction?**

a. Report to the principal of the college about the unruly behavior of the student.
b. Order the student to leave the classroom at once.
c. Ask him/her to meet you in your chamber after the class to explain what he/she wants.
d. Judge the emotions of the class and promise to make amendments accordingly.

12. **As CEO of a company, while taking a meeting with the union, one of the union leaders levels serious allegations of corruption and favoritism against you. How will you react?**

a. Continue with the discussion and listen to their demands with a cool head.
b. Ask union leader to make allegations in writing and offer an impartial enquiry.
c. Cancel further negotiation and ask the union leader to apologize first.
d. Leave the room after assigning the responsibility to your subordinate to continue with the meeting.

13. **You had an argument with your spouse on some trivial family matter and are not on speaking terms for some time. The situation is causing mental disturbance to both of you. What will you do?**

a. Stick to your stand; after all you were never at fault.
b. Try to break the ice by analyzing the reasons for the conflict.
c. Make first move and ease the situation.

d. Wait for your spouse to make the first move to restore normalcy.

14. **You hail from a rural area and take admission in a city college. You find your classmates taunting you as you are not smart and are unable to speak good English. How will you manage yourself?**

a. Ignore them.
b. Shout back and tell them to mind their own business.
c. Leave studies half way and go back to your village.
d. Accept their challenge and prove that you can match them.

15. **While speaking to an audience, you feel that:**

a. It is difficult to convey your speech.
b. You are partly comfortable in conveying your speech.
c. You are comfortable in conveying your speech.
d. You feel that you will do better with some more practice.

16. **Your friend's sister, who got married just one year back, is heading for a divorce. She is highly educated and economically self-dependent. She comes to you for guidance. What will you advise her?**

a. Tell her to go ahead with the divorce as she is a first class MBA and her husband cannot take her for granted
b. Empathize with her for marrying an academically average person.
c. Advise her to talk to her husband and figure out the reasons behind the mal-adjustment.
e. Tell her that academic qualifications are important but these do not help in leading a successful married life.

17. **There is a blind girl in your class. She trips on her way out of the class. You see a few of your friends making fun of her and laughing at her. What will you do?**
a. Laugh along with your friends.
b. Ignore the incident, as they are your friends.
c. Help the blind girl make her way out of the class room but say nothing to your friends.
d. Help the girl and then confront your friends for being so insensitive.

18. **While having an argument with someone, if you lose, you:**

a. Feel totally beaten.
b. Wait for the next opportunity to beat your opponents.
c. Winning and losing are part of the game.
d. Analyze the reasons for the loss.

19. **You are working as HRD General Manager in a large multi-national company that recruits dozens of fresh MBAs, engineers and other professionals on senior positions every year. This requires time, energy and money. However, you find that 75 percent of the young recruits are**

leaving the company after around two years of work experience to join more attractive jobs. What will you do?

a. Ignore the trend. There is rampant unemployment and you can find more people lined up to join your company.
b. Try to find out the root cause of their leaving the job and take corrective measures to retain them as you have already invested in them heavily.
c. Increase the pay package and lure them in working with you.
d. Change the selection criteria and recruit people on the basis of their need and requirements.

20. You have been involuntarily transferred to a remote project and posted under a new boss. Although you have been given a pay hike and also a promise for promotion in near future yet, you are not comfortable. Your family can not shift along with you due to education of your children. You are in a sensitive area and your security is also at risk. You are undergoing a mild level of stress. How will you diffuse the stress?

a. Enjoy. After all there has been a hike in your pay for working in a sensitive area.
b. Wait. It may turn out to be an opportunity for early promotion.
c. Lament. Why should such terrible things happen to you only?
d. Act in haste. Think to resign and find out a new job for you.

21. You have lived your life for so many years on this earth. How would you like to explain your life at the moment in one sentence?

a. Successful: Well, I am a contended person who got whatever could make me feel happy.
b. OK: Well, it's a mixed experience for me. It's 50:50.
c. Comfortable: Well, destiny is in the hands of God. Man is just a puppet.
d. Uncomfortable: Well, I feel I deserved better but could not get it.

22. As an HRD manager you have to recruit a large number of employees for a multinational firm. After the written test and interview you find that most of candidates who qualified are women. What will be your reaction?

a. Hire women employees. They deserve it as they have qualified the selection criteria.
b. Well it's a women's world. Hire them anyway.
c. Hire male and female employees in equal number.
d. Avoid women employees as they are a liability.

PART – B

Below is a list of statements, to indicate how you handle your disagreement or conflict over work issues with your subordinates (juniors). Please try to recall as many recent conflict situations as possible and tick mark your response in the appropriate column.

S. No.	STATEMENTS	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
1.	I avoid an argument with my subordinates.					
2.	I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.					
3.	I try to satisfy the needs of my subordinates.					
4.	I try to investigate an issue with my subordinates to find a solution acceptable to us.					
5.	I avoid open discussion of my differences with my subordinates.					
6.	I use my authority to make a decision in my favour.					
7.	I accommodate the wishes of my subordinates.					
8.	I try to combine my ideas with those of my subordinates to come up with a decision jointly.					
9.	I try to stay away from disagreement with my subordinates.					
10.	I use my expert knowledge to make a decision in my favour.					
11.	I negotiate with my subordinates so that a compromise can be reached.					
12.	I try to work with my subordinates to find solution to a problem that satisfies our expectations.					
13.	I put forward strong arguments in favour of my views and do not let it go easily.					
14.	I use "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.					
15.	I go along with the suggestions of my subordinates.					
16.	I exchange accurate information with my subordinates to solve a problem together.					
17.	I try to play down our differences to reach a compromise.					
18.	I try to satisfy the expectations of my subordinates.					

PERSONAL PROFILE

Bank Type: Public Sector **/** Private Sector

Population Group: Metropolitan / Urban / Semi-Urban / Rural

Age: _____years   **Gender:** Male / Female

Marital status: Married / Unmarried / Other_____

1. What are your educational qualifications?

a) B.A./B.Com./B.Sc./B.Tech./_____

b) M.A./M.Com./M.Sc./M.Tech./_____

c) M.B.A. / C.A./_____

d) _____ Any other

2. What is your total work experience?

Ans.: _____years _____months

3. What is your total work experience as Branch Manager / Branch Head?

Ans.: _____years _____months

4. How many employees do you supervise at your branch?

Ans.: _____people

PART – C

1. To what extent 'understanding and managing emotions in oneself and others' is important at workplace? (*Tick anyone*)

   a. To a large extent.

   b. To a certain extent.

   c. Not sure.

   d. To a limited extent.

   e. Not at all.

2. Does your bank provide any training on developing Emotional Intelligence skills?

   a. Yes

   b. No

   c. Not sure

INCORPORATION OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI) INTO THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM: REDEFINING THE SUCCESS MANTRA AT WORKPLACE

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Abstract

Today most of the MBA programs running across the country are facing scarcity of students. The traditional business curriculum is losing its charm in the current scenario. The candidates who are hired by employers are not able to meet their expectations .This clearly indicates that there is a lacuna in the present business curriculum which is deficient in equipping the students with the required skills. Therefore, the challenge today is to integrate the development of these competencies into the curriculum as an essential element in its mission. This paper is an attempt to highlight the gaps in the current business curriculum and also to suggest some remedial measures to enhance the quality and utility of MBA programs.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, MBA, skills, workplace

OBJECTIVES OF THE PAPER

1).To introduce the concept of Emotional Intelligence and its various related aspects.

2).To accentuate the need of understanding EI and its positive impact at workplace.

3).To examine evidence that EI skills can be taught in MBA programs.

4).To describe the theory/practice for EI skill development and to identify the best methods for individuals to learn EI skills.

INTRODUCTION

The time has come for introspection of our business curriculum and to prepare action plan for enhancing cognitive skills in future managers and developing their ability to read people and understand emotions. As per the alarming figures, stated in Rajasthan Patrika (August 3, 2011), one of the leading daily Hindi newspapers in Rajasthan, there has been a great decline in the student's interest for management studies. Furthermore, nine colleges affiliated with Rajasthan Technical University (R.T.U.) have requested permission for not conducting the session 2011-12 of MBA. In the year 2011, only 4781 students appeared in Rajasthan Management Aptitude Test (RMAT) for approximately 10,000 seats. Out of these, only 1809 students appeared for counselling. This condition is prevailing due to the fact that the current business curriculum is not meeting the requirements of the recruiters as a result the number of students who are placed is either less or their expectations are not matched in terms of profile and salary packages.

To add further, according to Daily News Analysis (July 23, 2011), a news agency in Ahmedabad, the two-day 'Conference on Management Education: The Road Ahead', which began at Indian Institute of Management (IIM), Ahmedabad on July 22, 2011, shattered certain myths. The management experts, professors and even recruiters revealed the fact that an MBA graduate from USA would outscore an Indian counterpart in the current scenario. "The American graduates are good at social skills and at adaptability. They easily fit into an organization. We have to wait for some time before we can put the Indian graduate to the client," said Rajan Srivatsan, Managing Director, Bain & Co, one of the leading recruiting companies. "The MBAs fall short on emotional intelligence and oral and written communication skills," said Amit Dhiman, professor of IIM, Calcutta. He said, to overcome the shortcomings, "More courses on self-awareness,

problem solving and decision making should be introduced. Communication labs to improve communications skills can be looked at."

Also, the findings of Porter and McKibbin (1988) stated that students required not only knowledge, but also the ability to integrate various disciplines within the business environment. They recommended that soft skill training be assimilated into the business school curriculum to assist students in their future roles in the corporate world. However, there is much debate and disagreement about the development of soft skills in the MBA classroom. A common dirge from recruiters of MBA graduates is that they have learned the hard skills of accounting, finance and marketing, but do not have expertise in the soft skill areas (Eberhardt & Moser, 1997).

These concerns have resulted in the emergence of emotional intelligence (EI).With our economy growing at rapid pace; we need to develop large number of high quality management professionals. It is now a necessity that Indian MBA graduates hone their soft skills and possess the core competencies desired by employers.

METHODOLOGY

The study is purely based on secondary data collected from literature review of previous studies and articles published in journals, books and newspapers related to emotional intelligence and its significance in the workplace.

LITERATURE REVIEW

An Introduction to Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Evolution of EI

There is hardly any concept in the study of human behaviour, which is as controversial as that of emotional intelligence. For instance, Robert Thorndike wrote about "social intelligence" in the late thirties (Thorndike & Stein, 1937). David Wechsler (1958) defined intelligence as "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment." In1983, Howard Gardner began to write about "multiple

intelligence." He concluded that people possessed multiple intelligences and he initially identified seven types of intelligence. The seven were: (a) linguistic, (b) logical, (c) musical, (d) kinaesthetic, (e) visual/spatial, (f) intrapersonal, and (g) interpersonal.

- *Mathematical-logical* - the ability to organise thoughts sequentially and logically.
- *Verbal-linguistic* - the ability to understand and express ideas through language.
- *Bodily-kinaesthetic* - the gaining of knowledge through feedback from physical activity.
- *Musical* - sensitivity to tone, pitch and rhythm, and the ability to reproduce them.
- *Visual-Spatial* - the ability to learn directly through images and to think intuitively without the use of language.
- *Inter-personal* - the ability to notice and make discriminations regarding the moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions of others.
- *Intra-personal* - having access to one's own feelings, involves recognising and responding to our own emotions.

Gardner (1983) proposed that "intrapersonal" and "interpersonal" intelligences are as important as the type of intelligence typically measured by IQ and related tests. His research was one of the reasons for emotions being given greater recognition and priority than had previously occurred.

What is Emotional Intelligence?

Peter Salovey and John Mayer (1990) coined the term 'emotional intelligence'. They described emotional intelligence as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action".

Sometimes later, Daniel Goleman (1995) wrote a book titled *Emotional Intelligence*, which is a landmark in the field of EI and familiarized both the

public and private sectors with the idea of emotional intelligence. He gave the popular mixed model of EI.

The Mixed Model of EI

Goleman's model outlines four main emotional intelligence dimensions.

1).Self-awareness is the ability to read one's emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decisions.

2).Self-management, involves controlling one's emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.

3).Social awareness includes the ability to sense, understand, and react to other's emotions while comprehending social networks.

4).Finally, relationship management, entails the ability to inspire, influence, and develop others while managing conflict (Goleman, 1998).

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each dimension of emotional intelligence. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman suggests that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.

After the inception of EI, two major schools of thoughts emerged regarding the composition of EI. One school of thought views EI as traditional intelligence composed of a set of specific, interrelated abilities. Another school of thought views EI as a set of abilities, added with some personality related traits like optimism, conscientiousness, etc. Both the school of thoughts have conceptualized EI differently. In spite of the differences, researchers agree that individuals differ in their EI level, EI can develop with age and it is very important for our personal and social lives (Gehr and Renstrom, 2004).

Need of understanding EI by MBA's

Evaluation of effectiveness of MBA curriculum

Elliot, Goodwin, and Goodwin (1994) doubted whether a business school curriculum was meeting the needs of business. They emphasized that many

employers believe that MBA programs focus too much on quantitative skills and analytical abilities while flouting the development of qualitative management and people skills. On the basis of the work of Buhler (2005), Strebler (1997), and Tilley (1992), skill areas that have been traditionally labelled "soft" are interpersonal, problem solving, teamwork, and oral communications. The hard skill moniker has been associated with technical, quantitative, computer, and written communication proficiencies.

According to Schachter (1999), the narrow focus of the MBA has produced graduates who have led the acronym MBA to mean ―mediocre but arrogant. The researcher claimed that corporations seek out-of-the-box thinking and creative problem solving not just quantitative skills. Bailey (2004) asserted that employers complain that MBA graduates have adequate numerical analysis skills but do not have the necessary people skills to function in today's business climate. According to Alsop (2002), one cause of this might be that soft skills are more difficult to teach than hard skills such as accounting and finance.

To add further, EI competencies are significant to a successful career in business. This is evidenced by Northeastern University's College of Business interview of over two dozen Global 500 companies to learn what skills were most valued for their graduates to possess before being hired (O'Connor, 2006). Their findings emphasized on the revision of curriculum with a greater focus on training in the EI areas of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management.

Bennis and O'Toole (2005) asserted that what separates competent business managers from less competent ones was the development of EI skills. Alsop (2002) stated MBA programs that have produced high EI graduates are being recognized and rewarded by recruiters and also the EI metric was becoming a greater branding asset than academic quality and research expertise.

Impact of EI at Workplace

In the corporate world, according to personnel executives, Intelligent Quotient (IQ) gets you hired, but EI gets you promoted. Among the ingredients for success, researchers now generally agree that IQ counts for about 20%; the rest depends on

everything from class to luck to the neural pathways that have developed in the brain over millions of years of human evolution.

In this regard, Goleman (2001) attempts to theoretically clarify the relationship between I.Q. and E.Q., and their respective applicability to job performance. He theorizes that I.Q. is a strong predictor of what jobs individuals can enter as well as a strong predictor of success among the general population as a whole. Emotional intelligence, on the other hand, is described by Goleman as a stronger predictor of who will excel in a particular job when levels of I.Q. are relatively equal.

Mechanisms by which High EI leads to better Job Performance

The ability to manage feelings and handle stress is particularly important aspect of emotional intelligence that contributes in success of business. A study of store managers in a retail chain found that the ability to handle stress predicted net profits, sales per square foot, sales per employee, and per dollar of inventory investment (Lusch & Serpkenci, 1990). Mullar (2010) suggested that employees displaying genuine concern about their colleague's problems should build stronger bond than the employees whose concern seem less genuine. Individuals with high EI may employ their abilities to manage emotions to develop good social relationships that may result in enhancement of task performance via advice and social support.

Empathy is another aspect of emotional intelligence, which adds to occupational success. Rosenthal and his colleagues at Harvard discovered over two decades ago that people who were best at identifying others' emotions were more successful in their work as well as in their social lives (Rosenthal, 1977).For instance, a survey of retail sales customers found that apparel sales representatives were valued primarily for their empathy (Pilling & Eroglu, 1994).Moreover, in most of the jobs, organization members publicly display their emotions through facial, vocal, and bodily signals that provide important information about their goals, attitudes, and intentions (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987; Sutton, 1991).This information may be converted into high task performance by individuals with EI.

However, the notion that "emotional intelligence" is important for success in work and life is actually somewhat simplistic and misleading. Both Goleman (1998) and Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso (1998b) have argued that by itself emotional intelligence probably is not a strong predictor of job performance; it only provides the foundation for competencies. Goleman has tried to epitomize this idea by making a distinction between emotional intelligence and emotional competence. Emotional competence refers to the personal and social skills that lead to superior performance in the world of work. "The emotional competencies are linked to and based on emotional intelligence. A certain level of emotional intelligence is necessary to learn the emotional competencies (Gowing, in press)."

Evidence that EI Skills can be taught in MBA Programs

One of the most controversial aspects of EI is whether or not it can be taught or developed. Emmerling and Goleman (2003) attempted to give justification regarding the ability to develop EI skills. Firstly, they acknowledged that genes play crucial role in the determination of EI but also highlighted the fact that geneticists themselves recognized the ability of nature to shape gene expression. Secondly, they argued that it is very difficult to improve any aspect of EI in individuals without sustained effort, commitment, and attention. Lastly, they highlighted research findings that accentuated development of EI, for instance, in a longitudinal evaluation of the competency-based curriculum of the MBA program at Case Western Reserve University's Weatherhead School of Management EI was found to be improved by 50% seven years after program completion (Boyatzis, Cowan, & Kolb, 1995).

Results for students who went through the Weatherhead MBA program had been compared with those of students who previously went through the traditional program. Both full-time and part-time MBA students and Professional Fellows were involved in this study. Preliminary results of fifty-year longitudinal study suggested that the new competency-based program resulted in full-time students improving on 71%, and part-time students improving on 81%, of the abilities assessed (Boyatzis, Leonard, Rhee, & Wheeler, 1996)**.** Full-time students in the

competency-based MBA program experienced a significant improvement in networking, developing others, self-confidence, oral communication, flexibility, and initiative, while students in the traditional program improved only in self-confidence. Part-time students in the competency-based MBA program increased in initiative, self-confidence, empathy, flexibility, persuasiveness, networking, oral communication and developing others, while part-timers in the traditional program only improved in flexibility.

Other benefits of the new competency based-program were reflected from the 75% increase in applications to the full-time program from 1989-1990 to 1995-1996. This increase occurred at a time when there was a 17% decrease in the number of people taking the Graduate Management Aptitude Test (GMAT), suggesting that the Weather head School had increased its appeal at a time when MBA programs in general were losing some of their charm.

Doh (2003) claimed that management skills can be taught by higher education. The study interviewed a number of scholars on the subject and reported management knowledge can be taught and that the acquisition of EI skills may be best transferred to students through coaching and mentoring.

How to develop EI skills?

Description of the Theory/Practice for Emotional Intelligence Development
According to Cherniss and Goleman (1998), programs which apply a cognitive learning process involve placing new information into already existing frameworks and ways of understanding, consequently enriching and expanding the neural circuitry of the brain. This type of learning is generally ineffective when trying to teach emotional intelligence competencies as these skills involve expanding the neural circuitry of the brain while re-training the brain centres which control emotion. Thus, emotional rather than cognitive learning techniques must be used to teach emotional intelligence.

Furthermore, a study of 198 MBA students concluded that learning styles specializing in experiencing were the most effective in developing interpersonal effectiveness (Mainemelis, Boyatzis, & Kolb, 2002). Interpersonal effectiveness was defined as working on teams, teaching others, serving customers, leading,

negotiating, and working well with people from culturally diverse backgrounds. The concept of this specialization originated from the experiential learning theory defined by Kolb (1984) as "the process whereby knowledge is created from the combination of grasping and transforming experience." Johnson and Spicer (2006) proposed that action learning was the best practice for EI development. In this framework, students seek to solve real-world problems in business.

Bennis and O'Toole (2005) argued that business schools should stop using the scientific model and teach according to the professional model of others. They argued that each business school should run its own business, offer internships, and encourage action research.

Identifying methods to develop EI skills through MBA programs

Emotional intelligence or quotient (EI/EQ) is an important feature of communication. Communication is the bridge that connects us to our fellow beings and society as a whole. If language is the key to communication then EI is the key to language and social interaction. So, EI theory should be incorporated into the business communication curriculum. As suggested by Myers and Tucker (2005), a student-centred learning assignment can be used to enhance student learning which allows students to explore EI concepts both intrapersonally and interpersonally.

Significant efforts have been made in some business schools for the development of EI competencies in students. But in India there are only few business schools where EI skills are being taught such as XLRI, Jamshedpur and MDI, Gurgaon etc. One significant reason for EI being not very popular is that there is dearth of expert faculties who can teach EI skills so non - expert faculties should be encouraged to attend EI workshops for enhancing their EI skills.

Furthermore, considering the competency-based curriculum of the MBA program at Weatherhead School of Management as the basis, a "Managerial Assessment and Development course" should be designed. The goals of this course will be "to learn a method for assessing one's knowledge and abilities relevant to management," to develop "plans for acquiring new management-related knowledge and abilities throughout one's career," and to become more

aware of "one's own values and the values of others" (Boyatzis, 1994). From this course, the student will learn about his or her strengths and weaknesses in those areas that are most critical for superior managerial performance. This self-knowledge will be the basis for a Learning Plan that will guide the next two or three years of MBA study.

   In implementation of the Learning Plan, students will be helped by the Executive Action Team (EAT), which may comprise of a group of randomly selected students, a corporate executive advisor, and an advanced doctoral student who serves as a facilitator. The facilitator will act like a career counsellor. The corporate executive advisors may be either CEOs or people who report directly to such an office of a private or public organization. They will provide a valuable opportunity for students to develop meaningful relationships with working professionals. The EAT will help students integrate knowledge from the various courses they take as well as from other types of experiences such as internships, mentorships, and clubs. The faculty will ensure that the EATs are effective by encouraging activities like network and communication workshops. "The Learning Plan should provide a method for lifelong self-directed development and function as a type of learning contract for the students." (Boyatzis, 1994)

Conclusion

Today a major challenge to MBA education is to develop the ability to use management knowledge. Drucker (1997) claimed that by 2027 the large university campuses will be an artefact due to uncontrollable expenses without any measurable improvement in either the content or the quality of business curriculum. One has to wonder if these words could become reality. Consistent mismatch between the MBA program curriculum and the employer's expectation should be heard as an alarm bell. What employers expect needs to be expressed in the curriculum. Therefore, the curriculum must influence employer's expectations by developing an MBA graduate with the required EI skills to excel in the workplace. This will help in developing new talents who will further explore the field of EI and contribute in new researches. Caudron (2006) very rightly stated,

"Like it or not, emotions are an intrinsic part of our biological makeup, and every morning they march into the office with us and influence our behaviour."

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