An Empirical Study of Emotional Intelligence Behavior of Indian Managers and its Relationship with Leadership and Conflict Management Styles

By

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis has been carried out by me under the supervision of Dr. Y. Medury, COO, Jaypee Education System and has not been submitted for the degree or diploma of any other university. All assistance and help received during the course of the investigation has been duly acknowledged.

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled ***An Empirical study of Emotional Intelligence Behavior of Indian Managers and its Relationship with Leadership and Conflict Management Styles*** *Submitted by Tanu sharma to the Jaypee University of Information Technology, Waknaghat in fulfillment of the requirement for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Management is a record of bona fide research work carried out by her under my supervision and guidance and no part of this work has been submitted for any other degree or diploma.*

Dr. Yajulu Medury

COO, Jaypee Education System

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"Knowledge is in the end based on knowledge"

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Few movements have intrigued mainstream society to the extent of the study of emotional intelligence (Salopek,1998). Written in 1995, Goleman's book, Emotional Intelligence, has been translated into 30 languages and has become a best seller around the world (Salopek). The term "emotional intelligence" (EI) was first coined by Salovey and Mayer (1990) to explain a different type of intelligence. Many have noted the distinction between academic intelligence and social intelligence (Neisser, 1976). While the standard intelligence quotient (IQ), tends to be static, EI can be learned (Salopek).

Specifically, EI is the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997a). Mayer and Salovey subsume Gardner's inter-and intra-personal intelligences and involves abilities that maybe categorized into five domains: self-awareness, managing emotions, motivating, empathy, and handling relationships (Salovey and Mayer, 1993). In an earlier conception, Gardner (1983) described what is now recognized as EI as being a deep awareness of one's own emotions and the ability to label and draw upon those emotions as a resource to guide behavior.

Goleman (1995) later developed his four dimensions of EI to include knowing and managing one's emotions, self- motivation, empathy toward others, and social deftness. The benefits of EI are many and varied. A group of four-year old children - found to resist impulse - were tracked through high school and were found to be more self-assertive, socially skilled, independent, and persevering than their more impulsive peers. In addition, they achieved significantly higher SAT scores (Shoda, Mischel, & Peake, 1990). Harrington-Lueke (1997) found in their research that being emotionally intelligent is just as important to success in life as good

grades. Essentially, people with high levels of EI experience more career success, build stronger personal relationships, lead more effectively, and enjoy better health than those with low levels of EI (Cooper, 1997). Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) exhibited that executives higher on understanding their own feelings and that of their subordinates are more likely to achieve business outcomes and be considered as effective leaders by their employees and direct manager. According to Diggins (2004) the best managers need to possess emotional intelligence (EI) to make decisions that based on a combination of self-management and relationship skills and an awareness of how their behavior affects others in the organization. He argued that emotional intelligence plays a greater role than "traditional" intelligence in determining leaders and organizations' success and concluded that EI helps people to be more aware of their interpersonal style; recognize and manage the impact of emotions on their thoughts and behavior; develop their ability to judge social dynamics in the workplace; and understand how well they manage relationships and how to improve.

Diggins (2004, p. 34) suggested that EI is the key to effective performance and to staying ahead of the pack at times of organizational change. In his words: "In organizations, the inclusion of emotional intelligence in training programs has helped employees to co-operate better and be more motivated, thereby increasing productivity and profits". According to Brown and Brooks (2002, p. 327) "an understanding of emotion, both our own and those of other people, plays an important part in organizational life". In this context, Mayer et al. (2004) stated that superiors need to manage the mood of their organizations and that a mysterious blend of psychological abilities known as emotional intelligence is what leaders need to accomplish that goal.

Emotions & intelligence research

Although EI is promoted as a "new" construct, similar constructs have been circulating for over 80 years. Salovey and Mayer (1990) referred to EI as an aspect of social intelligence. Social intelligence was defined as the ability to understand and manage emotions (Thorndike, 1920). This type of intelligence was viewed as being a part of a multifaceted construction of intelligence.

Practical intelligence Sternberg's (1985) triarchic theory of intelligence classifies three types of intelligences: (1) Analytic Intelligence, which assesses one's logical and mathematical ability; (2) Creative Intelligence, which measures one's ability to cope with new tasks; and (3) Practical intelligence, which assesses one's ability to adapt to their environment. Gardner (1983) also viewed intelligence as being multifaceted. Two types of socially-based intelligences are related to EI: interpersonal intelligence involves the ability to understand other people; successful in neither defining nor measuring social intelligence (Cronbach, 1960; Riggio, Messamer, & Throckmorton, 1991).

Emotional intelligence – the balancing of individual and organizational needs

Given the presence and complexities of these internal and external influences, the leader of the knowledge-based organization is often faced with the prospect of reacting to constant changes in the internal and external environment. In order to be effective in that regard the leader must possess the characteristics most often associated with the description of emotional intelligence: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill. Additionally, the leader must be effective at injecting these same characteristics throughout the knowledge organization, since having these skills concentrated in a single individual within the organization is not optimal. This process in and of itself creates a tension between the needs of the organization and those of the individuals within the organization. One can argue the balancing of those interests requires an even higher level of emotional intelligence in the knowledge-based leader. Recognizing the tension between the competing interests of the organization and individual is one thing; knowing what to do about it and acting on it is quite another. Heskett et al. (1997) made the case that regardless of business type the only path to enduring success begins with creating a work environment that attracts and retains talented employees. Nationally, this focus propagated the notion that the organization is no more talented than the cumulative sum of its employees and has been the impetus for the development of new wave cultural adaptations of the workplace setting. The onslaught of day care facilities, employee concierge services and dress code abandonment were all mechanisms presumably designed by emotionally intelligent leaders to provide an environment where workers believed their interests constituted those of the organization.

Stewart (1998) concluded in an intellectual economy the majority of an organization's value lies in the talent and knowledge of its employees. Applied to the knowledge-based setting, this required emotionally intelligent leaders to develop mechanisms to attract what they believed to be the best and brightest knowledge workers. Signing bonuses and flexible working hours for knowledge workers became common practice and more recently retention bonuses have become vogue. The recruitment of knowledge workers has become somewhat methodical with a specific calculus for comparative purposes. The specific recruitment variables developed by knowledge-based organizations were relocation expenses, signing bonuses, salary guarantees, relaxation of initial productivity standards and student loan forgiveness. While all of these mechanisms were helpful in attracting employees, they also created an environment whereby the employee had every right to believe the culture of the organization was defined by the needs of the individual. After all, "did they not tell me that the success and future of the organization was dependent upon my presence there."

Ironically, the leaders of the knowledge-based organization had every right to believe the recruitment mechanisms developed were merely a means to an end. That is to say, the organization's need was to employ the professionals and technicians it needed to meet its mission: to provide the highest quality and most technologically advanced products or services at the lowest cost to as many as possible. Further complicating the circumstance is the overarching cultural need of every knowledge-based organization to focus on the desires and preferences of the customer. Far and away the most prevalent verbiage in the mission statements of knowledge-based entities is a focus on the customers they intend to serve. The implementation of this mission statement into knowledge-based products and services that exceed those of competing organizations requires employees to sublimate their needs and to exercise the very emotional intelligence skills that were utilized by others to recruit them to the organization.

Stewart (1998) concluded the most valuable aspects of jobs in an intellectual economy are sensing, judging, creating and building relationships. Arguably, these are not altogether dissimilar to the skills set most often identified with emotional intelligence and also represent

The presumed primary beneficiary of all efforts of the knowledge-based entity is the customer, and all issues facing the knowledge-based organization, be they internal or external, are addressed with the ultimate interests of the customer in mind. To answer the question of to whom the benefits of emotional intelligence accrue in the knowledge-based organization, it is best viewed as a continuum with the interests of the individual and organization on opposite ends suspended on a fulcrum sliding from one end to the other in an attempt to balance those needs. The knowledge-based leader with requisite emotional intelligence skills represents that fulcrum. On any given day on any given issue, the interests are never equally balanced; rather, the interests vary from issue to issue over time. The goal of the knowledge-based leader is to attempt to keep the balance within acceptable ranges, never allowing one to become dominant over the other. To that end, emotional intelligence or the by-products of practicing emotional intelligence should not be viewed as toxic or a manipulative tool, but rather as a means of dialogue among the internal constituencies of the organization. The skills and processes of emotional intelligence may be utilized as the balancing mechanism among interests to achieve the desired outcomes and results for the benefit of customers. Even more importantly emotional intelligence can be viewed as therapeutic for the knowledge-based organization and its cultural development, and as such may serve as a means of continuous organizational development.

Applying emotional intelligence as organizational development

Self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill, as identified by Goleman (1998), constitute the behaviors most readily identified among individuals described as emotionally intelligent. These behaviors, while historically described as present in an individual, may alternately be viewed as processes to balance the internal interests of the organization for the benefit of those it intends to serve. Specifically, the utilization of the emotional intelligence principles to develop a shared sense of culture can transform emotional intelligence from an individual behavior to a group dynamic (Blattner and Bacigalupo, 2007).

Applying Buckingham and Coffman's (1999) conclusions to the knowledge-based setting, the following questions may be addressed by supervisors and managers as a means of determining their own self-awareness in the knowledge work environment:

1. Do my knowledge workers and team members know what is expected of them?

2. Do my knowledge workers and team members have the materials and equipment to perform at an outstanding level?

3. Do my knowledge workers and team members have the opportunity to outperform previous levels each day?

4. Have I praised my knowledge workers and team members in the last seven days?

5. Does each of my knowledge workers and team members feel that I care about them as a person?

6. Do my knowledge workers and team members feel that I encourage their development?

7. Do my knowledge workers and team members feel that their opinions matter and are sought?

8. Do my knowledge workers and team members feel that their job is important to the mission of the organization?

9. Do my knowledge workers and team members believe that the other members of the team are committed to performing at the highest level?

10. Do my knowledge workers and team members have a best friend at work?

11. Have I communicated with each of my knowledge workers and team members about their continued progress in the last six months?

12. Has each of my knowledge workers and team members had an opportunity to learn and grow in the last year? In the continual addressing of these questions, the knowledge-based

leader can develop and exhibit their own emotional intelligence behaviors as well as serve as a role model for aspiring managers within the organization. At the team level, these questions can be utilized by managers and supervisors to develop a starting point to foster a dialogue on shared goals and objectives.

In order for emotional intelligence to make the transformation to an organizational development tool, individual teams and team members must be willing to determine their responsibility in meeting the needs of the organization, as well as their own level of commitment to meeting those needs. The goal here is to create an environment where teams and team members can become self-regulating, taking initiative and actions that will further the interests of the organization, while simultaneously developing the emotional intelligence skills of each team member. The implementation process requires a starting point from which teams can weave the emotional intelligence process into the cultural fabric of each team. Following the parameters of the 12 questions previously outlined by Buckingham and Coffman (1999), these additional questions may be utilized to cultivate emotional intelligence as a process into the fabric of each team and team member:

- Do I understand the needs of my knowledge-based organization and the role I play in meeting those needs?
- Am I committed to the mission of my knowledge-based organization?
- Do I perform my job in such a manner as to assist my knowledge-based organization in the achievement of its mission?
- Do I encourage others to perform at their highest level?
- Have I taken the opportunity to praise my manager and other leaders and encourage them?
- Have I communicated my opinions and suggestions in a positive manner?
- Do I represent my knowledge-based organization in a positive light in the community?

- Do I empathize with the customers and/or staff I serve?
- Am I aware of how others perceive me?
- Do I set goals for myself that will push my team further toward the goals we have set?

This interrogatory process is designed to assist team members in the self-awareness and self-regulation process. Additionally, an honest assessment of the answers should stir some degree of empathy for the roles and responsibilities of others in the organization. All of which should foster the emotional intelligence framework in the individual team member. In order for emotional intelligence to be viewed as a process rather than an outcome, it must be approached as a methodology. Human resource and training professionals within the knowledge-based organization must provide support for the process just as if it were a continuous quality improvement or assessment program. Seminars, case studies, group discussions, retreats and resource materials must be developed around the emotional intelligence process so that teams can be comfortable in pursuing the methodology, knowing that they are not doing so alone and without guidance. As always the example set by the executive team is paramount. If teams see that those at the top of the organization are pursuing emotional intelligence as a development process, then they are much more likely to participate and embrace the concept.

Additionally, an important facet of the transformation of emotional intelligence to an organizational development tool is the means by which the desired behavior and outcomes are measured. Are the behaviors and skills producing the desired results? Do teams who practice emotional intelligence perform at a higher level? Is the organization as a whole performing at a higher level as a result of viewing emotional intelligence as a process? Finally, has the utilization of the emotional intelligence processes had an impact on the perceived tension between the needs of the knowledge worker and those of the organization?

Competencies as behavioral manifestations of emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence and social intelligence (i.e. EI and SI) are convenient phrases with which to focus attention on the underlying emotional and social components of human talent. While the earliest psychologist to explore the related concept of "social intelligence" (Thorndike in the 1920s and 1930s, cf. Goleman, 1995, 2006) offered the idea as a single concept, more recent psychologists have appreciated its complexity and described it in terms of multiple capabilities (Bar-On, 1992, 1997; Goleman, 1998; aarni, 1999). Sharma (2008) reviews the history beginning with Spinoza and other philosophers before getting to Thorndike. Gardner (1983) conceptualized this arena as constituting intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence – two of the seven intelligences. Salovey and Mayer (1990) first used the expression "emotional intelligence" and described it in terms of four domains: perceiving, using, understanding and managing emotions. Other conceptualizations have used labels such as "practical intelligence" and "successful intelligence" (Sternberg, 1996), which often blend the capabilities described by other psychologists with cognitive abilities and anchor the concepts around the consequence of the person's behavior, notably success or effectiveness. The major themes of criticism of the EI concept is found in Matthews et al. (2002), but they often confused the theoretical distinctions and the measurement issues.

The major theories and measures of EI from the literature are, in a comparison extending the work of Ferna´ndez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006). They have been organized around three conceptual/methodological themes: EI ability measures and models; EI behavior methods and models; and self-perception methods and models. Mayer et al.'s (1999) three standards for intelligence" are:

(1) It should reflect a "mental performance rather than preferred ways of behaving"(pp. 269-270).

(2) Tests of it should show positive correlation with other forms of intelligence.

(3) The measures should increase with experience and age.

Different interpretations of "intelligence" are offered in the literature. For example, Petrides and Furnham proposed difference between trait and ability EI (see Guillen et al., n.d.):

Trait EI is closer to the personality realm. Ability EI is a new realm. Boyatzis and Sala (2004) claimed that to be classified as"intelligence," the concept should be:

- Behaviorally observable.
- Related to biological and in particular neural-endocrine functioning. That is, each cluster should be differentiated as to the type of neural circuitry and endocrine system involved.
- Related to life and job outcomes.

Sufficiently different from other personality constructs that the concept adds value to understanding the human personality and behavior. The measures of the concept, as a psychological construct, should satisfy the basic criteria for a sound measure that is show convergent and discriminate validity (Campbell and Fiske, 1959).

The Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey criterion #3 will be related to our third, fourth, and fifth criteria somewhat. But their first and second criteria claim that because EI is"Intelligence," it should correlate with measures of cognitive intelligence. As a theory of emotional intelligence, we believe that there should be a link to neural (or possibly neuro-endocrine) functioning. If the theory claims that there are multiple components of this emotional intelligence, then these different components should have different neuro-endocrine pathways. This first proposed criterion is more specific than the Mayer et al. (1999) first and second criteria. The construct should actually be able to predict neural and endocrine (i.e. hormonal) patterns within the individual.

Regarding the rationale for including criterion #2 (i.e. job and life outcomes), the American Psychological Association's Task Force on Intelligence (American heoretical basis Authors Measurement distinctions Ability Mayer, Solavey and CarusoMSCEIT – direct performance assessment of emotional processing, some scenarios testing;confusion on scoring between consensus and expert scoring models (Mayer et al., 1999;Salovey and Mayer, 1997) Schutte et al. Self-report measure based on Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso model (Schutte et al.,

1998)Behavioral Boyatzis and Goleman ESCI-360, functional approach inductively derived from effective performance, called competencies (more outcome-oriented and realistic in real settings) (Boyatzis and Goleman,1996; Wolff, 2005, 2008) Bar-On EQ-i: 360, although originally a self-report, the360 was introduced in 1997 (see placement laterin this table) (Bar-On, 1997)Dulewicz et al. EIQ, a 360 of competencies (Dulewicz et al., 2003)Bradbury EQA, a 360 skill assessment modeled afterGoleman and Boyatzis model (Bradbury and Su,2006)Internal (self)perceptionBar-On EQ-i, originally a self-report, internally process drivenmodel (more psychological than others),but now more behavioral in its 360 form (Bar-On,1997)Schutte et al. Self-assessment based on Mayer-Salovey-Caruso model (Schutte et al., 1998)Wong and Law WLEIS, a self-assessment based on the MSCEIT model (Law et al., 2004)Petrides and Furnham TEIQue, a self-assessment of trait EI based on a Psychological Association Public Affairs Office, 1997) reported that predicting real life outcomes is an important part of the standard against which we should judge an intelligence. It then went on to add that there should be a consensus within a field as to the definition. Although the consensus is lacking in the field regarding emotional intelligence at this time, the link between EI and SI competencies and real life outcomes is in fact testable.

While Mayer et al. (1999) seem to discard patterns of behavior as irrelevant to their concept of EI; this approach contends that EI and SI should predict behavioral patterns in life and work, as well as the consequences of these patterns in the form of life and work outcomes. This seems a more relevant test of the concept than merely showing a link to experience and age (i.e. as Mayer et al.'s (1999) third criterion).The competency and talent stream of research has focused on explaining and predicting effectiveness in various occupations, often with a primary emphasis on managers and leaders McClelland, 1973; Bray et al., 1974; Boyatzis, 1982; Luthans et al., 1988; Kotter, 1982; Thornton and Byham, 1982; Spencer and Spencer, 1993). As has been explained earlier in this article, in this competency approach, specific capabilities were identified and validated against effectiveness measures, or, often, inductively discovered and then articulated as competencies.

There may be reasons to label the behavioral approach to EI/SI as something other than"intelligence." For example, they could be called competencies without the additional descriptor. Sternberg (1997) claimed that, "Intelligence comprises the mental abilities necessary for adaptation to, as well as shaping and selection of, any environmental context" (p. 1030). He goes on to claim that intelligence serves two purposes, "external correspondence and internal coherence" (p. 1030). It is precisely the "external," direct consequence to actions in life and work that establishes the competencies as forms of intelligence, whether cognitive, emotional, or social. An integrated concept of emotional, social, and cognitive intelligence competencies offers more than a convenient framework for describing human dispositions (Boyatzis and Sala, 2004). It offers a theoretical structure for the organization of personality and linking it to a theory of action and job performance. Goleman (1998) defined an "emotional competence" as a "learned capability based on emotional intelligence which results in outstanding performance at work." In other words, if a competency is an "underlying characteristic of the person that leads to or causes effective or superior performance" (Boyatzis, 1982), then building on McClelland's (1973) earlier argument about the limits of traditional views of intelligence:

- an emotional, intelligence competency is an ability to recognize, understand, and use emotional information about oneself that leads to or causes effective or superior performance;
- a social intelligence competency is the ability to recognize, understand and use emotional information about others that leads to or causes effective or superior performance; and
- a cognitive intelligence competency is an ability to think or analyze information and situations that leads to or causes effective or superior performance.

If defined as a single construct, the tendency to believe that more effective people have the vital ingredients for success invites the attribution of a halo effect. For example, person A is effective, therefore she has all of the right stuff, such as brains, savvy, and style. Like the issue

of finding the best "focal point" with which to look at something, the dilemma of finding the best level of detail in defining constructs with which to build a personality theory may ultimately be an issue of which focal point is chosen. The separate competencies, like the clusters, are, we believe, the most helpful focal point for description and study of performance.

The articulation of one overall emotional or social intelligence might be deceptive and suggest a close association with cognitive capability (i.e. traditionally defined "intelligence" or what psychologists often call "g" referring to general cognitive ability) (Davies et al., 1998; Ackerman and Heggestad, 1997). The latter would not only be confusing, but would additionally raise the question as to what one is calling emotional and social intelligence and whether it is nothing more than an element of previously defined intelligence or cognitive ability.

The Emotional Competency Inventory, version 2 (ECI-2) (i.e. the forerunner to the current ESCI) and the closely related university version (ECI-U) showed desired levels of convergent validity in confirmatory factor analyses for both the theoretical clusters (Goleman et al., 2002; Wolff, 2005) and empirical clusters (Boyatzis and Sala, 2004) in studies by Battista (2005) as well as Battista-Foguet et al. (n.d.). In addition, a wide variety of validation studies showed strong and consistent validity in predicting or explaining life and job outcomes (Boyatzis and Sala, 2004; Wolff, 2005).

The latest version of the ESCI attempts to address the difference between coded behavior from behavioral event interviews and informant based 360 surveys. Construction of the ESCI (i.e. the informant, 360 survey of behavior) dropped the inclusion of all behavioral manifestations found in the earlier indicative validation studies. Some of the items are reflective of the competency, and some are formative, or as they were earlier called, alternate manifestations. To address the lack of context from the 360 informant (that the coded of interviews would have), a statement of the intent was incorporated into each item in the ESCI.

Meanwhile, Guillen et al. (n.d.) revealed no statistically significant relationship between personality dimensions as measured by the NEO-PR and EI or SI competencies. Burckle (2000) and Murensky (2000) showed small but significant correlations between selected personality

dimensions as measured by the Myers Briggs Type Indicator and selected clusters of EI and SI competencies.

In contrast, the model of EI offered through the MSCEIT (Mayer et al., 2003) has a total score of a person's EI, two area scores of experiential and strategic, and branches within each area of:

- Perceiving (with sub-tests of faces and pictures) and facilitating (with sub-tests of facilitation and sensations); and
- Understanding (with subtests of changes and blends) and managing (with subtests of emotional management and emotional relationships).

Although data from studies comparing these tests are under way, conceptually we would expect small correlations between these two different measures. The MSCEIT assesses a person's direct handling of emotions, while the ESCI which is intended to assess the EI and SI competencies described earlier assesses how the person expresses his or her handling of emotions in life and work settings.

Because the internal processing of emotions may, in some areas, emerge as consistent behavioral tendencies, there may be correlation between:

- self-awareness competencies from the ESCI and the experiential area, in particular the facilitating branch from the MSCEIT;
- social awareness competencies from the ESCI and the understanding branch of the strategic area; and
- relationship management competencies from the ESCI and the managing branch from the strategic area of the MSCEIT.

Similarly, although the data bearing on this issue are presently being collecting, currently there is no documented relationship among the ESCI competencies and the subscales

of the Bar-On's EQ-i (Bar-On, 1992, 1997). Although there will be little correlation between the self-report version of the EQ-i and the Others' views of a person's competencies through the ESCI, there may be substantial correlation among the EQ-i subscales and ESCI when 360 measures of both are compared. This should occur because the behavior being observed by the informants will be seen as similar or related. There are eight subscales in the EQ-i that are not expected to associate with ESCI competencies. Similarly, there are six ESCI competencies that are not expected to associate with EQ-i subscales. Since the application of one's EI/SI ability in life and work settings, which we call competencies, it will manifest itself in observed behavior. Therefore, we believe the ESCI generally measures different aspects of EI and SI than the MSCEIT or the EQ-i.

Current models of emotional intelligence

Although EI has become a popular topic among researchers, practitioners, and the general public, there is no consensus as to the definition of EI. There are two competing models of EI: The ability-based model, which is endorsed by Mayer and his colleagues (Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990; Mayer & Salovey, 1997b) and the trait-based (or "mixed") model, which is endorsed by researchers such as Goleman (1995; 1998c) and Bar-On (1997).

Ability-based model

These previous conceptualizations of social or interpersonal intelligence have focused on the intelligence literature. In addition to the intelligence literature, Salovey and Mayer (1990) examined the emotions literature to develop their conceptualization of EI. They initially defined EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). In this definition of EI, Salovey and Mayer (1990) identified three components of EI: an ability to appraise others' emotions, an ability to regulate one's own emotions, and an ability to use emotions to solve problems. The first component draws largely on Ekman's work on display of emotions. Ekman and his colleagues (Ekman, 1993; Ekman & Friesen, 1975) argued that there are a number of basic (i.e., unlearned) emotions that are universal across all cultures

(although display rules may differ), and that are reflected in the same facial expressions. The second component involves research on emotional knowledge. The third component expands research that looks at how emotions facilitate expression and communication.

According to this ability perspective, EI is a group of abilities that are distinct from the traditional dimensions of intelligence and that facilitate the perception, expression, assimilation, understanding, and regulation of emotions, so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997b). More specifically, Mayer and Salovey (1997b) expanded on their 1990 definition by creating a four-branch model of EI consisting of: (1) Emotional Perception: the ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others, as well as in objects, art, and stories; (2) Emotional Facilitation of Thought: the ability to generate, use, and feel emotions in order to communicate feelings, or use them in other mental processes; (3) Emotional Understanding: the ability to understand how emotions combine and progress through relationship transitions and to reason about emotions; and (4) Emotional Management: the ability to be open to emotions and to moderate them in oneself and others, in order to encourage personal understanding and growth.

Despite the initial research defining EI in terms of ability, subsequent researchers have claimed that EI is composed of non-cognitive related competencies, traits, and skills (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995). The trait-based model of EI tends to be more pervasive in non-academic settings than the ability-based approach. Goleman defined EI as being non-cognitive in nature, and including such personal traits as empathy, optimism, adaptability, warmth, and motivation. Bar-On (1997) defined EI in broad terms as a set of non-cognitive abilities, skills, and competencies that affect the way in which individuals cope with environmental demands.

Trait-based model or 'mixed-model'

Despite the popularity of this view, the mixed-model view of EI has received a lot of criticism from the scientific community. Mayer and Salovey (1997 b) argued that measures of EI must assess actual abilities as opposed to self-report of constructs such as optimism and motivation. That is, they argue that these mixed-model measures of "EI" are really measuring a

construct or constructs other than EI. One of the frequent criticisms of the trait- based measures of EI is that they tend to be highly correlated with personality measures (Davies et al., 1998; Newsome, Day, & Catano, 2000). This lack of discriminate validity from a well-established construct of personality is worrisome. Mixed-model measures of EI also tend to be uncorrelated with cognitive ability, which Mayer and his colleagues claim is imperative for any intelligence.

There is little evidence that mixed-model measures are related to job performance or academic performance (Newsome et al., 2000). However, there is some evidence that certain trait-based measures of EI may be related to life outcomes (e.g., life satisfaction, relationship quality, ability to manage moods; Bar-On 1997; Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000) and work outcomes (e.g., career commitment; Carson & Carson, 1998). However, some of this relationship may be explained through common method variance. That is, questions on measures such at the EQ-i ask respondents to indicate how happy they are. We would expect these questions to be highly correlated with the same type of questions on satisfaction measures asking respondents how satisfied they are.

Emotional intelligence model of present study

Drawing upon the support from various sources of research and training in emotional intelligence, EI theory has tended to take two different approaches to model building. Academic researchers view EI as an abstract concept whereas training specialists look at it as a combination of practical competencies acquired by the individual. This study, while drawing heavily upon the insights from academic research, approaches EI from the competency perspective and hence attempts to present a model that construes EI as a constellation of competencies.

Some researchers suggest that emotionally intelligent people may be believed to behave in rationally and emotionally balanced ways because they are in possession of certain attributes called EI competencies (Mayer et al., 2004; Salovey et al., 1999). These competencies can be classified into two broad categories:

1. personal competence in understanding and managing one's "own self"; and
2. social competence in knowing and dealing with the "self of others" (Feist and Barron, 1996; Goleman, 1995; Mayer and Salovey, 1997 b; Sternberg, 1996;Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004).

Personal competence is the ability of a person to sense one's own internal mental moods and processes and regulate the operations of the mind in such a way that emotions do not disturb or deter the rational mind from executing its actions rationally and to the best of its intellectual capacity. Personal competence is divisible into two sub-competencies, namely, self-awareness and self-regulation.

Self-awareness is the ability to detect the internal emotions and feelings, in real time, as they occur within us. Self-aware individuals are able to read and "link" their feelings with what they think and act. In EI terms, it is called "emotional literacy" (Mayer and Salovey, 1993; McGarvey, 1997).

Self-regulation is the ability of a person to use self-awareness (or emotional literacy) to manage one's own emotions. The person uses self-awareness to regulate the rational and emotional operations of the mind in balanced ways so as to provide an emotionally supportive pathway for the reasoning mind to make logically correct and socially acceptable decisions and judgments (Martinez, 1997; Tischler et al., 2002).

Research indicates that people possessing personal competence manage their impulsive feelings and disturbing emotions well and stay composed, positive, and unflappable even during trying moments (Martinez, 1997; Mayer and Salovey, 1995). Such people can think clearly, stay focused under pressures and are able to take sound, decisive decisions despite uncertainties and demands, shifting priorities, and changes in their life (Slaski and Cartwright, 2002). Moreover, they show remarkable tact in adapting to fluid circumstances.

Concepts related to personal competence have been discussed in psychology previously. For example, personal competence may appear similar to self-monitoring - a concept in

psychology proposed by Snyder (1974). Self-monitoring theory refers to the process through which people regulate their own behavior so as to appear and "look good" so that they will be perceived by others in a favorable manner. Self-monitoring theory distinguishes between high self-monitors, who monitor their behavior to fit different situations, and low self-monitors, who are more cross-situation ally consistent (Snyder, 1974). However, while self-monitoring takes care of one's behavior and appearance in public/social situations, it does not fully enable a person to handle and regulate his/her deeper, disturbing internal feelings and emotions – a feat that EI can achieve. EI should, accordingly, be viewed differently from self-monitoring.

Social competence is the ability of a person to gain psychological insight into the emotional world of others and to use one's empathic capabilities and "relationship skills" (such as leadership, assertiveness, and communication) to produce socially desirable and productive behavioral outcomes both for themselves and others. Social competence includes two distinct sub-competencies: social-awareness and social influence.

Social awareness refers to the competence of a person in getting a "true feel" of the emotional mind of others. He/she enters into a covert "emotional dialogue" with the interacting partners (Salovey et al., 1999) and is able to empathize or "feel like" the other person. Empathy forges emotional connection (Kellett et al., 2002) and in many cases bonds people even far deeper and stronger than shared values, ideologies, and beliefs. Goleman believes that empathy underlies many interpersonal aptitudes like teamwork, persuasion and leadership (Goleman, 1998c).

Social influence refers to the potential of a person to influence and effect positive changes and outcomes in others by using his or her interpersonal skills. The term social influence, as a component of EI, has received only rudimentary treatment in EI literature. In the classic EI models, the second component of social competence is represented by "social skills". Social skills are a misnomer in the study and analysis of EI, so far. A review of 18 journal websites reveals that EI theorists and training specialists have bundled a large repertory of (historically known) interpersonal skills under the competence "social skills" – making it difficult to define as well as measure this competency.

This study, however, assumes that there are prominent interpersonal skills that need to be focused and developed in individuals if EI is to produce desirable effects and impacts on their social environment. While the skills required for effectively influencing others could be many, a few could be rated as important, considering the significance attached to these skills in management development and career counseling circles. Chief among these skills that contribute to a person's social influence are assertiveness, communication, and empowering leadership. Assertiveness helps a person in establishing a mutually respectful, win-win, I am ok-You are ok relationship with others. Communication skills enable the person to listen carefully to others as well as negotiate successfully to produce desirable outcomes in social transactions. Empowering leadership equips the person with the abilities of guiding and motivating others in situations that involve leadership and group management.

Though these core social influence skills might appear as independent of each other, in actual use they merge and blend with each other and have to be used in a highly synchronized manner to be productive and effective in the social environment.

Social influence might appear akin to the so-called political skill but the two should be viewed as related but different attributes. Political skill is the ability of a person to influence others and get them to buy into one's own ideas and objectives (Ferris et al., 2000). Political skill in itself is a virtue that is increasingly being advocated today as necessary competency to be effective in organizations (Ferris et al., 2007); but, the possibility exists that it could also be used, at times, for personal gains than for mutual benefits. Social influence on the other hand uses one's relationships skills in an empathic manner and focuses on buying others into one's ideas by building trust and pursuing means that mutually benefit each other. These additional elements of empathy coupled with mutuality of benefits to each other in social transactions perhaps demarcate social competence from political skill and distinctly distinguish it from the latter.

In an emotionally intelligent person, the above four competencies work together and in unison. Absence of one or more of these reduces the EI competence of the person and possibly inflicts damages both to the person and to his/her social functioning. However, a word of

caution is due. The first three of the EI competencies, namely, self-awareness, self-regulation, and social-awareness are basically functions of the rational-emotional mind of the person and could be enhanced by a person through rigorous training and practice in EI techniques. The fourth competency, social-influence, on the contrary, is highly interpersonal in nature, and, therefore, the success of this competency is dependent, also, on the attitudes and attributes of the other parties involved in social interactions. Furthermore, while engaging in and deploying the skills of social influence, the person is under pressure to keep aloof from the tendencies to engage in politicking because the means and goals of the latter often conflict with those of emotionally intelligent behavior. The conclusion here is that developing one's social influence skills is more difficult than the acquisition of other competencies of EI.

Introduction to leadership

People are captivated by the idea of leadership, and they seek more information on how to become effective leaders. Many individuals believe that leadership is a way to improve how they present themselves to others. Corporations want individuals who have leadership ability because they believe these individuals provide special assets to their organizations. Academic institutions throughout the country are creating programs in leadership studies. Generally, leadership is a highly sought after and highly valued commodity. Leadership is an important to any organization, but may be even more important to a business institution. Meyer (1997) outlined the importance of sound leadership across all levels of an organization, and noted "a proficient relationship between the leader and the led.

When examining leadership, we must also examine how it is related other constructs. The "relatively new" concept of emotional intelligence has been creating a lot of interest among employers, practitioners, employees, and academics alike.

Models and definitions of leadership

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Leaders as functioning elements of organizations are not formally nominated, selected, elected or appointed nor are they born, they are accepted and followed. Leadership is a social skill. It consists of certain attitudes and behavior (acts) towards others and a way of conducting oneself which enables a person to cause others to follow his willingly or which enables one to cause others to follow him for a common goal. The ability of a person to cause others to follow him for a goal. Sometimes followers are attracted to a leader who represents their values and aspirations, and they are willing to place themselves under the leadership of a person who can re-find and act on those values. Mahatma Gandhi was one such leader. When a group of people are working together, there is nearly always an element of uncertainty amongst them. This uncertainty prompts people to choose a leader. Leader reduces uncertainty and confusion in a group. He enables the group to keep it focus on particular goals. In the case of managerial and supervisory leadership in an Organization, the leader keeps the members of his work group focused on the objectives of the organization. A person becomes a leader by displaying certain attitudes and behaviors towards others, which one is not born with and those which can be developed through learning and deliberate practice. Those who display leadership direct other or work through people and get a particular work done by them or galvanize them into productive action or educate and evaluate them or hold the group focus on certain desired goals.

Theories of leadership have revolved around either identifying the individual traits and behaviors of successful leaders, examining the situations that can foster or inhibit effective leadership (i.e., the organizational, societal, and external environments), or examining the relationship between leaders and followers. When examining the relationship between EI and

leadership, it may be argued that the most pertinent leadership theories deal with individual leader traits and behaviors.

Trait- and Behavior-Based Model

According to the trait- and behavior-based models, specific traits are associated with effective leadership. For example, intelligence, self-confidence, need for achievement, motivation to lead, emotional stability, honesty, integrity, need for achievement have all been identified as being necessary for successful leadership performance (Greenberg et al., 2000; Johns & Saks, 2001).

Meyer (1997) argued that the factors for "which soldiers are willing to sacrifice their lives for – loyalty, team spirit, morale, trust and confidence – cannot be infused by managing" (p. 59). He noted the individual nature of subordinates, stressing the importance of individual consideration and motivation. He believed that it is the goal of the leader to encourage the subordinate's search for individual growth. Three factors are necessary to produce successful leaders: having strength of character (in terms of honesty, loyalty, courage, self-confidence, and self-sacrifice); having the requisite knowledge; and application of character and knowledge (through teaching, mentoring, setting an example, etc.; Meyer, 1997).

Within the trait literature, many researchers have examined charismatic and transformational leader characteristics. Charismatic leaders are defined as having high self-confidence and a clear vision (Shamir, Zacay, & Popper, 1998), engaging in unconventional behavior, and acting as a change agent, and still being realistic about environmental constraints (Greenberg et al., 2000).

The research on transformational leadership evolved from the charismatic literature. Transformational leaders are defined as leaders that inspire followers to transcend their own self- interests for the good of an overall vision (REF). Bass (1985) distinguished between charismatic and transformational leaders in that transformational leaders are charismatic leaders who influence followers and whose followers benefit from this influence. That is, all transformational leaders must be charismatic, although all charismatic leaders are not

necessarily transformational.

There are three key components of charismatic and transformational leadership: (1) inspirational leadership; (2) individual consideration; and (3) intellectual stimulation. Inspirational leadership involves arousal of motivational factors in terms of instilling pride, role modeling, and encouraging followers, and stimulating enthusiasm and self-confidence. For transformational leaders, this inspiration also involves influencing followers to succeed. Individual consideration involves considering followers not only at a group level, but also treating followers differently (yet all fairly) on an individual basis (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Finally, intellectual stimulation involves "the arousal and change in followers of problem awareness and problem solving, of thought and imagination, and of beliefs and values, rather than arousal and change in immediate action" (Bass, 1985, p. 99). Transformational leaders challenge followers to question the status quo (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999).

Charismatic leadership has been associated with increased organizational effectiveness (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramanian, 1996), subjective and objective performance (Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996), organizational financial performance (Howell & Avolio, 1993), subordinate ratings or effectiveness (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramanian, 1996). Similarly, transformational leadership has also been associated with higher follower attitudes, organizational commitment, and performance (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Kirkpartick& Locke, 1996), increased organizational financial performance (Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1988; Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996).

Conger & Kanungo (1994) argued that the main distinction between the charismatic and transformational leadership literature was that the charismatic literature focused on the characteristics and behaviors of the leader, whereas the transformational literature examined the impact of the leader characteristics on the followers.

However, Bass (1985) didn't make this distinction, and noted that defining a leader as charismatic or transformational depends not only on the leader, but also on the characteristics of the followers and the environment (Bass, 1985). He stated that charisma was defined solely

in terms of how followers perceive it. Moreover, Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) argued that it is important to look at both the leader characteristics and the leader-follower (i.e., leader-member exchange) perspectives simultaneously. That is, how do transformational leaders develop a relationship with their followers? EI may influence this relationship as well as how this interaction is defined.

Contingency-based Models

Contingency or situational theories of leadership are based on the premise that successful leadership depends on environmental factors (such as task clarity and the degree of challenge offered by the task, which are both related to organizational level; Johns & Saks, 2001).

Certain situations may foster the emergence of a charismatic or transformational leader: This emergence depends on factors within the organization and industry, and well as the more general historical, economic, and social circumstances (Bass, 1985). That is, transformational leaders may emerge as a reflection of social values during times of stress or change, when new leaders are sought to solve old problems and encourage organizational survival (Bass, 1985). Similarly, Donohue and Wong (1994) noted several conditions in which transformational leadership may emerge: during an acute crisis or when the organizational culture is being attacked; when a general "malaise" exists; when subordinates are disillusioned.

House's Path-Goal Theory states that the types of leader behaviors (i.e., directive, supportive, participative, and achievement oriented) are most effective in certain situations (House, 1971; House, 1996; Johns & Saks, 2001). Popper, Landau, and Gluskinso (1992) argued that leadership must be examined in the context of the organization's culture and socio-technical issues. For example, in a combat situation involving relatively simple individual tasks (e.g., working in a tank) or in combat situations involving complicated technology and instruments (e.g., a fighter plane), transformational leadership is not critical because the leader does not have any opportunity to influence the individual. However, Popper et al. (1992) argued that transformational leadership is much more critical in an infantry situation

(complicated technology and relatively simple instruments) because the leader has a greater opportunity to express his/her vision and influence the followers' motivation level and behaviors.

The Interaction of Leader and Followers

According to Hersey & Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory, effective leadership style is based on the followers' characteristics, in terms of willingness and ability to do the job (Greenberg et al., 2000). Other theories incorporate both situation and follower characteristics. For example, according to Fiedler's Contingency Theory (Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler, 1978; Fiedler & Chemers, 1974), the orientation of leadership style (i.e., relationship vs. task-oriented) used is dependent on the favorability of the situation.

The impact that leaders have on their followers is influenced by the characteristics of these followers (Lord, Brown, & Frieberg, 1999). Little research has examined how followers affect a leader's tendency toward charismatic, transformational, or transactional leadership. However, this perception of followers and follower characteristics are inherent in the definition of charismatic and transformational leadership. For example, although transformational leaders must exhibit intellectual stimulation and the leader must be seen as having high intellect, he or she must also be able to relate to his or her followers and must gauge the amount of stimulation required for particular followers (Bass, 1985). The ability of the leader to inspire belief in his or her vision is contingent upon the receptivity of the followers to the vision. This receptivity depends on the relevance of the vision (Bass, 1985).

According to the Leader-Member Exchange theory, leadership is a process focusing on the dyadic relationship between the leader and follower (Northouse, 1997). Leaders must focus on the dyadic relationship between leader and subordinate involving mutual trust, respect, and influence. A leader has different relationships with different subordinates (Graen & Wakabayashi, 1994; Greenberg et al., 2000).

In addition to examining the characteristics of and relationship between leaders and followers, it also important to look at the influence of the environment on these types of

leaders.

Task-oriented and socio-emotional leadership

This examines the interaction between task-oriented and socio-emotional leadership for two reasons. First, these two types of leadership have been the focus of tests of interaction in the leadership literature. Second, a large proportion of day-to-day organizational leadership involves behaviors that can be categorized as task-oriented behaviors (e.g. scheduling the work of followers and providing them with instructions/advice) or socio-emotional behaviors (e.g. being approachable and listening to followers) (Luthans et al., 1988; Judge et al., 2004; Komaki, 1986). Task-oriented leadership is multifaceted and encompasses a diverse range of behaviors including assigning followers to particular jobs, emphasizing deadlines, checking that followers observe rules and regulations, setting deadlines, and pressuring followers to work hard (Misumi, 1985). Thus, an important aspect of task-oriented leadership is pressure: that is, pressuring followers to work hard and to maintain quality standards by sampling their work, monitoring their performance, as well as setting and emphasizing deadlines. Pressure appears to be a ubiquitous aspect of leadership.Socio-emotional leadership comprises a wide range of behaviors including providing encouragement to followers and maintaining pleasant leader-follower relationships that are characterized by mutual trust, respect for followers' ideas, and consideration of their feeling (Bass, 1985). Socio-emotional leadership also involves treating followers fairly reducing their stress levels, expressing appreciation for their efforts (Misumi and Peterson, 1985), and supporting followers by being concerned about their welfare (House, 1971). Thus, an important aspect of socio-emotional leadership is support: that is, showing concern for the welfare of followers and expressing appreciation for their efforts. Support also appears to be a ubiquitous aspect of leadership.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Leadership can be defined as a process of influencing other people's orientation towards and achievement of goals (Greenberg, Baron, Sales, & Owens, 2000; Johns & Saks, 2001). Transformational leadership involves inspiring followers and communicating a vision.

Intuitively, it may appear logical to expect aspects of the ability-based model of EI to have important consequences for the study of leadership.

Comparison of EI abilities to leadership traits

Several of the traits and behaviors associated with effective leaders (e.g., emotional stability, self-confidence, adaptability, and tenacity) overlap with the trait-based view of EI. An integral part of impression management is managing own emotions (which requires an ability to perceive others' emotions and one's own emotions). Theoretically, an individual who is high on impression management must also be adept at managing his or her own emotions and must also be able to correctly perceive others' emotions and one's own emotions. Charismatic leaders must have "insight into the needs, values, and hopes of their followers" (Bass, 1985, p.46). This insight may be facilitated through a higher level of emotional awareness and sensitivity. Bass (1985) also claimed that charismatic leaders are great actors, because they are engaging in impression management. Charismatic leaders create, communicate, and instill commitment toward a common vision (Bass, 1985). They create emotional responses (e.g., sense of excitement) in followers. Charismatic leaders create shared norms and tend to "actively shape and enlarge audiences through their own energy, self-confidence, assertiveness, ambition, a seizing of opportunities" (Bass, 1985; p.40).

Bass (1985) noted that when focusing on their individual followers, leaders must be supportive, considerate, empathetic, caring, and must give personalized attention. These requirements may be easier for an individual high in emotional intelligence, who is able to accurately perceive and understand others' emotions, while managing his or her own emotions. Bass (1985) also recognized that in many situations military leaders are expected to be mentors and counselors to their followers. They must display developmentally-oriented behaviors (e.g., encourages delegation), conduct individual counseling, and become a mentor and role model for followers. Emotional intelligence may also help leaders understand the emotions of followers and understand how to manage his or own emotions. This emotional knowledge helps the leader become an effective mentor by modeling appropriate emotional responses. The emotional perception ability of leaders is critical to the counseling and mentoring role.

Although charismatic leadership has been associated with positive outcomes, charismatic leaders may be ineffective for several reasons. A leader may fail if he or she is unable to cope with the difficulties that s/he faces, if the leader is overly confident and unwilling to compromise his or her principles, or if the leader is cold or arrogant (Bass, 1985). Charismatic leaders who are also sensitive to their followers, who have a good understanding of their own emotions (as well as the emotions of their followers), and who are capable of managing their own emotions (i.e., having high EI) may be less likely to fail. That is, it is possible that EI moderates the relationship between charisma and leadership effectiveness. Future research must examine this issue. Moreover, charismatic leaders are not necessarily effective, and there is a potential dark side of charismatic leaders, which is evident if the number of charismatic leaders who manipulated their followers for their own gain (e.g., Adolf Hitler, Charles Manson, etc.). Some EI researchers have also suggested that an individual who was extremely high in EI may be excellent at impression management to the extent of negatively influencing people.

Mixed-model EI and leadership

Despite the view that mixed-model measures of EI do not actually assess EI, it may be worthwhile to examine these measures in conjunction with leadership. Even if these measures are not really EI, they could be very useful to organizations if they are associated with more effective leader (and organizational) performance.

The only two studies to examine EI and leadership have utilized mixed-model measures of EI. Barling, Slater, and Kelloway (2000) found that EI scores were related to subordinates' ratings of transformational leadership. Because of the large overlap of the mixed-model measures of EI and personality, the link between EI and leadership may be due solely to the shared variance with personality. Research has indicated that personality may predict effective leadership behaviors. For example, Judge and Bono (2000) found that extraversion and agreeableness uniquely predicted transformational leadership, while controlling for the effects of the other Big 5 factors. Openness to experience had a significant zero-order correlation with transformational leadership, although this relationship disappeared when the five factors were

examined jointly. Neuroticism and conscientiousness were unrelated to transformational leadership.

One of the high performance leadership competencies that Schroder and colleagues (Schroder 1997; Spangenberg, Schroder, & Duvenage, 1999) identified is Interpersonal learning. It is feasible that EI (especially the Interpersonal Skills factor of the EQ-i, Bar-On, 1997) would overlap significantly with this factor. Again, these studies on leadership competencies may reinforce the idea that certain factors of the mixed-model measures of EI are not truly EI, but are effective leader competencies. Future research should examine these issues and relate them to existing validated measures (e.g., 5-factor model of personality, self-monitoring ability, empathy, self-control, and delayed gratification).

Introduction to Conflict

Conflict is a pervasive phenomenon that permeates a multitude of organizational processes and outcomes. Its omnipresence and the importance of conflict management has been acknowledged in diverse fields including psychology, communication, organizational behavior, information systems (IS), and marketing (e.g., Deutsch 1990; Greenhalgh 1987; Pondy 1967; Pruitt and Rubin 1986; Putnam and Poole 1987; Robey et al. 1989; Thomas 1976, 1992b; Wall and Callister 1995 .Numerous symptoms of conflict have been identified including hostility and jealousy (e.g., Smith and McKeen 1992), poor communication (e.g., Franz and Robey 1984), a proliferation of technical rules,norms, and regulations (e.g., Franz and Robey 1984), and frustration and low morale (e.g., Glasser 1981). As Smith and McKeen noted:

" ...conflict is a very *real part of corporate life and a major obstacle to effective* computerization... conflict appears between IS and almost all other departments in a wide variety of contexts.. ..Lack of trust and under- standing, hostility, and frustration with the other group are typical of these conflict relationships and these symptoms were evident between business managers and other personnel (p. 55)."

To provide a context within which to view the study, we first present a general framework of interpersonal conflict based on a review of the general conflict literature (e.g.,

Pondy 1967; Pruitt and Rubin 1986; Putnam and Poole 1987; Thomas 1976, 1992b; Wall and Callister 1995). Although vast, the interpersonal conflict literature shares a general structure whereby conflict is seen as a cycle (Wall and Callister 1995): As with any social process, there are causes; also, there is a core process, which has results or effects. These effects feed back to effect the causes (p. 516).

The level of interpersonal conflict that exists depends in part on the contextual antecedents and in part on the conflict management styles employed by the individuals on the project team. Similarly, the styles individuals employ depend in part on the' contextual antecedents and in part on the level of interpersonal conflict present. In other words, individuals select different conflict management styles depending on the level of interpersonal conflict they perceive. As such, conflict is seen as a process whereby interpersonal conflict and management style affect one another. Finally, the interpersonal conflict and style of conflict management will each affect a variety of individual, team, project, and organizational outcomes.

Definitions and Properties of Interpersonal Conflict

The term conflict has been employed in different ways reflecting the different levels at which various conflicts exist (Deutsch 1990; Thomas 1992a). Thomas (1992a) noted two broad uses of the term. The first refers to incompatible response tendencies within an individual, e.g., behavioral conflicts where one must choose whether or not to pursue a particular course of action, or role conflict where one must choose between several competing sets of role demands. The second use refers to conflicts that occur between different individuals, groups, organizations, or other social units; hence, the terms interpersonal, inter-group, inter-organizational, and international conflict.

Here, we focus on this second use, and in particular, on interpersonal conflict which has been defined in many different ways (Thomas 1992a; Wall and Callister 1995). Some examples include: Content-oriented differences of opinion that occur in interdependent relationships and can develop into incompatible goals and interests (Putnam and Wilson 1982, p. 633); an

expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards, and interference from the other party in achieving their goals (Hocker and Wilmot 1985, p. 23); the process that begins when one party perceives that the other has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect something that he or she cares about (Thomas 1992a, p. 653) and a process in which one party perceives that its interests are being opposed or negatively affected by another party (Wall and Callister 1995, p. 517).

In a synthesis of the numerous conceptualizations and definitions of conflict, Putnam and Poole (1987) and Thomas (1992a, 1992b) identified three general themes or properties: interdependence, disagreement, and interference. **Interdependence** exists when each party's attainment of their goals depends, at least in part, on the actions of the other party. Without Interdependence, the actions of each party have no impact on the outcomes of the other party. In essence, interdependence represents a key structural pre-condition of any conflict situation, providing an interpersonal context in which conflicts may arise. However, while many individuals or groups are in interdependent relation- ships with others, not all will experience conflict. Thus, interdependence is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for conflicts to occur. **Disagreement** exists when parties think that a divergence of values, needs, interests, opinions, goals, or objectives exists. As such, disagreement represents the key cognitive component of inter- personal conflict. Again, however, disagreement is not, by itself, sufficient for conflict to emerge. Disagreeing parties will not experience conflict when, for example, the areas of disagreement are irrelevant or unimportant (e.g., when there is no interdependence, or when the areas of disagreement are minor). **Interference** exists when one or more of the parties interferes with or opposes the other party's attainment of its interests, objectives, or goals. Interference thus represents the central behavioral characteristic of any conflict. Indeed, many researchers believe that the core process of interpersonal conflict is the behavior where one or more disputants oppose their counterpart's interests or goals (Wall and Callister 1995). Researchers have also shown the importance of incorporating negative emotion into conceptualizations of conflict, reflecting such feelings as jealousy, anger, anxiety, or frustration (Amason 1996; Jehn 1995; Pinkley 1990; Pondy 1967; Thomas 1992a, 1992b). These emotions are thought to emerge when there are major disagreements, or when parties interfere with the

attainment of each others' important goals. Thus, a fourth property, negative emotion, can also be added.

A good definition of interpersonal conflict needs to incorporate all of its definitional properties. Thus, the present study defines interpersonal conflict as a phenomenon that occurs between interdependent parties as they experience negative emotional reactions to perceived disagreements and interference with the attainment of their goals. Together, these perceptions span situational. (Interdependence), cognitive (disagreement), behavioral (interference), and affective (negative emotion) elements of conflict situations.

When individuals involved in any task disagree and act solely with their own interests in mind, their actions are likely to interfere with other parties' interests or goals (Robey et al. 1989) in the form of foot dragging (Newman and Sabherwal 1989), political maneuvering (Markus 1983), steam rolling (Hirschheim and Newman 1991), or a proliferation of technical rules, norms, and regulations (Franz and Robey 1984). Finally, largely as a result of such actions, frustration, hostility, anger, and distrust can emerge (Glasser 1981; Smith and McKeen 1992).

The Assessment of Interpersonal Conflict and Conflict Management Styles

Past research assessing interpersonal conflict can be classified into two groups. One group assessed styles of conflict management (e.g., Blake and Mouton 1964; Kilmann and Thomas 1977; Putnam and Wilson 1982; Rahim 1983). However, note that while potentially related, conflict management style is conceptually distinct from level of interpersonal conflict. The second group of studies directly assessed level of interpersonal conflict (e.g., Amason 1996; Barki and Hartwick 1994b; Brown and Day 1981; Etgar 1979; Habib 1987; Jehn 1995; Robey et al. 1989). At least two shortcomings of these latter studies can be identified. Many assessed interpersonal conflict with a small number of items, typically using items that looked only at perceptions of overall conflict (e.g., Barki and Hartwick 1994b; Robey et al. 1989). Such assessments are useful but do not provide an in-depth look at the underpinnings of the construct. On the other hand, studies assessing conflict in greater depth have not captured all of its definitional properties. While some assessed both disagreement and negative emotion

(e.g., Amason 1996; Jehn 1995), most assessed only disagreement (e.g., Brown and Day 1981; Habib 1987), and few have assessed interference (for an exception, see Etgar 1979). Given the central role conflict researchers ascribe to interference (Wall and Callister 1995), neglecting its assessment from assessments of interpersonal conflict seems to be a serious omission. The present study views interdependence, disagreement, interference, and negative emotion as dimensional indicators of interpersonal conflict.

Within the conflict domain, considerable effort has been expended to examine the management and resolution of conflicts, identifying a number of conflict management styles and their role in achieving satisfactory outcomes (cf., Blake and Mouton 1964; Pruitt and Rubin 1986; Putnam and Poole 1987; Thomas 1976, 1992b; Wall and Callister 1995). Several measures assessing styles of conflict management have also been developed (e.g., Kilmann and Thomas 1977; Putnam and Wilson 1982; Rahim 1983).Traditionally, researchers have identified five different modes or styles of behavior, often labeled as: asserting, accommodating, compromising, problem-solving, and avoiding. These styles are seen as general strategies or behavioral orientations individuals adopt when dealing with conflicts.

Asserting occurs as individuals strive to win or prevail. Conflict is seen as a fixed pie, zero sum situation, with one party's gains coming at the expense of the others' (in the case of goal conflicts), or with one party's accuracy or correctness occurring as others are found to be inaccurate or r incorrect (in the case of judgment or decision conflicts). Conflict, therefore, is considered a win- lose situation. Alternative labels for this style include competing, dominating, and forcing.

Like asserting, **accommodating** also views conflict as a fixed pie, zero sum situation and occurs when individuals sacrifice their own needs and desires in order to satisfy those of other parties. . This occurs as individuals oblige or yield to others' positions, or cooperate in an attempt to smooth over conflicts. Alternative labels for this style include cooperating, obliging, yielding, and sacrificing.

Compromising is a third style that views conflict as a fixed pie, zero sum situations. However, com- promising frequently splits the difference or involves give and take behaviors where each party wins some and loses some. Alternative labels include sharing and splitting the difference.

Problem-solving occurs when individuals in conflict try to fully satisfy the concerns of all parties. Here, conflict is not seen as a fixed pie, zero sum situations, as was the case for the first three styles. Instead, actions are aimed at expanding the pie so that all parties can achieve their goals and objectives. Similarly, judgments and decisions are not seen as right or wrong. Instead, a synthesis is sought, integrating all parties' perspectives. Hence, the term win-win solution. Alternative labels of this style include integrating, cooperating, and collaborating.

Finally, **avoiding** occurs when individuals are indifferent to the concerns of either party or refuse to act or participate in conflict. Here, one withdraws, physically or psychologically, abdicating all responsibility for the solution. Alternative labels for this style include withdrawing, evading, escaping, and apathy.

The theory of Blake and Mouton (1964) is based on the dual concern model that conflict is managed in different ways (namely withdrawing, smoothing, forcing, problem solving, compromising) based on high/low concern for production and high/low concern for people. Thomas (1976) extended this model by focusing on the desire to satisfy your own concerns and the desire to satisfy the other's concerns. Based on Blake and Mouton (1964) and Thomas (1976), Rahim and ve Bonoma (1979) differentiated the styles of handling conflict in two dimensions. The dual concern model shows conflict behavior to focus on whether a person has high or low concern for one's own outcomes or high or low concern for the other's outcomes. Five different styles of conflict management are involved in crossing these two dimensions:

(1) Integrating;

(2) Obliging;

(3) Dominating;

(4) Avoiding; and

(5) Compromising.

Integrating style, high concern for self and the others, is characterized by a willingness to exchange information openly, to address differences constructively, and to make every effort to pursue a solution that will be mutually acceptable (Rahim, 1992). This style is the most desired one because it is most likely to yield a win-win solution, especially in a situation identified with long-term dependency on the other party. (Aycan et al., 2000; Pruitt and Carnevale, 1993). Additionally, this style also reduces the level of task conflict and relationship conflict (Friedman et al., 2000). Dealing with complex problems requires the use of an integrative style. Utilizing the skills, information and resources possessed by different parties helps to redefine and formulate problems and find alternative solutions (Rahim, 2002).

Obliging style, low concern for self and high concern for others, focuses on protecting and maintaining relationships rather than pursuing an outcome that meets the individual's own concerns. When the other party is right and the issue of conflict is much more important to the other party, it makes more sense to use an obliging style. When a party has a weak position and believes that giving up the conflict will engender more beneficial outcomes, it is reasonable to use this style (Rahim, 2002). Also, some conditions – like time pressure – may be the reason for adopting an obliging style (Rubin, 1994).

Dominating style, labeled as "competing" is identified as a win-lose strategy. Ignoring the needs and expectations of the other party and pursuing one's own interests through the use of forceful tactics is suitable, when the conflict issues involve routine matters or require speedy decision-making (Rahim, 2002). Avoiding style results from having little concern for either one's own or the other's interests. When the issue of conflict is important and requires taking on the responsibility of quick decision-making, withdrawing from conflict could generate harmful outcomes for the party (Rahim, 2002).

Compromising style reflects a moderate concern for one's own interests and a moderate concern for the other's interests. An outcome that is mutually acceptable for both sides is a desirable strategy to solve conflict. This style involves give and take. When both

parties have equal power and consensus cannot be reached, it makes sense to use this style. The most important point in using this style is that it generates failure in identifying real, complex problems (Rahim, 2002).

There has been considerable debate about whether conflict management styles are dispositional or situational (Friedman et al., 2000). For example, the findings of Antonioni (1998), indicated that there is a strong relationship between Big Five personality factors and the styles of conflict management. On the other hand, Goodwin (2002) found that auditors resolve conflicts according to the nature and seriousness of the conflict issue. Also, recent research findings suggest that styles are partly dispositional and partly situational (Rahim et al., 2001; Graziano et al., 1996). Beyond all these arguments, there is a great need to understand what is universal and culture specific about conflict management theory. Conflict is inevitable in all cultures, but every culture has its own way to struggle with conflict (Brett, 2000; Chiu and Kosinski, 1994). As a culturally bound event, conflict management is affected by cultural values.

The concept of individualism and collectivism provides one means of distinguishing broad differences in cultural values (Hofstede, 1980). People from individualistic cultures tend to be concerned with individual images, task ccomplishment, and individual goals relative to the group's interests; they also tend to exhibit more self-face-saving conflict styles, such as dominating. On the other hand, people from collectivistic cultures tend to see themselves as part of the group, place the group's goals over the individual's goals, and focus on maintaining harmony.

From a review of extant literature, it is apparent that many studies have revealed individualists tend to prefer confrontational and competing conflict management styles, whereas collectivists appear to prefer harmony-enhancing conflict management styles (Ting-Toomey et al., 1991, 2000; Morris et al., 1998; Wang et al., 2007). Individualistic cultures prefer to use forcing, rather than collectivist cultures. On the other hand, collectivist cultures choose withdrawing, compromising and problem solving Rahim, 1983; Holt and DeVore, 2005; Kozan and Ergin, 1999).

When we analyzed the extant literature in this context, we were confronted with many studies. For example, Thai participants indicated a greater preference for avoiding and obliging styles of conflict management than the American participants did. Furthermore, the study showed that, the longer the time Thais spent in other cultures, the more they reported using a dominating style, and the less they reported relying on avoiding and obliging styles (Boonsathorn, 2007). According to Kagan et al. (1982), Mexicans (as a collectivist) reported using withdrawing and smoothing more than European Americans, who chose more active, confrontational styles, such as forcing and problem solving. Also, Cai and Fink (2002) found that avoiding was preferred by individualists rather than collectivists. Individualists did not differ from collectivists in their preference for the dominating conflict style, but prefer compromising and integrating more than individualists do, whereas individualism-collectivism had no significant linear effect on preference for the obliging style. Elsayed-Ekhouly and Buda (1996) found Middle Eastern executives to display more integrating and avoiding, while US executives used more obliging, dominating and compromising styles. The results suggest that persons with a tendency for independence choose direct, whereas persons with a tendency for interdependence seem to prefer indirect conflict behaviors.

Kozan (1989, 2002) found that hierarchy played a significant role in impacting conflict management styles. Overall, the tendency was to be more accommodative towards one's superiors (respect for authority); suppressing/and or avoiding competition between peers (focus on collectivism and group harmony); and imposing solutions on subordinates (analogous to a parent-child relationship). In group-oriented cultures, a "third party" would be used frequently in resolving most conflicts to maintain harmony in organizations (Kozan et al., 2007). Especially, in mediational third party strategy, leaders seem to use their power position not only to manage the process, but also to solve the conflict (Kozan and Alter, 1994). Managers and colleagues are involved in resolving conflicts unrelated to them in order to preserve group solidarity in organizations. In a study conducted with 435 Turkish respondents, Ergin (2000) reported that a third party was involved in more than 65 percent of conflicts in organizations. While individuals in other parts of the world would remain passive in situations unrelated to them, managers and colleagues are expected to get actively involved in resolving

disagreements among others. The behaviors and styles of colleagues and superiors in conflict resolution ranged from giving advice to making a final decision in an authoritarian manner (Kabasakal and Bodur, 1998b).

Models of Conflict Resolution

March and Simon (1993) define conflict as "a breakdown in the standard mechanisms of Decision-making so that an individual or group experiences difficulty in selecting an action alternative" (p. 132).Individuals in conflict may either continue to problem solve, elect to do nothing or seek the involvement of a third party to assist in conflict resolution. Four models for conflict resolution have evolved within education and are commonly referred to as the professional, bureaucratic, legal, and mediation models (Neal and Kirp, 1985; Goldberg and Kuriloff, 1987).

Professional model

Conflict resolution within public education has traditionally followed the professional model. The professional model recognizes the expertise of educational professionals (school administrators and teachers) and defers the resolution of disputes to those individuals specifically trained within the profession. Similar to the practice of law and medicine, public education has traditionally been managed by the professionals trained within the discipline. The professional model emphasizes professional discretion and decision-making rather than strict adherence to rules. The recipient of services, be it medical treatment, legal representation or education services has little input into the decision regarding the service to be provided. Disputes concerning the services provided to an individual are typically addressed through a limited peer review process. A judgment regarding the appropriate provision of services is made by the peer review panel based upon the panel's determination of whether or not the provider had adhered to the profession's accepted *standards of care*. Within the professional model, the recipient of services is generally passive, deferring to the expertise of the professionals (Neal and Kirp, 1985)

Bureaucratic model

The bureaucratic model is typical of federal or state programs that grant benefits to individuals (e.g. food stamps, public assistance, and social security). Employees of state and federal agencies that manage these programs have significant involvement in the development of eligibility standards, the specification of allowable services and the determination of the allowable provision or limitations upon appropriate services. Administrators of programs that operate under the bureaucratic model are expected to defer to regulatory standards and have much less discretion in determining eligibility, allowable services, etc., than within the professional model. Within the bureaucratic model, the recipient of services is granted limited procedural rights to challenge the decision of the person who administers the program. These rights are typically limited to an appeal to a higher level of authority within the organization and a showing that the decision was "arbitrary, capricious or otherwise a violation of the program's standards" (Maine Administrative Procedures Act, Title V, M.R.S.A. Part 10000 et seq.).

Legal Model

Neal and Kirp (1985, pp. 65-67) characterized the legal model as "fairly new to policy making in the United States" but none the less "a style close to the mainstream of American social and political culture." The legal model focuses on the "individual as the bearer of rights...(who can) best safeguard their own interests" and "the use of legal concepts and court like procedures to enforce and protect rights." The legal model is based upon a mistrust of the traditional bureaucratic model and its focus on top-down management, decision-making based upon the benefit to the organization, and "norms of fairness using statistical tests across classes of affected people" (p. 65).

The professional and the bureaucratic models grant limited rights to recipients of services who challenge administrative decisions. The bureaucratic model determines agency compliance through the application of procedural rights and generally accepted norms to specific groups of individuals. The legal model, with its adoption of *court-like procedures*, *individual rights*, and *entitlements*, shifts the focus of agency compliance to the provision of a substantive right to the individual, based upon the individual's unique needs. For example, under the bureaucratic model, while parents may request that a building principal review the

placement of their child in Mr. Smith's third grade classroom, the parents have no substantive right to challenge the principal's decision. In contrast, under the legal model, parents of a student with disabilities may challenge a school's administrative decision refusing to provide a full time sign language interpreter to a child who is deaf all the way to the U.S. Supreme Court (Board of Education v. Rowley, 1982).

Alternative Dispute Resolution / Mediation Model

Mediation is the fourth conflict resolution model. Mediation is a non-adversarial conflict resolution process that encourages joint problem solving, assists both parties to identify alternative solutions to their problem, and promotes effective communication between parents and schools. While both the complaint process and the hearing process typically result in a win / lose relationship between the parties, the mediation process, if successful, typically results in a win / win relationship through the development of a mutual agreeable solution (Goldberg and Huefner, 1995).

Methods of Dealing with Conflict

People and groups, may use several different methods of dealing with controversy. Some methods focus on preserving the relationship and resolving the issue, while others tend to have negative results (Griffin, 1989; Lindgren, 1990; Fisher, Roger & William, 1991).

Avoidance

Some people attempt to avoid conflict situations altogether or to avoid certain types of conflict. These people tend to repress emotional reactions, look the other way, or leave the situation entirely (for example, quit a job, leave school, get divorced). Either they cannot face up to such situations effectively, or they do not have the skills to negotiate them effectively.

Avoidance strategies usually do not provide persons with a high level of satisfaction. They tend to leave doubts and fears about meeting the same type of situation in the future.

Diffusion

Diffusion strategies are delaying actions which try to cool off the situation, at least temporarily. Examples include: resolving minor points while delaying discussion of the major problem, postponing a confrontation until a more appropriate time, and avoiding clarification of the issues underlying the conflict. Similar to avoidance strategies, these tactics typically result in feelings of dissatisfaction, anxiety about the future, and concerns about oneself.

Confrontation

The third major strategy involves an actual confrontation of conflicting issues or persons. Confrontation can be divided into win/lose (power) strategies and win/win strategies. Power strategies include the use of physical force (a punch in the nose, war), bribery (money, favors) and punishment (withholding love, money). Such tactics are often very successful from the winners' point of view: they win, the others lose. A closer look at the power struggle suggests that it is probably not this simple. All win/lose strategies suffer from the "conflict trap." The loser has been given justification in her or his own mind for reversing the situation "next time." As a, result, win/lose strategies, particularly the power strategy, are as much conflict generators as conflict resolvers. The feelings of the loser are the seed from which the next round of conflict will likely grow.

Arbitration

Arbitration is often the result of a fight strategy. When both sides in the fight are equally powerful and have equal rights, a stalemate begins, and a third party may be asked to decide the issue. The problem with this strategy is that when the third party or judge decides between the conflicting parties, the loser seldom feels that justice has been done. The issue has been decided, but the hostility carries over and becomes a cause for renewed conflict.

Voting

Voting is a civilized form of fighting. A vote, rather than an open fight, is possible when the following conditions are present

- It is possible for participants in a conflict to change their position on the issue if they are convinced (election campaign).
- There are beliefs and commitments to principles or to an organization which holds the parties together in a continuing relationship (democracy).
- The participants will generally abide by the preference of the majority.

Compromise

Compromise strategies use negotiation and bargaining in order to "split the difference." The premise behind compromise is that partial victory is better than winning nothing at all. Ideally, in a compromise each side gives up something of lesser value in order to achieve or retain a great goal. Compromise in this context is a form of negotiation. It does not involve giving up one's principles or values. Compromise, at its best, turns into consensus -a win-win result.

Consensus

Consensus seeks to bring all parties in the conflict to a mutually satisfying resolution of the issue. Consensus is possible in an atmosphere where better answers and solutions are likely to emerge from differences. This is often called problem solving, based on common interests (Fisher, Roger & William, 1991).

Synergy

Synergy is the highest form of conflict resolution. Imagine a ping-pong game in which your objective is, as a player, to return the ball in a way to maximize the probability that your opponent will hit the increasingly difficult shots successfully. This reverses the win/lose strategy.

The competition is invigorating, when it is used to increase mutual winning. The better each play, the more both win...and the more both enjoy it. Synergistic thinking encourages us to use the mind, resources and values of others to enlarge the amount of winnings.

In a win-win strategy, unlike power confrontations, both sides can win. The aim of these strategies is to resolve the conflict with a solution which is mutually satisfying to all parties involved in the conflict.

In the present study, we examined the correlation between sub-scales- self awareness, self management, Social awareness and social skills of emotional intelligence and five styles- problem-solving, asserting, avoiding, compromising and accommodating of handling conflict. The statistical results for internal consistency of the present study indicate that the alpha values for five dimensions of EI and the five conflict management styles are ranging from 0.66 to 0.85.

Why Does Conflict Occur?

Some conflict is inevitable in human relationships. Often clashes occur more over perceived differences than real ones. People anticipate blocks to achieving their goals that may or may not be there (Dunn, 1986; Robinson, 1974). Conflict often results from:

- A lack of communication. Failure to share ideas and feelings allows the other person to "fill in the gap." We "read in" what we think the other person or persons will say, or anticipate how they will respond. Then, we often suspect negative things which provoke anxiety-leading us to look for the worst. If this continues, trust becomes lower and we may become suspicious and defensive.

- A value conflict in which two people have different attitudes, beliefs and expectations. These differences may interfere in making decisions if we are inflexible and hold rigid beliefs about the "right way" to do things. Two people choose different goals or different methods to achieve the same goals because they have different values and beliefs. Since each goal requires an investment of time, effort and some sacrifice, we often cannot pursue one goal without sacrificing the other to some extent.

- A lack of effective leadership or decision-making. Lack of agreement about "who's in charge" or "how we are going to get things done" in any situation can be a source of conflict. For example, if one person in a group expects democratic decision-making (all members have input) and the other expects someone to be in charge and tell the members what to do, they may have difficulty resolving differences of opinion. Then when differences exist, members become sidetracked into a hassle over who will decide or whose opinion is going to be accepted as the "right" one, or what the decision-making processes should be. The resulting conflict becomes a "win-lose" struggle.

- Discrepancies in role expectations. Difficulties can arise if people see their own and each others' roles differently. For example, if the officers see their role as "running the organization," and the members see themselves as not only contributing information and opinions, but also having a real voice in decisions, conflict may arise.

- Low productivity. Being able to accomplish tasks and achieve goals is a necessary ingredient in the organizational environment. And, if the task is not done, the chairperson may get angry. If the other person responds to this anger by performing the task, a response pattern of anger is established to get results.

- Groups with low productivity may use nagging, making trade-offs (I'll do this if you do that), and criticizing, but these tend to produce only short-term success. .Change that causes disequilibrium. While change is considered to be a "given" for people working and living together, another "given" is that people tend to prefer secure, predictable patterned responses to the unknown. When changes occur abruptly and unpredictably, conflict may follow.

- Unresolved prior conflict. As the number of past unresolved conflicts increases between people, so does the possibility of future ones. Many people shy away from conflict management because memories of past conflicts still hurt. Probably the most lasting of those "scars" have been caused by conflicts with those we are closest to -family, close friends and trusted colleagues in volunteer or work groups.

Emotional Intelligence and Conflict management styles

The integrating style has been considered a valuable way to manage interactions with other individuals in conflict situations, facilitating proper resolution of conflict and producing more productive results (Gross and Guerrero, 2000). For example, the integrating and compromising styles were the styles most frequently used by Korean respondents when they faced conflicts (Ting-Toomey et al., 1991; Cho and Park, 1998). Scholars have noted that EI plays an important role in resolving conflict functionally (Borisoff and Victor, 1998; Jordan and Troth, 2002, 2004). Jordan and Troth (2004, p. 196) argued that "the ability to be aware of and manage emotions is also thought to facilitate functional than dysfunctional, conflict resolution and consequently contribute to better team performance". Emotionally intelligent people have the ability to better manage and regulate their own emotions and the emotions of others (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Davies et al., 1998; Ng et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 2008). In addition, emotionally intelligent people are those who consider their own emotions and the emotions of others as a basis in framing their relationships with other people (Mayer and Salovey, 1993, 1997).

This characteristic might generate the empathy (Mayer et al., 1999; Schute et al., 2001) that encourages individuals to consider other interests when they want to solve conflicts. Moreover, this empathy can lead people to be altruistic (Singer and Fehr, 2005; Declerck and Bogaert, 2008), cognizant of the existence of other people' needs (Kamdar et al., 2006) and more skillful in anticipating what other people will behave and act (Singer and Fehr, 2005; Declerck and Bogaert, 2008). With these characteristics, emotionally intelligent people may regard other people's needs and interests in solving conflict. Thus, a win-win solution produced by integrating and compromising styles may become a priority in resolving the conflicts among individuals in order to satisfy everyone's interests.

In addition, emotionally intelligent people are more like to select integrating and compromising styles because those styles may have more beneficial outcomes in terms of the efficacy and suitability (Gross and Guerrero, 2000). This idea departs from the notion that "the whole point of emotion was to alert us to danger or to opportunity and to focus our cognitive

processing upon it" (Andrade and May, 2004, p. 216). This may lead to the signal that emotionally intelligent people may have abilities to plainly think and focus on more advantageous styles of handling interpersonal conflicts as those will benefit for them. As integrating and compromising styles have positive effects on conflict resolution (Hocker and Wilmot, 1998; Gross and Guerrero, 2000), we expect that the integrating and comprising styles may become a preference for a person high in EI in solving conflicts.

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Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A Review of the literature is exactly that – a review, synthesis, or summary of literature on a research problem. A literature review is usually a highly synthesized critique of the status of knowledge on a carefully defined educational topic. Although the field of research on EI has broadened over the last decade. Furthermore, personality theories and models have been around for quite some time in mainstream psychology but have been poorly understood or defined until recently. Very few studies have been conducted on the connections between EI and leadership and conflict management particularly in Indian context. This review of literature includes (1) a framework for the context of the problem, (2) current understanding and research in the field of EI as related to the workplace, (3) connections between EI and leadership, (4) connections between EI and leadership, and (5) the value of this study.

Context of the problem

Despite the recent popularity of EI, there has yet to be a standard and universally-accepted definition. In the present research literature many models classified in two categories namely ability model and trait or mixed models are present. The EI models of Goleman and Bar-On are often referred to as mixed models. Salovey and Mayer (1993) are credited with the

development of a model of EI that is separated from personality traits and focuses strictly on mental abilities. Such mental abilities include perception and expression of emotion, assimilation of emotion, analyzing emotions, and emotional regulation (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000b). They argue that separating personality dispositions from emotional abilities would allow them to analyze EI to the degree it independently contributed to a person's behavior overall life competence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997 b). The adoption of this definition of EI allows it to be viewed as a true intelligence that meets three empirical criteria. First, an ability-based model allows for right and wrong answers to emotional challenges. Second, mental abilities are measurable and can be correlated to other mental abilities. Third, absolute mental ability level tends to increase with age (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000b). The Mayer and Salovey model is built around four levels of EI, and each level contains a number of discrete emotional abilities. These levels are:

1. **Perception and expression of emotion** This level is the most basic and involves the identification and expression of emotions in one's physical states, feelings, and thought in addition to recognizing emotional expression in other people.
2. **Assimilating emotion in thought** The ability allows people to weigh emotions against one another and allows emotion to direct and prioritize attention. At this level, emotions also aid in memorization by tying specific emotions with specific events.
3. **Understanding and analyzing emotion** This level addresses how people are able to label emotions, recognize why they occur, and how to reason with the complexity of emotions and simultaneous feelings. In addition, there is an ability to understand relationships associated with shifts of emotion.
4. **Reflective regulation of emotion** The highest level of EI, this level deals with the ability to stay open to feelings and reflectively monitor and regulate emotions that promote emotional and intellectual growth. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997 b, p. 11)

Largely due to the competing models of EI (mixed models developed by Goleman & Bar-On and the ability-based model developed by Mayer & Salovey), the key issue quickly becomes what part, if any, does personality play in predicting outcomes? For instance, Goleman (1995)

referred to a study of Bell Laboratory engineers in which the top performers had a greater EI despite have the same IQ as lower performing engineers. This seems to be a great claim in support of EI being a predictor of success. Goleman also states that if IQ predicts 20% of personal success, then EI can fill the 80% gap. However, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000b) argue such extravagant claims "appear to fly in the face of our existing research base" (p. 104).

Due to a large overlap between personality types and EI in Goleman and Bar-On's model, it is necessary to differentiate between the two in order to determine which factor has a greater influence in predicting success. In this case, success is defined by the principal's ability to effectively implement and lead professional learning communities within his or her campus.

Current research on emotional intelligence

Since the publication of the bestselling book *Emotional Intelligence by* Daniel Goleman (1995), the topic of emotional intelligence has witnessed unparalleled interest. Programmes seeking to increase emotional intelligence have been implemented in numerous settings and courses on developing emotional intelligence have been introduced in universities and schools. But what exactly is emotional intelligence? As in the case with all constructs several schools of thought exist which aim to mock accurately describes and measure the notion of emotional intelligence. At the most general level, emotional intelligence refers to recognize and regulate emotions in ourselves and others (Goleman, 2001). Peter Solvey and John Mayer, initially defined emotional intelligence as:

A form of intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Later the definition was revised and was thus defined as *The ability to perceive emotion integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth (Mayer & Solvey, 1997)*

Another prominent researcher of the emotional intelligence construct is Reuven Bar-On, the originator of the term "emotional quotient". Possessing a slightly different outlook, he defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with understanding oneself and others,

relating to people, and adapting to coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environment demands (Bar-On, 1997).Regardless of the discrepancies between definitions of emotional intelligence, it is clear that what is being referred to is distinct from standard intelligence, or I.Q.

Emotional intelligence and social intelligence

The concept of general intelligence has its roots in educational research and research on individual differences which began at the close of the 19th century(Gardner, Krevevsky, Stenberg, & Okagaki,1994).Since this early research, the concept of intelligence has been exploded into many other facets and perspectives, including practical intelligence(Stenberg,1985). Thorndike was one of the first scientist to explore the idea of multiple intelligences stating "that man has not someone amount of one kind of intelligence, but varying amounts of different intelligences"(Thorndike, 1920,p. 228). Mechanical, social and abstract intelligence were identified as being for "ordinary practical purposes", the three major intelligences (Thorndike, 1920).

The research by Sternberg (1985) demonstrates; in support of Thorndike's earlier work that social intelligence is distinct from academic abilities and helps equip people to do well in the practicalities of everyday living. From these practical perspectives, one of the hallmarks of a positron of leadership is a people orientation in a social interaction domain. At lower, non-management levels of the organizational hierarchy, production or tactical skills can create successful work experiences. These tactical skills are typically not sufficient in top leadership positions where deliberation, information gathering, and decision making take place within a social framework (House & Baetz, 1979).The importance of the social aspects of management have been recognized for the first-line supervisory level and continue into top management (Kaye & Jordan-Evans,1999). Given the importance of the social aspects of leadership capacity, it is relevant to differentiate between the social intelligence and emotional intelligence constructs.

For Thorndike (1920), the concept of social intelligence included the ability to perform with wisdom in human relations and an ability to understand others. His definition encompassed both an ability to actively cope with others and an inactive perception or cognitive appreciation for others (Walker & Foley, 1973). Zirkwl (2000) suggests that central to the "social intelligence perspective is that people are reflective, thinking beings and their behavior can be understood in terms of the ways that they actively seek to engage in their social environment and pursue desired outcome in the important domains of their lives" (p. 3). According to Zirkel, social intelligence assumes that behavior is purposive and strategic, people are active rather than passive participants, behavior is contextual and development, and that a premium is placed on cognition, as people are both imaginative and creative in their efforts at adaptation.

Definition of social intelligence falls into two categories: Social cognitive and social behavioral skills (Walker & Foley, 1973). Social cognitive skills include the ability to decode social information, social knowledge, social memory and the ability to make accurate social inferences. When defined as a "cognitive" measure, there appears to be a relatively clear distinction between social intelligence measures and the big five personality dimensions with correlation and factor analyses data in support of separateness (Buffer, 1997). The social behavioral skills include the ability to respond adaptively and to perform effectively in social situations. These social behavioral skills appear to present considerable overlap with both the ability and mixed model emotional intelligence theoretical approaches.

The construct of social intelligence has been closely aligned with the construct of emotional intelligence. Mayer et al. (2000a) believe emotional intelligence to be a broader construct than social intelligence, including the identification and expression of internal, private emotions, thoughts, and physical states important for personal growth. From another point of view, emotional intelligence can also be viewed as more focused than social intelligence pertaining more specifically to the emotional aspects of problems rather than social or political aspects.

Researchers have suggested a theoretical overlap between social and emotional

intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Some have concluded that emotional intelligence was subsumed under the social intelligence construct and added no variance beyond the later (Kobe, Reiter-Palmon, & Rickers, 2001).

Each theoretical paradigm conceptualizes emotional intelligence from one of two perspectives: ability or mixed model. Ability models regard emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability and thus as a pure intelligence. In contrast, mixed models of emotional intelligence combine mental ability with personality characteristics such as optimism and well-being (Mayer, 1999). Currently, the only ability model of emotional intelligence is that proposed by John Mayer and Peter Salovey. Two mixed models of emotional intelligence have been proposed, each within a somewhat different conception. Reuven Bar-On has put forth a model based within the context of personality theory, emphasizing the co-dependence of the ability aspects of emotional intelligence with personality traits and their application to personal well-being. In contrast, Daniel Goleman proposed a mixed model in terms of performance, integrating an individual's abilities and personality and applying their corresponding effects on performance in the workplace (Goleman, 2001).

Salovey and Mayer: An Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence

Peter Salovey and John Mayer first coined the term "emotional intelligence" in 1990 and have since continued to conduct research on the significant of the construct. Their pure theory of emotional intelligence integrates key ideas from the fields of intelligence and emotion. From intelligence theory comes the idea that intelligence involves the capacity to carry out abstract reasoning. From emotion research comes the notion that emotions are signals that convey regular and discernable meanings about relationships and that at a number of basic emotions are universal (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). They propose that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. They then posit that this ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviors (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

Mayer and Salovey's conception of emotional intelligence is based within a model of

intelligence , that is , it strives to define emotional intelligence within the confine of the standard criteria for a new intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios,2003).It proposes that emotional intelligence is comprises of two areas : experiential and strategic. Each area is further divided into two branches that range from basic psychological processes to more complex processes integrating emotion and cognition. The first branch, Emotional perception, is the ability to be self-aware of emotions and to express emotions and emotional needs accurately to others. Emotional perception also includes the ability to distinguish between honest and dishonest expression of emotion. The second branch, emotional assimilation, is the ability to distinguish among the different emotions one is feeling and to identify those that are influencing their thought processes.

The third branch, Emotional understanding, is the ability to understand complex emotions and the ability to recognize transitions from one to the other, lastly , the fourth branch, Emotional Management, is the ability to connect or disconnect from an emotion depending on its usefulness in a given situation(Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

Mayer and Salovey began testing the validity of their four branch model of emotional intelligence with the Multibranch Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). Composed of 12 subscale measures of emotional intelligence, evaluations with the MEIS indicate that emotional intelligence is a distinct intelligence with 3 separate sub factors : emotional perception, emotional understanding, and emotional management. The MEIS scale found only limited evidence for the branch of emotional intelligence related to integrating emotions. There were, however, certain limitations to the MEIS , not only it was a lengthy test consisting of 402 items , but it also failed to provide satisfactory evidence for the integration branch of the Four Branch Model (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). For these reason a new measure was designed.

The new measure of Mayer and Salovey model of emotional intelligence, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) aims to measure the four abilities outlined in Salovey and Mayer's model of emotional intelligence. Each ability is measured using specific tasks. Perception of emotion is measured by rating the extent and type of emotion expressed on different types of pictures. Facilitation of thought is measured by asking people to draw

parallels between emotions and physical sensations like light, color, as well as emotions and thoughts. Understanding is measured by asking the subject to explain how emotions can blend from other emotions. Regulation of emotion is measured by having people choose effective self and other management techniques (Brackett & Mayer, 2003).

With less than a third of the items of the original Multibranch Emotional Intelligence Scale, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test is compromised of 141 items. The Scale yields six scores: an overall emotional intelligence score , two area scores and four branch scores corresponding to the four branches of emotional intelligence. Each score is expressed in terms of a standard intelligence with a mean score of 100 and a standard deviation of 15. Additionally, the manual provides qualitative ratings that correspond to each numeric score.

Bar-On: A Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Reuven Bar- On developed one of the first measures of emotional intelligence that used the term "Emotional Quotient". Emotional Intelligence Test model of emotional intelligence relates to the potential for performance and success, rather than performance or success itself, and is considered process oriented rather than outcome oriented (Bar- On, 2002). It focuses on an array of emotional and social abilities, including the ability to be aware of, understand, and express oneself, the ability to be aware of, understand and relate to others, the ability to deal with strong emotions and the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of a social or personal nature (Bar-On, 1997). Bar-On outlines 5 components of emotional intelligence: intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood. He posits that emotional intelligence develops overt time and that it can be improved through training, programming and therapy (Bar- On, 2002).

Bar-On Hypothesizes that those individuals with higher than average E.Q.'s are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also notes that a deficiency in emotional intelligence can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Problems in coping with one's environment is thought, by Bar-On, to be especially common among those individuals lacking in the subscales of reality testing, problem solving,

stress tolerance and impulse control. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person's general intelligence, which then offers a indication of one's potential to succeed in life (Bar-On, 2002).

Reuven Bar-On's measure of emotional intelligence, the Bar-On Emotion Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), is a self- report measure of emotional intelligence for individual sixteen years of age and over. Developed as a measure of emotionally and socially component behavior that provides an estimate of one's emotion and social intelligence, EQ-I is not meant to measure personality traits or cognitive capacity, but rather to measure one's ability to be successful in dealing with environmental demands and pressures (Dawada & Hart, 2000; Bar-On, 2002). Bar-On ha developed several versions of the EQ-I to be used with various populations and in varying situations. Among these are the EQ-interview, the EQ-I Short Version, the EQ-i:125, the EQ-I Youth Version and the EQ-360Assesment.

Goleman: A Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Daniel Goleman, wrote Emotional Intelligence (1995), the landmark book which familiarized both the public and private sectors with the idea of emotional intelligence. Goleman's model outlines four main emotional intelligence constructs. The first, self-awareness, is the ability to read one's emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decisions. Self-management, the second constrict, involves controlling one's emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances. The third construct, social-awareness, includes the ability to sense, understand, and react to other's emotions while comprehending social networks. Finally, relationship management, the fourth construct, entails the ability to inspire, influence, and develop others while managing conflict (Goleman, 1998).

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct 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 posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies. The organization of the competencies under the various

constructs is not random; they appear in synergistic clusters or groupings that support and facilitate each other (Boyatzis, Goleman,& Rhee, 1999).Several measurement tools have been developed based on Goleman's model of emotional intelligence and it's corresponding competencies. Included among these are the Emotional Competency inventory (ECI: Boyatzis, 1994), the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (EIA: Bradberry, Greaves, Emmerling, et.al., 2003), and the Work Profile Questionnaire-Emotional Intelligence Version (WPQei: Performance Assessment Network, 2000).

Emotional Competency inventory: Daniel Goleman developed the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) as a measure of emotional intelligence based on his emotional intelligence competencies as well as earlier measures of competencies for managers, executives and leaders (the self-assessment questionnaire)by Richard Boyatzis (1994). The Emotional Competency Inventory is a multi-rater (360 degree) instrument that provides self, manager, direct report, and peer ratings on a series of behavioral indicators of emotional intelligence. It measures 20 competencies, organized into four constructs outlined by Goleman's model: self awareness, social awareness, self management and social skills. Each respondent is asked to describe themselves or the other person on a scale from1 to7 for each item, and in turn these items are composed into ratings for each of the competencies. The respondent is left with two ratings for each competency: a self rating and a total other rating (made up of an average of all other ratings; Boyatzis,Goleman,& Rhee,1999).

Emotional Intelligence Appraisal: The Emotional Intelligence Appraisal (EIA) measure was developed by Travis Bradberry and Jean Greaves along with the members of the Talent Smart Research Team in an effort to create a quick and effective measure of emotional intelligence for use in variety of settings. Based o Daniel Goleman's model of emotional intelligence, the Emotional Intelligence Appraisal uses 28 items to measure the four main components of the model and takes an average of 7 minutes to complete. Items target the existence of skills reflective of the above components and are rated using a six point frequency scale where 1 reflects "never" exhibiting a behavior and 6 reflects "always" exhibiting a behavior.

Work Profile Questionnaire-Emotional Intelligence Version: The emotional intelligence version of the Work Profile Questionnaire was designed as a self report measure of seven competencies in the Goleman model of emotional intelligence. Intended as a measure of competencies essential for effective work performance, the 84 item Work Profile Questionnaire- Emotional Intelligence Version gives participants a score for total emotional intelligence and a score for each of the seven competencies of interest: innovation, self-awareness, intuition, emotions, motivation, empathy and social skills (Performance Assessment, Network, 2000).

Comparing Models of Emotional Intelligence

Despite the existence of three distinct models of emotional intelligence, there are theoretical and statistical similarities between the various conceptions. On a global level, all of the models aim to understand and measure the elements involved in the recognition and regulation of one's own emotions and the emotions of others (Goleman, 2001). All models agree that there are certain key components to emotional intelligence, and there is even some consensus on what those components are. As all three models of emotional intelligence implicate the awareness of emotions and the management of emotions as being key elements in being an emotionally intelligent individual.

A relationship between elements of the models has been established through statistical analyses. As outlined in the description of the measures of emotional intelligence, there is evidence that different measures of emotional intelligence are related and may be measuring similar components. Brackett and Mayer (2000) found significant similarities between the regulation of emotion subscale of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test and the interpersonal EQ scale of the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory. Considerable similarities have been found between self-report measures of emotional intelligence. Brackett and Mayer (1998) found that two self-report measures, Emotional Quotient Inventory and Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test, were highly correlated(r=.43).

There is a significant amount of debate within the emotional intelligence literature

concerning the two models of emotional intelligence; many researchers have attempted to address the issue of which model represents emotional intelligence in the most accurate manner. Supporters of the ability model propose that the mixed model of emotional intelligence is less "pure" .Ability model supporters argue that research based on ability measures has demonstrated that emotional intelligence is a distinct and clearly defined construct with evidence of incremental validity (Brackett & Mayer, 2003).However, proponents of the mixed models chastise the ability model for focusing too strictly on traditional intelligence-based psychometric criteria. They argue that many theorists have recommended broadening the traditional notion of intelligence so that it incorporates many facilities which have conventionally been beyond its scope. Researchers, such as Howard Gardner, note that standardized intelligence tests do not necessarily measure success in school or life as support for a mixed model of emotional intelligence (Gardner, 1999).

Emotional intelligence in the workplace

Linking EI to workplace performance is a leading area of research in worker productivity and effectiveness.Cherniss (2000)outlines four main reasons why the workplace would be a logical setting for evaluating and improving emotional intelligence competencies:

1. Emotional intelligence competencies are critical for success in most jobs.
2. Many adults enter the workforce without the competencies necessary to succeed or excel at their job.
3. Employers already have the established means and motivation for providing emotional intelligence training.
4. Most adults spend the majority of their waking hours at work.

A strong interest in the professional applications of emotional intelligence is apparent in the way organizations have embraced E.I. ideas. Considerable research in the emotional intelligence field has focused on leadership, a fundamental workplace quality. Even before research in the area of E.I. had begun, the Ohio State Leadership Studies reported that leaders

who were able to establish mutual trust, respect, and certain warmth and rapport with members of their group wre more effective (Fleishman and Harris, 1962). This result is not surprising given that many researchers have argued that effective leadership fundamentally depends upon the leader's ability to solve the complex social problems which can arise in organizations (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman, 2000).

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

EI, however, affects more than the individual's performance and can be correlated to group productivity. Group EI can be analyzed in two ways – by examining each individual's contribution to the team and the interaction within the team as a whole. By doing so, one can understand both the emotional resources available for teamwork and how teams manage the collective dynamics of the group's members (Elfenbein, 2006). Teams whose members collectively have a higher-than-average level of EI score higher on tests of team psychological safety, collaborative decision making, team training and improvement, and lower on levels of group conflict. In contrast, teams that have a high level of variability in EI suffer negative consequences such has conflict and member attrition (Elfenbein & Ambady, 2002).

Some scholars' models on group performance seem to be in conflict with Elfenbien's framework and suggest that focusing solely on EI within a team is detrimental to performance. For instance Michel and Jehn (2006) claim that social intelligence, as defined as effective adaptation to the social context, is a better predictor of team effectiveness. Their study of two banks' employees revealed very different personal attributes in regards to social relations.

Employees of the less-effective, first bank could elaborate extensively on their personal emotional abilities while employees of the highly-effective second bank had great difficulty at verbalizing their self-concept. However, the employees at the second bank were much more situational in their responses to the researcher's questions. They rarely used the term "I" or spoke of their strengths and weaknesses, unlike the employees of the first bank. Michel and Jehn claim that EI is only one part of a larger social intelligence model. Their model combines self-awareness with self-regulation in a concrete situation.

The development of a group-level EI model helps combine and compliment the findings Elfenbien's research with that of Michel and Jehn. This model, proposed by Druskat and Wolff (2001) is based on the assumption that teams are greater than the sum of its individuals, and member EI alone cannot manage group dynamics. They argue that the group as a whole must be aware of and effectively manage emotion within the established social norms. The team norms, nine of which are defined, provide an emotional structure for the group's interaction with one another (Wolff, Druskat, Koman, & Messer, 2006). In other words, a team's effectiveness and sustainability depends on the strength of the social norms developed by the EI contribution each member makes.

Emotional Intelligence of Teams

Much of the work in today's organizations, even at top management levels, is done in teams rather than by individuals. Although most studies of emotional intelligence have focused on individuals, research is beginning to emerge concerning how emotional intelligence relates to teams. For example, one study found that untrained teams made up of members with high emotional intelligence performed as well as trained teams made up of members who rated low on emotional intelligence (P.J.Jordan, N.M.Ashkanasy, C.E.J.Hartel and G.S.Hooper,*Human Resource Management Review*12, no. 2,2002.p, 195-214)The high emotional intelligence of the trained team members enabled them to assess and adapt to the requirements of teamwork and the tasks at hand.

Moreover, research has suggested that emotional intelligence can be developed as a

team competency and not just an individual competency. That is, teams themselves-not just their individual members can become emotionally intelligent leaders build the emotional intelligence of teams by creating norms that support emotional development and influence emotions in constructive ways. Emotionally intelligent team norms are those that

1. Create a strong group identity
2. Build trust among members
3. Instill a belief among members that they can be effective and succeed as a team.

Leaders "tune in" to the team's emotional state and look for unhealthy or unproductive norms that inhibit cooperation and team harmony (Daniel Goleman, Richard Boyatzis and Annie McKee, *Journal of Organizational Excellence*, 2002,p. 55-56). Building the emotional intelligence of the team means exploring unhealthy norms, deliberately bringing emotions to the surface, and understanding how they affect the team's work. Raising these issues can be uncomfortable, and a leader needs both courage and individual emotional intelligence to guide a team through the process. Only by getting emotions into the open can the team build new norms and move to a higher level of group satisfaction and performance. Leaders continue to build emotional intelligence by encouraging and enabling the team to explore and use emotion in its everyday work.

Emotional intelligence, gender and age

Bar-On (1997) suggests that there are "no significant differences between males and females in overall emotional intelligence" (p. 93) based on a correlational study between age and gender and scores on the EQ-i. However, Allen (2003) indicates female principals tend to slightly outscore male principals on the EQ-i by one-half of a standard deviation, but there is no significant difference between principals' age and EQ-i scores.

Other studies also suggest females score higher than males on tests of EI (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer & Geher, 1996). Hoffman , 1977; Hojat et al., 2001, van Rooy et al., 2005 also confirmed gender differences in EI and empathy. Women have been found to

display more complexity and articulate their emotional experience more than men, even after controlling for verbal intelligence (Barrett, Lane, Sechrest, & Schwartz, 2000). Lopes, Salovey, and Straus (2003) confirm this finding and suggest higher EI in women may be linked to mother-child interactions where female children tend to receive greater emotional expression from their mothers than male children. The part of the brain designated for emotional processing may also be larger in women (Gur, Gunning-Dixon, Bilker, & Gur, 2002). However, women are more likely to be perceived negatively in the leadership role when compared to men when women do not use their emotional abilities and act as autocratic leaders, typically a male stereotype, rather than as democratic leaders (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992). More interestingly, women more often underestimate their EI, whereas men overestimate (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

Intrapersonal skills generally increase with age (Bar-On, 1997, 2002; Bar-On & Handley, 1999; Bar-On & Parker, 2000, Hartup & Stevens, 1997). Labouvie-Vief, Dovoe & Bulka (1989) reported that emotional maturation is pronounced during the pre-adult years. Further, according to Bretherton, Fritz, Zahn-Waxler and Ridgeway (1986) the expression of emotions develops from external (i.e. actions, physical processes) to internal representations (i.e. linked to memories, wishes and other inner states).

Emotional Intelligence and Personality

Personality, One's characteristic pattern of thinking, feeling and acting(Myers,1998),has been explored using a variety of theories including Psychoanalytic , humanistic, social-cognitive and trait theory. One of the most predominant and well accepted personality theories, trait theory attempts to explain personality in terms of the dynamic and the underline behavior. Traits are characteristic patterns of behavior or disposition to feel and act in a certain way which distinguish one person from the next. They are hypothesized to be consistent and stable across a lifetime, acting as a type of template for an individual's behavior (Myer's,1998). Research by Mc Crea and Costa (among others) has supported this hypothesis. In a longitudinal study of American Adults, Costa and Mc Crea(1982) found that for the majority of people, personality at age 30 was predictive of personality at age 80.

Several traits theorists have proposed models of personality based on the factor analyses oftraits expressed through personalities inventories. For example, Hans and Sybil Eysenck's model of personality outlined two genetically influenced dimensions of personality: introversions-extroversions and stability-instability (Myer, 1998).A more recent, and widely accepted trait model is the "Big Five" Personality Factor Model.

Big Five Personality Model, is an empirically derived model of personality based on the early work on traits by Gordon Allport,Raymond Cattell, and Hans and Sybil Eysenck. It proposes that personality can be factored into five dimensions: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Further, it proposes that each individual falls between the two extremes of each dimension. Neuroticism contrasts elements of emotional stability with those of negative emotionality. Extraversion implies an energetic approach to the world as opposed to a passive approach, while openness examines an individual's openness to experiences versus their level of close-mindedness. Agreeableness seeks to measure whether one has a prosaically, Co-operative orientation towards others or if they act with antagonism. Lastly, conscientiousness includes the control of impulses which facilitates tasks and other goal-directed behavior (Hergenhahn & Olson, 1999).

Several models of emotional intelligence are closely tied with personality theory, specifically the mixed models of Bar-On and Goleman. Both models list components and sub-components of their theory of emotional intelligence which are similar to areas which have been previously studied under personality theory. Bar-On' sub-components of assertiveness, interpersonal effectiveness, empathy, impulse control, social responsibility and reality testing have all been considered parts of personality, and are consequently measured as such by popular personality inventories. The overlap between components of emotional intelligence models and personality theory is especially evident in empirical comparisons of the construct. When comparing Bar-On's measures of emotional intelligence to the NEO-PI-R , a measure of the Big Five Personality Factors, the Emotional Quotient Inventory was found to correlate significantly with each factor. Highly significant correlations were found between the Emotional Quotient Inventory and neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness

factors and moderately significant correlations were found with the openness factor of the Big Five. Goleman's measure of emotional intelligence, the Emotional Competence Inventory, has been found to correlate significantly with three of the Big Five Personality factors: extroversion, openness, and conscientiousness.

Emotional intelligence with rising leadership levels.

Knowing that EI is tied to successful leadership, it follows that skills of emotionally intelligent people, like flexibility, conflict management, persuasion and social reasoning, become ncreasingly important with advancing levels in leadership hierarchy (Mandell and Pherwani, 2003).Initial research in this area compared EI scores of middle and senior level managers to determine promotion readiness, explored EI as an explanation for the advancement of managers, and weighed EI against intellect and managerial skills in assessing outstanding versus average senior level leaders. Specifically, a comparison of senior managers with middle managers targeted for promotion resulted in significantly higher scores among senior managers in EI and the competency areas of innovation, commitment, political awareness, leadership, change catalyst, and team capabilities, supporting EI as a measurement tool for promotion readiness (Langley, 2000). Also, a seven-year longitudinal study (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003) revealed EI as more important than intellect and other management competencies in the advancement of managers. Results indicated that intellect accounted for 27 percent and management competencies for 16 percent, while EI explained 36 percent of the variances in advancement. The same study further analyzed the skills of senior directors and managers. The director group presented significantly higher scores on overall EI and on interpersonal sensitivity and emotional resilience. The authors found no difference amongst the directors and managers at all, however, in intellect or other managerial competencies. Finally, not only is EI an increasingly indicative reason for stellar performance as rank rises in an organization, but as opposed to cognitive or technical abilities, it explains 85 percent of the variance between outstanding and average senior leaders (Goleman et al., 2002).

These initial studies yield telling results that offer support for the relationship between effective leaders and EI, as well as for the theory that with increasing leadership levels in an organization, one will find increasing levels of EI. Further, particular EI competencies appear as especially crucial for directors of organizations; "motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, intuitiveness, conscientiousness and integrity" are undoubtedly relevant for a director's role in "determining the company's vision, mission and values" (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003, p. 206).

Emotional intelligence across career arenas.

Theoretical speculations on EI research of leaders in divergent career fields consider the leader's role in driving the organizational culture, the workplace culture's role in developing emotionally intelligent leaders, and initial career interest by people with high EI. It is estimated that 50 to 70 percent of employees trace the organizational climate specifically to the actions of the leader (Goleman et al., 2002), this demonstrating a direct effect of the leader on workplace culture. Alternatively, the organizational culture may have an effect on the EI levels of employees. Organizational values define ground rules that must be followed in order to anticipate promotion (Langley, 2000), thus, rules based on EI competencies will lead employees to embrace EI if their goal is to attain a leadership position. Leaders in different career arenas may have a greater or lesser amount of EI nurturing by their various organizational missions, visions, values, and cultures. Lastly, people with high EI may be drawn to particular types of professions. Recall the contention that those who are interested in the construct of EI may be defined along disciplinary lines (Gardner, 1999). Some assertions have been made that people who are high in EI may be more likely participants in leadership experiences, and also may be more effective leaders (Kobe et al., 2001). Perhaps just as highly emotionally intelligent people are interested in and more likely to participate in leadership, they may also be more likely to participate in particular types of career fields and professions. This study seeks to begin to infuse initial empirical research into this burgeoning theoretical discussion.

Applicability of Emotional Intelligence to Everyday Living

Several studies have found that emotional intelligence can have a significant impact on

various elements of everyday living. Palmer, Donaldson and Stough(2002 found that higher emotional intelligence was a predictor of life satisfaction. Additionally, Pelletier (2002) reported that people higher in emotional intelligence were also more likely to use an adaptive defense style and thus exhibited healthier psychological adaptation. Performance measures of emotional intelligence have illustrated that higher levels of E.I. are associated with an increased likelihood of attending to health and appearance, positive interactions with friends and family, and owning objects that are reminders of their loved ones (Brackett,Mayer,& Warner, in press).Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey(1999) found that higher emotional intelligence correlated significantly with higher parental warmth and attachment style, while others found that those scoring high in E.I. also reported increased positive interpersonal relationships among children, adolescents and adults(Rice,1999;Rubin1999).

Negative relationships have likewise been identified between emotional intelligence and problem behavior.Mayer,Caruso and Salovey (2000) found that lower emotional intelligence was associated with lower self-reports of violent and trouble-prone behavior among college students, a correlation which remained significant even when the effects of intelligence and empathy were partial out. Lower emotional intelligence(as measured by the MSCEIT) has been significantly associated with owning more self-help books (Brackett et al.,in press), higher use of legal drugs and alcohol, as well as increased participation in deviant behavior (i.e. involvement in physical fights and vandalism). No gender differences were observed for those associations (Trinidad & Johnson, 2002; Brackett and Mayer, 2003). Finally, a study of 15 male adolescent sex offenders (15-17 years old) found that sex offenders have difficulty in identifying their own and others feelings, two important element of emotional intelligence (Moriarty, Stough,Tidmarsh, Eger, & Dennison, 2001).

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

The close of the twentieth century witnessed an increased awareness of the importance of leadership by industry, and resurgence in the study of leadership. Research have suggested that the development of executives has taken on new meaning as corporations are challenged to adopt a worldwide perspective and that the ability to interact effectively with people may be

one of the most important leadership skills (Hersey& Blanchard,1988). The phenomenon coincides with a prolonged economic expansion, motivated by the expectation that improved leadership would make the difference between profit and loss, competitive advantage or disadvantage, success or failure in the new information age. Leaders are needed who can guide these changes as rapidly as they occur and who can respond to the most valuable resources of the day- knowledge capital (Cherniss, 2000). In many cases, the value of the product springs from the innovative ideas brought to the table by an organization's human asset. Guiding, molding, facilitating, inspiring and encouraging these most valuable organization assets is the leadership challenge of the new millennium.

Goleman (1998) states that close to 90% of the competencies relevant for leadership success are social and emotional in nature. In work environments characterized by rightsizing, change, and competitive pressures, people draw on these competencies to provide effective leadership (Cherniss, 2000).

The ability to engage in accurate emotional self-assessment and to tune into the emotional state of others, social awareness, emotional management of oneself and others, and an ability to use this entire increasingly important role in leadership. These abilities have been pulled together under the umbrella of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Although the construct of intra-personal intelligence (Gardner, 1983) and Social Intelligence (Thorndike & Stein, 1937) have been around for some time, Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the first researchers to examine a cluster of behaviours as an emotional intelligence therotical construct. However, it wasn't until the publication of Daniel Goleman's book on emotional intelligence in1995 that the term and construct of emotional intelligence became widely known outside the research community (Goleman, 1995).

As is typical with the emergence of a new construct, researchers conceptualize and define emotional intelligence differently (Bar-on, 1996; Coooper & Sawaf, 1997; Goleman,1995).Cooper and Sawaf envision emotional intelligence as comprising for main components: emotional literacy, emotional fitness, emotional depth, and emotional alchemy. In cooper and Sawaf's view, emotional literacy refers to emotional honesty, emotional energy and

the valuing of feelings. Emotional fitness refers to trust, authenticity and resilience. The emotional depth component focuses in influencing others without exercising control over them through personal integrity, self awareness , commitment and accountability. Emotional alchemy refers to the synthesis of all previously mentioned components to discern innovative opportunities and to transform small ideas into larger ones (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Cooper, 1997).

From a theoretical perspective, Goleman identifies the components of emotional intelligence to include a personal competence area that determines how we manage ourselves, and a social competence area which focuses on how we handle relationships (Goleman, 1998). Personal competence includes self-awareness, self- regulation and motivation. Golemman believes these emotional capabilities are both independent and interdependent. He states that each trait or capacity has the potential to make unique contribution to job performance. However, he also recognizes that many of these capabilities interact. That is why; Goleman views an underlying emotional intelligence capacity as being necessary but not sufficient to guarantee work performance success, acknowledging that an individual's interest in their work and the work environment will have an impact on whether or not the emotional intelligence competence is used. In addition, Goleman recognizes that this capacity, while applicable to some extend to all jobs, will be more important or necessary for some jobs than others.

Other researchers have also taken this workplace performance approach in their recommendations for development and application of emotional intelligence. Weisinger (1998) follows Goleman's theoretical approach in focusing on the development of self-awareness, emotion management and self-motivation. In addition, he includes a major area that calls on emotional intelligence in relation with others suggesting the development of skills in area of communication, relationship building, and mentoring or helping others help themselves.

Reuven Bar-On (1996) builds his theoretical approach around intra-personal skills, inter-personal skills, cognition-oriented skills, stress tolerance, impulse control and optimism .This approach is very inclusive, identifying 15 major emotional intelligence capabilities. Under the umbrella of Intrapersonal Skills, Bar-On identifies emotional self- awareness, assertiveness, self-

regard, self-actualization, and independence. Interpersonal Skills encompasses interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, and empathy. Bar-on also includes several Adaptability capabilities including problem, reality testing, and flexibility as well as impulse control and stress tolerance under a Stress Management heading. Also included in Bar-On theoretical approach is a somewhat unique component that others have not typically included; a general mood factor that includes happiness and optimism.

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000a) also challenge the broadening of the emotional intelligence to include such components as optimism, happiness and motivating oneself into a state of flow, considering such to be mixed models. These mixed models include both personality, motivational, and ability components. Mayer et. Prefer to more narrowly define emotional intelligence as a set of mental abilities that mark the convergence of emotion and cognition. These authors conceptualize emotional intelligence as a construct that incorporates both emotion and cognition as: emotional perception, emotional understanding, and emotional management. This conceptualization has not changed substantially from Salovey and Mayer's (1990) earlier research where they defined emotional intelligence as 'the ability to monitor one's own and other's emotions, to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions' (p.185).

The key word in Salovey and Mayer conceptualization is "ability". This approach differentiates their model from the mixed model approach. The theoretical approach has clearly diverged in two main directions with Mayer and Salovey following an ability model and most other researchers following a mixed model which combines personality and socio-emotional factors (Mayer,Salovey& Caruso,2000a).

Leadership Theory and Emotional Intelligence

Leadership Studies subsumes much of what some previously considered to be management theory. There are those leadership theorists who adamantly draw large distinctions between leadership and management as constructs while others support that leadership theory has evolved from management theory.

Leadership studies are an emerging discipline and the concept of leadership, along with relevant definitions continues to evolve. According to Daft, Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who have shared purposes (Daft, 1999). He states that leadership has been a topic of interest to historian's philosophers since ancient times. (Daft, 1999)

Leadership as a discipline touches on a variety of other disciplines: management studies, personality, education, intelligence, and business and organizational development. In its current infancy state, little quantitative research has been done to establish the validity of the predictive claims of the multiple models and theories that abound.

There are at least two separate schools of Leadership Studies that divide the various models: Transformational versus the Transactional Schools.

Transformational versus the Transactional Leadership Model

Transactional Leadership involves maintaining stability within the organization rather than promoting change. These skills are important for all leaders but to transcend stability and achieve change, transformational leadership is a skill set that may be more effective. Transactional leadership involves an exchange or transaction process for both leaders and followers. The transactional leader identifies and recognizes specific follower desires and provides goods and services that meets those desires in exchange for the followers meeting specific objectives or performing certain duties (Daft, 1999)

It is basically a *quid pro quo* relation that is mutually beneficial for both leader and follower in a form of market exchange value, without any type of intrinsic change in their existing value system (Daft, 1999) Marti Chemers adds to this theory of transactional leadership with the concept that a transactional relation of good quality must first be present in order to transcend to transformational leadership. He queried, what is the currency of goods exchanged? He offered that power and influence tactics suggest some common relational features. He notes that in these transactions between followers and leaders the most powerful transactional exchanges involve rational appeals, expert and referent power and influence

based on shared objectives and mutual respect (Chemers, 1997).

Transformational leadership, on the other hand, is characterized by the ability to bring about significant change. "The focus is on intangible qualities such as vision, shared values, and ideas to build relationships....Transformational leadership is based on the personal values, beliefs and qualities of the leader rather than on an exchange process between leaders and followers" (Daft,1999. p. 427) .

The four key differences of transformational leadership are:

- Transformational leadership develops followers into leaders.
- Followers concerns are elevated from the lower Maslow Hierarchy of physical to the higher levels of self-esteem. Self-actualization and self-transcendence.
- Followers who are inspired go beyond their own self interest for the good of the group.
- Leaders who are transformational paint pictures of desired future and communicate this future in such a way it transforms followers into willing journeyers (Daft, 1999).

Multiple leadership theories and theorists are subsumed under the umbrella of Transformational Leadership: Bass(1`985), Kotter(1996), Blanchard(2001),and Goleman(1998).Daft propounds that in the concept of leadership theory of Emotional Intelligence is the axiom that leaders should acknowledge that emotional understanding and skills can impact, harness, and direct the power of emotions. He believes that applying Emotional Intelligence theories in the workplace will lead to an improvement in employee satisfaction, productivity, effectiveness and motivation (Daft, 1999.p.345)

Goleman on Transformational Leadership

Working with Emotional Intelligence (1998) is another Goleman addition to the application and integration of the theory of emotional intelligence into the organization. His book jacket states, "For leaders, emotional intelligence is almost 90% of what sets the stars

apart from the mediocre" (Goleman, 1998). He asserts that it is an essential ingredient for reaching and staying at the top of the field.

Goleman cites John Kotter, "Motivation and inspiration energize people, not by pushing them in the right direction as control mechanisms but by satisfying the human needs for achievement, a sense of belong, a feeling of control over one's life, and the ability to live one's own ideals. Such feelings touch us deeply and elicit a powerful response." Goleman argues that leadership of this kind is an emotional craft (Goleman, 1998, pp.196-197).

Goleman draws the conclusion that "emotional competence is particularly central to leadership, a role whose essence is getting others to do their jobs more effectively". Goleman states that Transformational leadership is inspiring individuals and groups with the competencies provided by emotional intelligence; A Transformational leader is one who is highly emotionally intelligent (Goleman, 1998).

Transformational leadership and team effectiveness

Managers are faced with a requirement to develop, implement and if necessary challenge a range of new tasks, business processes, projects to be managed and teams to be led (Hull, 2006). Perhaps the most difficult aspect for a supervisor of being a work team leader is motivation of team members. Work teams may be more successful in achieving organizational goals if their members are empowered to do their jobs (Latham and Gary, 2004). Conversely, if their authority and responsibility are restricted, employees may well reduce their levels of commitment. They might continue to perform satisfactorily but with little enthusiasm for improving quality and productivity (Steers et al., 2004). Informal meetings between supervisors and subordinates on a regular basis empower joint decision-making and participative management. Moreover, the existence of accurate job description on departmental basis is associated positively with effective task allocation and the absence of role conflict (Polychroniou, 2005).Team effectiveness within the organization is achieved further when tasks are allocated to employees through a transparent process that takes into account the organizational goals as well as the subordinates' abilities and preferences. Successful

management actively not only promotes a team spirit, but also installs team mechanisms and the means to develop in team skills (Harris and Harris, 1996).

Teamwork is also enhanced when such a process also considers training and skills development. The job design literature has been clear in suggesting that a favourable climate is necessary for job design efforts to be successful since it moderates the relationship between job complexity and satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Ferris and Gilmore, 1984). Moreover, defining factors for team effectiveness refer to leadership style of supervisors. The role of leadership in management is largely determined by the organizational culture of the company. It has been argued that supervisor' beliefs, values and interpersonal competences are of critical importance to the overall style of leadership that they adopt. Theoretical contributions suggest that components of EQ may be associated with effective leadership (Morris and Feldman, 1996; Goleman, 1998, 2001; Bass, 2002). Existing literature support that dimensions of supervisors' EQ influence supervisor's transformational leadership, subordinates' outcomes and job performance (Megerian and Sosik, 1996; Rahim et al., 2002, 2006). Following Burns (1978), Bass (1985; see also Bass and Avolino, 1993) proposed that transformational leadership is associated with distinct dimensions of charisma or idealised influence (extent of pride, trust, and respect engendered by and emotional identification with the leader), intellectual stimulation (extent the leader encourages followers to question their own way of doing things and become innovative), and individualised consideration (extent the leader provides personal attention and encouragement for self-development of followers).

The transformational leader has the capacity to motivate subordinates to do more than normally expected. Transformational leaders raise subordinates consciousness about new outcomes and motivate them to transcend their own interests for the sake of the team. They create an atmosphere of change, and they may be obsessed by visionary ideas that excite, stimulate, and drive other people to work hard. The true transformational leader often does not fit within a traditional organisation and may lead a social movement rather than a formal organisation (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2004; Hellriegel et al., 2005). Leaders who possess empathy are likely to recognise subordinates' need, take active interest in them, respond to

changes in their emotional states, and to work together to attain goals on team basis (Rahim et al., 2002). Empathy is likely to be associated with individualised consideration. Social skills that are associated with enabling followers to engage in desirable behaviours are likely to be associated with intellectual stimulation (Goleman, 2001; Rahim et al., 2006). Employees are likely to respect and emotionally identify with a leader who is considerate and is willing to help subordinates to be effective, enhance utilisation of integrating style for handling conflict and improve their job performance (Rahim et al., 2002, 2006).

Transformational Leadership and Emotional Intelligence Studies

Using Salovey and Mayer's original classification, after acknowledging that there is currently no consensus about the exact nature of emotional intelligence, researchers Barling, Slater, and Kelloway investigated whether there was an association between leadership and emotional intelligence in 49 managers of a large pulp and paper organization. The Bar-On *Emotional Intelligence Inventory* an emotional intelligence questionnaire and *Seligman Attributional Style Questionnaire* were distributed and completed.MLQs was distributed to 157 respective subordinates. The researchers acknowledge that their sampler was small and they have noted what may be excessive sampling error because of this: "The absences of a relationship between emotional intelligence and intellectual; stimulation also bears further investigation. Previous research has supported the role of intellectual stimulation as a predictor of subordinate attitudes and performasnce (Barling et al., 1996) making it a central concept in transformational leadership theory" (Barling et al., 2000, p. 4)

The researchers stated their study has shown emotional intelligence to be associated with three aspects of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivational individualized consideration. In essence the study was conducted to see if scores on the Bar-On EQ-I scale were correlated to MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) scales of transformational qualities of leaders. They stated that if Goleman's theory is that emotional intelligence can be developed through training, and if this quality can be measured, it would

provide organizations an indication of leadership potential and would provide organizations with a means to select leaders. In other words, it will provide a predictive measurement of leadership ability. They continue that if Goleman's claims are correct that emotional intelligence develops early on in life, it may be used to predict the ability to use transformational leadership behaviors (Barling,et al., 2000,p. 5).According to Sosik and Sosik (1999) the correlation between the attributes of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence varied as a function of self awareness of managers. They argue that one aspect of emotional intelligence, self awareness, on integral to transformational leadership effectiveness (Sosik and Sosik 1999.p. 2). In their study of 63 managers and 192 subordinates, data were collected to assess EQ predictor/leader behavior and leader behavior performance relationships. They were particularly concerned with the aspect of leader self awareness and its relationship to transformational leadership. Their study revealed that using a self other rating as surrogated measure for self –awareness, coupled with the size and range restrictions of their sample population, may not be appropriate. They concluded that self-awareness was a key aspect of both EQ and effective performance and those organizations should promote training programs that include EQ training, with emphasis on self-awareness, transformational leadership and performance.

They stated that such training enhanced the capacity of team members to learn leadership skills, develop new sets of emotion based skills to learn to improve self-learning, and develop and assess emotional competencies of organizational members (Sosik and Sosik 1999.p.12).Newsome et al. (1999) noted that over 70 years ago, Thoendike (1929) proposed the existence of a construct very much like that of emotional intelligence-social intelligence which could be organized under three broad dimensions: mechanical, abstract, and social. Mechanical ability referred to level able to manage things and mechanics: abstract intelligence was the idea to manage symbols and ideas; and social intelligence was the ability to understand and manage people (i.e. an ability to handle interpersonal situation).Leadership characteristics and the various capabilities that support effective leadership have long been a topic of research and debate in leadership literature. Studies by Connelly, Gilbert,Zaccaro, Threfall, Victoria, Marks and Mumford(1991), reveal that background data measures that focuses on

achievement, motivation, social skills ,social adjustment, dominance , reasoning and creativity were strong and stable predictors for success of young adults in high school college.

In this longitudinal study the research found that "achievement, motivation, social skills, social adjustment, dominance, reasoning and creativity are some of the strongest and most stable predictors across different criteria including success in high school" (Connelly. et al., 2000, p. 2). They reviewed the work of Friedman, and Fletcher (1992) that found the contributions of complex cognitive abilities, thinking skills, and social judgments support the performance of critical leadership tasks.

Connelly,et al. (2000) used a sample of 1807Army officers who filled out cognitive, motivational and personality measures. The results were that leader skills and knowledge measurements all correlated significantly with leader achievement. Positive correlations were found. Cognitive abilities had positive correlations with the exception of verbal reasoning and leader achievement (Connelly, et al., 2000).

In their development of a theoretical model, the result indicated that problem solving, social judgment and knowledge measures account for significant variance in leadership criteria. The results of their study provided findings that provided "support for the contributions of complex cognitive abilities, creative thinking skills, and social judgment skills to the performance of critical leadership tasks" (Connelly. et al. 2000).

In their original hypothesis they expected to have findings support a mediated model of leadership, where problem solving skills, social judgment skills and knowledge mediate the relationship of general cognitive abilities, motivation and personality to leadership performance. Specifically the co variation between cognitive abilities, motivation and personality and leader performance was expected to diminish when problem-solving skills, social judgment and knowledge were controlled (Connelly, et al., 2000).

The theoretical model retained core aspects in that motivation, personality and general cognitive abilities were held to directly influence complex leader problem solving skills and that complex problem solving skills and cognitive, motivation and personality variables are proposed

to directly influence leader behavior. Although the model in development does not particularly cite emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style per se, the inclusion of cognitive ability, social judgment and leadership skills as variables provide a correlative study and information about the attributes ascribed to assess the predictive variables of leadership abilities. With Goleman's claims that emotional intelligence us a better predictor of life's success (1995) and with his definition of success restricted to success within the world of employment, it is extremely important to review the literature regarding general cognitive ability and the predictive value of this construct, hoe it has been measured and analyzed to support the claims of prediction, and to construct those studies with ones that have been done with EI.Graves (1999) studied emotional intelligence and cognitive ability in his dissertation using three pivotal questions:

- Is emotional intelligence subsumed under cognitive ability or does it constitute a distinct, albeit related construct
- Does emotional intelligence predict behaviors that would likely generalize to effective job performance?
- If so, would emotional intelligence explain a unique portion of the criterion space that traditional cognitive ability measures would otherwise miss?

Graves concluded that, "..... contrary to some findings (e.g.,Goleman,1998), emotional intelligence does not seem to overshadow cognitive ability in predicting performance, It appears that emotional intelligence and cognitive ability play equally important roles in explaining differences in people's ability to influence and demonstrate interpersonal competence"(Graves, 1999,p. 190)

Personality trait and ability models in EI

Many researchers are currently taking an inclusive approach to emotional intelligence and its measurement, attempting to capture almost everything except IQ(Bar-On, 1997;Goleman,1998). Such mixed models include personality traits along with motivation

factors and are considered by some to be hindered by the inclusive nature (Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000).Further, the measurement approaches employed by the mixed model theorists have taken two different pathways. One has focused on self-assessment personality inventories (Bar-On, 1997; Cooper, 1997) and the other, has focused on informant assessment personality inventories (Boyatzis, Goleman & Hay/McBer, 1999).

In contrast, the ability model identifies emotional intelligence as a set of mental abilities that mark the convergence of emotion and cognition. The transitions of this theoretical approach into a measurement approach differ from the mixed model by assessing the quality and extend to which people engage in certain processes or judgments (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey,2000b), or how people think,decide,plan, and credit (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey,2001), and the extent to which this approach is skill based. The ability theorists measure the ability to detect emotion in a face, a landscape, or an abstract design, uncontaminated with verbal content. Or, they measure the ability to judge the similarity between an emotional feeling such as fear and other internal experience such as temperature taste.

It is not surprising that the theoretical underpinning and subsequent measurement approach differ widely. In the investigation of a new construct, it is not unusual for science and scientist to move in different directions in pursuit of their version of truth. A great deal is now known about emotional intelligence that could only be guessed at in the early 90's. To some extent, the interaction, divergence, and convergence of the emotional intelligence constructs with other well-established psychological construct has been explored for the past ten years, shedding some light on the role emotional intelligence may play in the future.

Personality traits and Leadership

A full cycle of research into the discovery of traits as precursors to effective leadership, or "great man" trait theories (Bass, 1990) was laid to rest decades ago. An individual difference or trait approach to leadership evolved through a time of discreditation (Landy, 1989; Mann,1959; Stogdill,1948) as research failed to produce predictive validity coefficient of sufficient strength to support the theoretical constructs (Hemphill,1949). More recently,

however, with renewed confidence in the psychometric properties of their research, studies have identified personality traits or behaviors that appear to support successful leadership behavior. Personality traits have been the focus of substantial research over the past few decades with general agreement among researchers that personality trait common variance can be understood in terms of five major personality dimensions. These dimensions, known as the "big five", have been identified as : neuroticism , extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (e.g. Costa & McCrae, 1976,1978; Costa, Mc Crae & Dye, 1991; Digman,1990). Building on Norman's (1963) taxomany, using cluster and factor analysis, researchers found clear support for the generality of this factor analysis, researchers found clear support for the generality of this five-factor model(Goldberg; 19090; McCrae & John,1992). The five-factor model allows for many personality traits to be subsumed under the five major dimensions providing a sound depiction of individual differences in personality at the uppermost level (Costa, & McCrea, 1995).

Researchers have sought an understanding of the relationship between job performance and personality employing the five-factor model. Overall, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness demonstrated a moderate positive relationship to job performance. The Barrick and Mount study found the conscientiousness dimension to be a valid predictor across occupational groupings including sales, management, police, professionals, and skilled/semiskilled personnel. They also found that people who scored high on openness achieved greater success in a training environment. Those who scored high in extroversion demonstrated a similar success pattern.

The Barrick and Mount (1991) meta–analysis also found conscientiousness and extraversion to be sufficient predictors of job performance. Both objective (e.g. .salary, status, change, tenure) and subjective criterion data (e.g., supervisory ratings) were used to clarify the nature of these trait-performance relationships. For the management group, the extraversion dimension was predictive across all job performance criteria.

Unlike conscientiousness or agreeableness, for many of the studies included in meat – analytical research, the assumption can be made that people functioning in the critically

unstable range of behavior have self-selected out of the workforce, effectively restricting the range for this dispositional construct. From a workplace perspectives, neuroticism (emotional stability) appears to be a rather unique personality dimension in that there is a non-linear relationship between this dimension and many of the work-relevant criteria against which it has been measured. Barrick and Mount (1991) suggest there is a point where having more emotional stability, beyond the "critically unstable range", does not provide a value –added factor. In fact, in some cases, more neurotic professional outperformed their more stable peers.

Emotional intelligence and personality traits

In a broader context, Yukl (1981) identified 14 traits and behaviours supportive of leadership success including consulting, monitoring, recognizing, networking, rewarding, planning and organizing, clarifying, informing, motivating, delegating, team building and conflict resolution, problem solving and supporting. Yukl also lists guidelines for supportive management. Some of these behaviors are showing acceptance and positive regard, being polite and diplomatic, bolstering other's self-esteem, providing assistance with work as needed, willingness to help with personal problems, engaging in active listening, and showing empathy. This list is similar to the behaviors identified in emotional intelligence construct (Goleman,1998; Caruso, Mayer,& Salovey,2001) and is particularly noticeable in research with mixed models of emotional intelligence and the major personality dimensions (McCrae,2000) Agreeableness, extraversion, and to some extent neuroticism all appear to have some facets in common with the mixed model of emotional intelligence. These correlations were examined in the Davies, Stankov, and Roberts (1998) research which demonstrated substantial overlap between the EQ Test based on Goleman's (1995) mixed model of emotional intelligence and various personality measures including the NEO Personality Inventory (Costa & McCrae,1985), considered to be one of the best measures of the big five personality dimensions. Openness and conscientiousness did not appear to be substantially correlated with the mixed model of emotional intelligence measures used in the study.

When reviewing studies in an attempt to investigate a "trait theory" of leadership, Bird (1940) noted that one characteristic that appeared repeatedly in studies of leaders was intelligence. The leaders were found to be, on the whole, more intelligent than their followers. Bird warns, however, that intelligence is only a contributing factor to leadership, and without assistance from other traits, it does not solely account for successful leadership. Similarly, Bass (1960) found that leaders usually have higher intelligence scores than followers, but not significantly higher. Might a high emotional intelligence be a more accurate descriptor of a successful leader than the standard intelligence quotient?

When attempting to clarify and define leadership, there appears to be a quality in the emotional realm that distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective leaders (Hoyle & Oats, 1998). The concept of emotional intelligence may offer some insights into effective educational leadership (King, 1999).Salovey and Mayer's (1990) initial definition of emotional intelligence described it as an intelligence that involves the ability to understand and assess one's own and other's emotions as well as use that information to regulate one's thoughts and actions. This definition inherently relates to the interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences discussed by Gardner (1983).

What is the importance of interpersonal skills to a leader? Bass (1990) reported that in several studies, he found interpersonal skills to be important in leadership. He defined interpersonal competence as "involving empathy, insight, heightened awareness, and the ability to give and receive feedback" (Bass, p. 10). Interpersonal skills endow a person with the ability to identify and accurately report one's feelings, or to empathize with the feelings of another in order to achieve cooperation rather than isolation (King, 1999).

Additionally, interpersonal skills involve the ability to act with generosity and understanding toward others (King). Goleman (1998) reported that companies waste vast sums of money each year on worker education and training programs that are ineffective because they omit vital interpersonal skills. Salopek (1998) found that a July 1998 survey of human resource directors at Fortune 1000 companies identified interpersonal skills as vital to an organization's success. Emotional competencies, Goleman stated, can be learned by any worker

at any career stage.

One of the behaviors that Callahan (1990) mentioned on his checklist of eight effective principal behaviors was high interpersonal skills. Cherniss (1998) noted that educational leaders, like airline pilots, have always needed people skills, but today they need them more than ever. In addition, King (1999) found that the very concept of leadership implies a working relationship with other people who follow and are influenced by the leader.

The ability to communicate effectively is often mentioned by researchers as an integral link to interpersonal skills and thus effective leadership (Kanter, 1983). Most of the literature on school leadership supports the importance of good communication as necessary to effective leadership (Lashway, Mazzarella, & Grundy, 1997).

Covey (1990) purported that understanding others is fundamental to interpersonal relations. Rost (1991) stated that one of the attributes of great leaders is honest communication. This includes the ability to intelligently deliver criticism so that valuable information may be shared with the employees to enhance their performance (Abraham, 1999).

Wright and Taylor (1994) looked at what constitutes effective communication. They stated that reading the members of the group, comprehending issues, and suiting a message to an audience are essential to good communication. In an interview with Goleman, Salopek (1998) explained communication - the sending of clear and convincing messages - as a vital part of interpersonal skills. McDowelle and Bell (1998) found that interpersonal skills and communication are strong components of emotional intelligence and leadership.

Empathy comprises a second piece of effective interpersonal skills and may be the most easily recognized (Goleman, 1998b). Empathy enables one to consider others' feelings (Goleman, 1998a). It is the ability to be aware of others' feelings, needs, and concerns (Salopek, 1998).

In the case of leadership, empathy permits emotionally intelligent managers to place

themselves in the position of the employee, understand the distress he or she is undergoing, experience those feelings themselves, and modify their communication appropriately (Abraham, 1999). Empathy enables the leader to be attuned to what is being said, measure its impact on the recipient, and prevent hurtfulness and humiliation (Levinson, 1992). In an interview with Goleman, Salopek (1998) revealed that empathy is one of the most important parts of a manager's tool kit. Goleman (1998a) found that trainers who are warm, genuine, and empathic are best able to engage learners in the change process. Greenleaf (1977) contended that follower trust is established if the leader displays empathy, understanding, and acceptance of the followers.

In terms of the follower, an empathic employee will be able to view weaknesses in his/her performance from the organization's perspective, perceiving them as detrimental to organizational success (Abraham, 1999).

Finally, Daniel (1998) advocated that great leadership involves huge social intelligence, including a well-developed sense of empathy.

A third component of interpersonal skills involves the ability to work and function within a team (McDowelle & Bell, 1997). Interpersonal expertise of a leader has been offered as an integral part in empowering others and building strong relationships (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). Teaming refers to the ability to create group synergy in the pursuit of collective goals (Salopek, 1998). Kelley and Caplan (1993) observed that optimum performing groups had members who built consensus, empathized with other members, promoted cooperation, and avoided conflicts. Daniel (1998) noted that the majority of the abilities necessary for success in over 121 companies worldwide involved teaming attributes such as trustworthiness, adaptability, and a talent for collaboration. Nelton (1996) reported that managers are learning that the necessity for teaming in the modern day work world requires greater EQ skills. William and Sternberg (1988) noted that dysfunctional interaction among the group lessened the group's ability to solve problems and act creatively.

For the leader, the ability to forge working relationships with many people and function

as mediator, negotiator, and networker is vital to success (Cherniss, 1998). A team's leader must be able to sense and understand the viewpoints of everyone involved. With a teaming spirit, people can be motivated to agree on a new marketing strategy or generate enthusiasm about a new product (Goleman, 1998b).

While the term 'interpersonal skills' describes interactions among people, intrapersonal skills refers to the feelings and actions within an individual (Gardner, 1985). McGarvey (1997) reported that emotional control is a key skill for successful leaders. Kelly and Moon (1998) defined intrapersonal abilities as personal talents that enable one to take constructive action with respect to both people and tasks. Such abilities help an individual develop self-awareness, capitalize on personal strengths, minimize personal weaknesses, make effective life decisions, and set and achieve goals (Kelly & Moon). Bocchino (1999) described intrapersonal intelligence as the sense of self-awareness that enables us to assume the third person, to observe ourselves, our emotions, our behaviors, and to be conscious of the insights we receive as a result of that observation.

An insightful leader exhibits intrapersonal aspects of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998a). Among them are included self-awareness, self-regulation, and the motivation to succeed. Goleman proffered that the higher one goes up the leadership ladder, the more important these emotional intelligence competencies become.

Personal initiative was one of the three most desired capabilities reported by employers of MBA's (Daniel, 1998). Salopek (1998) defined motivation as emotional tendencies that guide or facilitate the reaching of goals.

Goleman (1998b) reported that virtually all effective leaders have motivation. He also noted that people with high motivation remain optimistic even when the score is against them.Self-awareness is the part of intrapersonal skills that speaks to one understands of one's own emotions (Goleman, 1998b). Individuals who experience honest self-awareness also recognize their strengths, weaknesses, needs, and drives. Additionally, these people know how their feelings affect themselves, other people, and their job performance. People who

experience a high degree of self-regulation reflect a propensity for thoughtfulness, integrity, comfort with ambiguity, and an ability to say no to impulsive urges (Goleman, 1998b). Goleman (1998c) advocates self-regulation as an important attribute of leaders.

Finally, self-awareness and self-regulation help enable an individual to experience positive affect within themselves and others, and so contribute to well-being. Thus, "the emotionally intelligent person is often a pleasure to be around and leaves others feeling better" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 201).

Comparison of EI abilities to leadership traits

Several of the traits and behaviours associated with effective leaders (e.g., emotional stability, self-confidence, adaptability, and tenacity) overlap with the trait-based view of EI. An integral part of impression management is managing own emotions (which requires an ability to perceive others' emotions and one's own emotions). Theoretically, an individual who is high on impression management must also be adept at managing his or her own emotions and must also be able to correctly perceive others' emotions and one's own emotions. Charismatic leaders must have "insight into the needs, values, and hopes of their followers" (Bass, 1985, p.46). This insight may be facilitated through a higher level of emotional awareness and sensitivity. Bass (1985) also claimed that charismatic leaders are great actors, because they are engaging in impression management. Charismatic leaders create, communicate, and instill commitment toward a common vision (Bass, 1985). They create emotional responses (e.g., sense of excitement) in followers. Charismatic leaders create shared norms and tend to "actively shape and enlarge audiences through their own energy, self-confidence, assertiveness, ambition, a seizing of opportunities" (Bass, 1985; p.40).

Bass (1985) noted that when focusing on their individual followers, leaders must be supportive, considerate, empathetic, caring, and must give personalized attention. These requirements may be easier for an individual high in emotional intelligence, which is able to accurately perceive and understand others' emotions, while managing his or her own emotions.

Bass (1985) also recognized that in many situations military leaders are expected to be mentors and counselors to their followers. They must display developmentally-oriented behaviours (e.g., encourages delegation), conduct individual counseling, and become a mentor and role model for followers. Emotional intelligence may also help leaders understand the emotions of followers and understand how to manage his or own emotions. This emotional knowledge helps the leader become an effective mentor by modeling appropriate emotional responses. The emotional perception ability of leaders is critical to the counseling and mentoring role.

Although charismatic leadership has been associated with positive outcomes, charismatic leaders may be ineffective for several reasons. A leader may fail if he or she is unable to cope with the difficulties that he faces, if the leader is overly confident and unwilling to compromise his or her principles, or if the leader is cold or arrogant (Bass, 1985). Charismatic leaders who are also sensitive to their followers, who have a good understanding of their own emotions (as well as the emotions of their followers), and who are capable of managing their own emotions (i.e., having high EI) may be less likely to fail. That is, it is possible that EI moderates the relationship between charisma and leadership effectiveness. Future research must examine this issue. Moreover, charismatic leaders are not necessarily effective, and there is a potential dark side of charismatic leaders, which is evident if the number of charismatic leaders who manipulated their followers for their own gain (e.g., Adolf Hitler, Charles Manson, etc.). Some EI researchers have also suggested that an individual who was extremely high in EI may be excellent at impression management to the extent of negatively influencing people.

Mixed-model EI and leadership

Despite the view that mixed-model measures of EI do not actually assess EI, it may be worthwhile to examine these measures in conjunction with leadership. Even if these measures are not really EI, they could be very useful to organizations if they are associated with more effective leader (and organizational) performance. Traditional theories of leadership suggested that leaders must plan and think rationally without the influence of their emotions (George, 2000). Researchers have made reference to the notion that transformational or charismatic leaders "emotionally engage their followers" and "display emotions" in order to motivate their

followers to adopt the goals and values of the organization (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir et al., 1993). Furthermore, leaders form an emotional attachment with their followers that enhance the quality of their relationships and the effectiveness of the team and organization (e.g., Bass, 1998). Effective processing of emotional information may help leaders to deal with complex ambiguous information by directing their attention to the issues or threats that require immediate attention (George, 2000). Furthermore, Bass (1990) suggested that there is a social or emotional element inherent in transformational leadership.

Researchers have questioned for many years what predisposes certain individuals to adopt a transformational style of leadership, and what makes some leaders more effective than others (e.g., Barling et al., 2000; George, 2000; Judge & Bono, 2000; Mumford, Zaccaro, Johnson, Diana, Gilbert, & Threlfall, 2000). Several researchers have suggested that emotional intelligence may be a useful predictor of transformational / charismatic leadership behaviours (e.g., Barling et al., 2000; George, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Goleman, 1998; Sosik & Dworakivsky, 1998). However, there have been few attempts to determine the emotional processes involved in effective transformational leadership behaviours (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Barling et al., 2000; Gates, 1995; Megerian & Sosik, 1996). The limited evidence suggests that emotional intelligence is positively associated with transformational leadership (i.e., idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and contingent reward; Barling et al., 2000)

Nevertheless, the importance of social or emotional relationships are more evident in transformational versus transactional theories of leadership (Barling et al., 2000; Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Transactional leaders are reactive and do not tend to be concerned with engaging in interpersonal relationships with followers or being empathetic to follower's needs (Barling et al., 2000). The present review of emotional intelligence and leadership is concerned with effective leadership behaviours. Thus, in this paper, a theoretical link will be made between ability-based emotional intelligence (i.e., emotional perception, emotional facilitation / integration, emotional understanding, and emotional management; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) and elements of effective leadership as operationalized by the theory of transformational

leadership (i.e., idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation).

Perceiving, Appraising & Expressing Emotions

A leader displays idealized influence when he acts as a role model to followers through behaviours and personal accomplishments in order to earn the respect and admiration of followers (Bass, 1985). Leaders who possess the ability to perceive their own emotions and the emotions of their followers may be more effective at recognizing how their emotions can be used to earn the respect of their followers (Barling et al., 2000; George, 2000). Such a leader may utilize self-expression in order to accurately communicate, both verbally and nonverbally, the goals of the organization in order to earn the respect of followers (e.g., Shamir et al., 1993).

The leader's ability to accurately perceive, appraise, and express their own emotions and to perceive and appraise their follower's emotions may also result in the leader successfully communicating and instilling an organizational vision in followers (George, 2000). Individuals with heightened levels of emotional expression will more accurately express their beliefs and values to their followers providing followers with a greater understanding and identification with the organization's mission (e.g., George, 2000; Wasielewski, 1985). Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to be aware of their own emotions and moods (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Research suggests that a leader with heightened self-awareness may be more effective at inspiring followers (e.g., Atwater & Yammarino, 1997; Bass & Yammarino, 1989; Fleenor & McCauley, 1996; Sosik & Dworakivsky, 1998). Leaders who possess heightened levels of self-perception have been shown to be more effective leaders (Roush & Atwater, 1992). When the leader accurately perceives his / her follower's emotions and responds appropriately, the followers may be more receptive (George, 2000).

Individuals with an ability to accurately express emotions may be more likely to communicate in an emotionally expressive manner (Mayer et al., 2000c). An organizational vision communicated in an emotionally expressive manner, rather than a technical manner, may be more appealing to followers (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Transformational leaders tend to

arouse emotional responses in their followers in order to inspire them to believe in the organization's cause or mission (Bass, 1985). The ability to perceive and express emotions may be of particular importance when a leader engages in individualized consideration. Leaders who are sensitive to the needs of their followers and can accurately read their followers' emotions may be more likely to identify areas in which their followers may need development, thereby increasing the effectiveness of the group and organization (e.g., George, 2000). Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to be aware of their emotions and the impact that their emotions have on others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Leaders who are self-aware tend to possess heightened levels of interpersonal control (Sosik & Megerian, 1999) and may be more empathetic toward followers' needs (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). Individuals who can accurately read other people's emotions tend to be more effective at interpersonal interactions with co-workers (Mayer et al., 2000b). Research suggests that leader emotional expression tends to have an impact on both follower affect and perceptions of leader effectiveness (Lewis, 2000). When CEOs displayed an active negative emotion (i.e., anger) as opposed to passive negative emotion (i.e., sadness) followers tended to have a higher level of nervousness and a lower level of relaxation (Lewis, 2000). Furthermore, leaders who engaged in a neutral emotional tone received higher leader effectiveness ratings from followers than those leaders who displayed anger or sadness (Lewis, 2000).

A leader engages in intellectual stimulation when he / she encourage followers to think critically and to derive innovative solutions for dealing with problems (Bass, 1985). Leader's who possess the ability to perceive their followers' emotions will be more effective at understanding how to encourage them to engage in imaginative thinking and creative problem-solving (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Furthermore, knowing when to encourage creative thinking among followers may be dependent upon the leader's ability to perceive and appraise emotional information (George, 2000). An effective leader recognizes that particular moods and emotions may hinder creative thought in followers and through perceiving and appraising their followers' emotions understand when it is appropriate to encourage creative thought in followers (George, 2000). Effective leaders possess the ability to accurately interpret non-verbal cues from their followers in order to determine the needs of the situation (George, 2000). It is

important for leaders to be aware of followers' emotions in order to inspire them to solve problems (Barling et al., 2000; George, 2000). Emotional perception has been found to be associated with performance on a cognitive decision-making task that involved deciding on the order in which employees should be laid off in a hypothetical organization (Day & Carroll, 2002).

Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought

Leaders who engage in idealized influence may use their emotions in order to gain the respect and admiration of followers. Leaders who possess heightened levels of emotional intelligence may facilitate the experience of positive emotions in order to enhance the organization's functioning (George, 2000). In visualizing organizational improvements, leaders may earn the respect and trust of followers (George, 2000). Leaders who accurately appraise emotions may be more effective at utilizing emotional information to make decisions about how to gain the respect of their followers (George, 2000). Leaders use emotional content in stories and myths in order to communicate their values and beliefs to followers (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995).

In order for leaders to inspire and motivate their followers, they may utilize emotions to enhance the cognitive processing of events or issues that pose a threat to the organization (George, 2000; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). In turn, this enhanced cognitive processing may result in the leader having a clearer vision of the organization's future (George, 2000). Using this emotional information a leader may be able to successfully promote this vision to followers (George, 2000; Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Emotional information may be used by leaders to determine future courses of action (George, 2000). Furthermore, leaders use their emotions to promote a sense of optimism and enthusiasm among followers (Bass, 1985).

A leader displays individualized consideration when he / she acts as a mentor and supports followers. Effective leaders may use their emotions in order to promote the experience of positive emotions among their followers (George, 2000). Individuals with enhanced emotional integration skills possess the ability to use emotions to promote critical

thinking (Mayer et al., 2000d). Thus, leaders who are skilled at using their emotions may be more effective at intellectually stimulating their followers. In addition, leaders may use their emotions to direct their attention and their followers' attention to the problems that need resolving and use them to prioritize tasks (George, 2000).

Understanding and Reasoning with Emotions

Understanding and analyzing emotional knowledge is important for leader's instilling idealized influence or a sense of trust and reverence in followers (Barling et al., 2000; George, 2000). Followers may perceive leaders who are adept at understanding their own and others' emotions as role models (Barling et al., 2000). Effective leaders possess the ability to understand emotional information and can use this information to elicit positive emotions in followers. In turn, followers may be more likely to identify with the leader's moral and ethical values (George, 2000).

Leaders who possess the ability to understand followers' needs and expectations may have an advantage in terms of inspiring and motivating followers (Barling et al., 2000). It is important for leaders to understand their followers' emotions in order to inspire them to solve problems (George, 2000). Furthermore, the more skilled at understanding the influence that the leader's emotions can have on followers in problem situations the more likely the leader is too successfully inspire followers to overcome challenges and organizational issues (George, 2000). High emotional understanding individuals possess the ability to anticipate how others will respond in different situations (Mayer et al., 2000b). Accurate appraisal of followers' emotions and understanding why followers feel different emotions in different situations may result in the leader successfully conveying a sense of the organization's vision to followers (George, 2000).

Individualized consideration emphasizes focusing on follower needs and developmental goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Emotionally intelligent individuals possess the ability to be empathetic and to manage interpersonal relationships, thus it is expected that leaders with heightened levels of emotional intelligence would be successful transformational leaders

(Mayer et al., 2000c). Bass (1990) suggested that transformational leaders possess the ability to understand and interact with their followers, and can accurately recognize their followers' needs by being empathetic. Bass (1998) indicated that those individuals with heightened levels of individualized consideration tended to have positive relationships with co-workers, subordinates, and clients, and had expressed an interest in helping others and encouraging others to discuss their problems.

A high emotional understanding leader possesses the ability to understand followers' emotions and to interact with followers in order to achieve their desired goals (Barling et al., 2000; George, 2000). A leader's ability to understand the impact that his / her behaviour can have on the emotions of his followers, and the ability to understand that certain situations may elicit particular emotional responses, would be important in situations in which the leader was providing feedback to followers. When a leader possess the ability to understand the emotions of their followers, he / she may be more likely to take care when providing criticism (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Effective leaders possess the ability to distinguish between emotions that are genuine and those that are not genuine, and to distinguish between real emotions and expressed emotions (George, 2000). That is, understanding that followers may not express their true feelings in certain situations in order to appear socially appropriate is important for effective leadership (George, 2000). In order to communicate with followers despite obstacles a leader must understand their follower's emotions and the impact that their emotions will have on their followers' well-being (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). High emotional understanding leaders may also be more effective at intellectually stimulating their followers. Effective leader problem solving involves understanding people and social systems (Marshall-Meis, Fleishman, Martin, Zaccaro, Baughman, & McGee, 2000; Zaccaro, Mumford, Connelly, Marks, & Gilbert, 2000). Leaders who understand their own emotions and the emotions of their followers may be more skilled at solving problems and encouraging their followers to engage in problem-solving activities (George, 2000).

Managing / Regulating Emotions

A leader who possesses the ability to manage his / her emotions may be more likely to

exercise self-control in problem situations thus earning the respect and trust of followers (e.g., Barling et al., 2000; Megerian & Sosik, 1996). High emotional management leaders possess the ability to adapt their behaviour to match their followers' emotional needs in order to gain the admiration and respect of their followers (George, 2000). Transformational leaders are said to engage in self-sacrificial behaviours in order to benefit the group and / or organization (Bass, 1985). Leaders who possess the ability to manage / regulate their emotions may be more apt to engage in self-sacrifice (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). A leader who displays self-discipline and self-control may be more likely to delay gratification and be more committed to his / her morals and values (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Sosik and Dworakivsky (1998) found that ratings provided by subordinates on leaders' level of self-monitoring ability or ability to manage / regulate emotions were positively related to charismatic leadership behaviours. Leaders who can manage emotions in others may be successful at instilling motivation and enthusiasm in followers (George, 2000). Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to manage emotions in oneself and others by regulating the expression of negative emotions and enhancing the expression of positive emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Leaders' moods and emotions at work can have an impact on their followers. For example, George and Bettenhausen (1990) found that leaders' positive mood was positively associated with groups' prosocial behaviour and negatively associated with groups' turnover rate. Furthermore, George (1995) found that followers who were led by sales managers who experienced positive moods tended to provide higher quality customer service than those followers who were led by sales managers who did not experience positive moods at work.

High emotional management leaders may be more likely to manage negative emotions in order to express positive emotions to their followers that will promote a sense of enthusiasm and optimism in a stressful situation (e.g., Goleman, 1995; Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Effective leaders tend to engage in behaviours that result in their followers viewing them as self-confident and effective (House, 1995; Sosik & Dworakivsky, 1998). A leader who understands the impact that his / her emotions can have on behaviour would take action to modify their behaviour in order to portray a confident image. Leaders may engage in emotional self-

regulation in order to regulate the feelings of their followers (Sosik & Dworakivsky, 1998). By successfully managing interpersonal relationships a leader may also be able to promote a collective effort among followers (Megerian & Sosik, 1996).

A leader who cannot successfully manage his / her emotions in complex situations may have difficulty focusing on the needs of followers (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Leaders who are able to regulate their own emotions in order to attend to the needs of their followers may be viewed as more effective (George, 2000). For example, an effective leader would be able to detach themselves from the experience of negative emotions in order to support the needs of followers. Effective leaders possess the ability to successfully interact with their followers (Bass, 1990) and tend to be skilled at relationship management (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Warech and Smither (1998) found that leaders ability to monitor / regulate their emotions was positively associated with ratings of interpersonal effectiveness. High emotional management individuals also possess the ability to resolve conflict situations (Mayer et al., 2000b).

Intellectual stimulation involves questioning the status quo and developing new approaches to dealing with problem situations (e.g., Bass, 1998). Leaders who possess the ability to control their moods / emotions or express positive moods may be more likely to engage in creative and innovative thinking and to encourage this type of thinking among their followers (Isen, Daubman, & Nowicki, 1987). That is, by managing their emotions in order to promote the experience of positive moods / emotions, leaders may be more successful at engaging in innovative thought and problem solving (George, 2000; Sosik & Megerian,1999). Leaders who possess enhanced emotional intelligence may be more adept at repairing their moods / emotions in order to engage in creative thought to improve organizational functioning (George, 2000). Furthermore, an effective leader possesses knowledge of the impact of their moods / emotions on their behaviour, and can modify their emotions to fit the needs of the situation (George, 2000).

A high emotional management leader may be more effective at intellectually stimulating followers as a result of utilizing positive emotions to promote enthusiasm and creativity among followers (Megerian & Sosik, 1996). Ciarrochi et al. (2000) found that individuals who scored

highly on an ability-based emotional intelligence tended to retrieve positive moods when they were in both a positive and negative mood. Individuals who are in positive moods tend to provide more favourable evaluations, remember positive information, and provide more help to others (George, 1991).

Emotional intelligence and Conflict management

Conflict is a pervasive phenomenon that permeates a multitude of organizational processes and outcomes. Its omnipresence and the importance of conflict management has been acknowledged in diverse fields including psychology, communication, organizational behavior, information systems (IS), and marketing (e.g., Deutsch 1990; Greenhalgh 1987; Pondy 1967; Pruitt and Rubin 1986; Putnam and Poole 1987; Robey et al. 1989; Thomas 1976, 1992b; Wall and Callister 1995 .Numerous symptoms of conflict have been identified including hostility and jealousy (e.g., Smith and McKeen 1992), poor communication (e.g., Franz and Robey 1984), a proliferation of technical rules,norms, and regulations (e.g., Franz and Robey 1984), and frustration and low morale (e.g., Glasser 1981). As Smith and McKeen noted:

"...conflict is a very real part of corporate life and a major obstacle to effective computerization... conflict appears between IS and almost all other departments in a wide variety of contexts...Lack of trust and under- standing, hostility, and frustration with the other group are typical of these conflict relationships and these symptoms were evident between business managers and other personnel (p. 55)."

Research into behavior in organizations can be divided into two categories: normative and descriptive. This dual perspective is most apparent in approaches to the issues of conflict and conflict management in organizations. Normative approaches reflect attitudes and beliefs which identify all conflicts as destructive and promote conflict-eliminate as the formula for organizational success. Descriptive approaches accept conflict as inevitable and consider its proper management the primary responsibility of all administrators. Conflict is a natural disagreement resulting from individuals or groups that differ in attitudes, beliefs, values or needs. It can also originate from past rivalries and personality differences. Other causes of

conflict include trying to negotiate before the timing is right or before needed information is available.

Literature indicates that cooperative styles (problem solving, accommodating and compromising) are positively associated with constructive conflict management and with individual and organizational outcomes (Rahim and Magner, 1995) and show substantial concern for the other party. Among the three, problem solving style is generally perceived as the most appropriate, wh most effective, and highly competent style in managing conflicts (Gross and Guerrero, 2000; Papa and Canary, 1995). Based on their empirical study, Weider-Hatfield and Hatfield (1995) found problem-solving positively related to interpersonal outcomes. Burke (1970) suggested that, in general, problem solving style was related to the effective management of conflict, while asserting and avoiding were related to the infective management of conflict. Lawrence and Lorsch(1967) indicated that a confrontation style dealing with intergroup conflict was used to a significantly greater degree in higher than lower performing organizations.

Scholars believe that an individual's EI influences one's way of handling interpersonal conflict. Individuals with high EI may be more effective in resolving conflict than those with low EI (Goleman, 1998; Mayer et al., 1997). Likewise, Jordon and Troth's (2002) study showed that individuals with high EI prefer to seek cooperative solutions when confronted with conflict. Goleman (1998) suggests that emotionally intelligent employees are better able to negotiate and effectively handle their conflicts with organizational members.

As discussed above, a growing number of scholars suggest that emotional intelligence (EI) plays an important role in managing interpersonal conflicts (e.g., Rahim, 2001). However, there is little or no empirical data on relationships between EI and handling interpersonal conflicts conducted in an Indian organizational context. To fill the gap, the present study seeks to explore the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and conflict management styles as conceptualized by Kilmann and Thomas (1977), Putnam and Wilson (1982) and Rahim (1983). It is expected that the present study will help to generate knowledge on EI to improve conflict management in the Indian context.

Conflict Management and Gender Differences

Gender is one of the individual variables that have received much attention in conflict research (Gayle,Preiss &Allen,1994;Walters,Stuhlmacher&Meyer1998) for its potential moderating effect. Some researchers are attracted to this area of research in response to the fact that "skepticism surrounding women's ability to adopt managerial roles and responsibilities has prevailed since the advent of women within the corporate hierarchy" (Portello &Long, 1994). The researchers have explored and exploded the traditional view, along with impediment to women's progress through the managerial ranks, that women are not "as good as men" at handling conflict or at negotiating. Other researchers, taking to heart either traditional cultural stereotypes or the theories of cultural feminists, have sought to explore whether women really do speak in "a different voice" than men when negotiating or handling conflict (Korabik, Baril, & Watson, 1993).

Gender has been the focus in many aspects of communication. Scholars have disagreed about what differences exist and to what degree they exist between male and female managers concerning preferred conflict resolution style. Some scholars do not believe that gender significantly impacts communication strategies at all (Conrad, 1991; Korabik, Baril, & Watson, 1993). Kooorabik et al (1993) found that women managers do not differ from male manager in preferred conflict resolution style,butthey do differ from their non-managerial counterparts (Korabik, Baril,& Watson,1993). The situation demands investigation into the contradictory views to expose reality.

The contemporary view of conflict is that it can be positive force in organizations if it is managed properly (Jameson, 1999; Pelled, Eisenhardt & Xin, 1999; Rahim, 2001, 2002; Rahim,Manger& Shapiri,2000;Wall & Callister, 1995). As a positive force conflict can help maintain an optimum level of stimulation and activation among organizational members, can contribute to an organization's adaptive and innovative capabilities, and can serve as a basic source of feedback regarding critical relationships, the distribution of power, and the problems that require management attention (Miles, 1980). Conflict management styles have been and continue to be measured by a variety of different taxomanies. One of the first conceptual

schemes for classifying conflict revolved around a simple cooperation- competition dichotomy (Deutsch, 1949). While numerous researchers proposed revision of this framework, Rahim and Bonoma's (1979) conceptualized has been one of the most popular. They differentiate the styles of resolving interpersonal conflict on two basic dimensions: concern of self and concern for others. The first dimension explains the degree to which an individual tries to satisfy the needs or concerns of others.

Combining the two dimensions mentioned above results in five specific styles of conflict management i.e. integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding and compromising. Integrating is characterized by both high concerns for self and for others, while an avoiding style is associated with both low concerns for self and for others. An obliging style involves low concern for self and high concern for others; conversely a dominating style is characterized by high concern for self and low concern for others. Compromising is associated with intermediate concern for both self and others. It has been argued that individuals select among three or four styles (Pruitt, 1983; Putnam & Wilson, 1982), but evidence from confirmatory factor analysis suggests that the five factor model has a better fit with data than models of two, three and four styles (Rahim & Magner, 1994, 1995). Shockley & Morley (1984) assessed male-female preferences for conflict styles using 61 university students (20 males and 42 females) and 100 employed adults (28 males, 72 females). They completed a conflict mode instrument developed by K. Thomas and R.H. Kilman (1974) measuring preference for competing, collaborating, compromising avoiding, and accommodating conflict styles. Results show significant differences between males and females for competitive and compromising conflict styles.

Duane (1989) compared the extent to which 63 men and 7 women used 5 method of conflict management in resolving 1st step grievances of employees. Women were less inclined to avoid grievances related issues, tended to be more competitive, and were less willing to accommodate their opponents demands compared with men. However, Shockley & Morley did not seem to differ significantly in their use of collaborative or compromising modes of conflict management. Nelson & Lubin (1991) explore how legislators share power by administering the Conflict Mode Instrument by R. H. Kilman and K.W..Thomas to 49 Democratic and 49 Republic

Legislators (87 males and 11 females). No political party differences were found, but females were significantly higher on the Conflict Mode Instrument Accommodating subscale.

Therefore we conclude that conflict is an unavoidable component of human activity. Organizations are confronted with both internal & external sources of conflict. Internally, the conflict can range from disagreement over workloads to large union disputes. Whether the source of conflict is internal or external, it is important for manager, as the application of ineffective conflict strategies or styles can result in high stress, high turnover rates and litigations that can ultimately undermine the overall health of organization (Hirschman, 2001; Mckenzie, 2002. The purpose of this research was to investigate gender differences in conflict management styles in work setting as well as to identify the primary and secondary conflict management styles of men and women.

The study shows that there is no significant difference between men and women in handling of interpersonal conflicts. However, the women apparently excelled than men in terms of mean scores on obliging and compromising, whereas on the other hand the men have apparently higher mean scores on integrating and avoiding styles of conflict management as compared to women. The most preferred style for men managers is integrating and the least preferred is that of dominating. Whereas in case of women the most preferred style or the primary style is that of integrating as similar to men, but as far as the secondary style is concerned the women have avoiding style of conflict management, Gire (1993) obtained the similar findings showing a greater preference for neither negotiations nor collaboration. Duane (1989) also reported that gender did not seem to differ significantly in their use of collaborative or compromising modes of conflict management.

In the integrating style of conflict management it involves the high assertiveness and high cooperativeness, i.e. high concern for self as well as other party involved in conflict, that is why it is more used. Where as in the case of dominating, there is high concern for self and low concern for the other party involved. Cetin and Hacifazlioglu (2004) found that however gender play significant role in determining the conflict management style and female try to be les offensive towards their colleagues whereas, male convey a more flexible and tolerant attitude.

Feminine group scored higher than masculine for avoiding, and the masculine group was found to be significantly higher on dominating.

Conflict management styles and job performance

Organizational scholars have different perspectives about the relationship between conflict and organizational performance. Some scholars have contended that organizational conflict tended to hinder organizational performance and therefore should be avoided (Merton, 1949; Dyck et al., 1996; Robbins, 1991). Other scholars have regarded conflict as functional to organizations if it is managed properly (Jehn, 1995, 1997). They argue that conflict has an important role in optimizing organizational performance through developing "critical evaluation which decreases the groupthink phenomenon by increasing thoughtful consideration of criticism and alternative solutions" (Jehn, 1995, p. 260). To make conflict more productive, Jordan and Troth (2002) further suggest that the style used to handle interpersonal conflict is a crucial factor in successful conflict resolution.

The integrating style of conflict management improves job performance when the solution to a conflict would benefit both parties. Both conflicting parties are encouraged to satisfy their interests through exchanging information (Meyer, 2004). Satisfaction from resolving conflicts may lead individuals to exert greater efforts in achieving performance. For example, Weider-Hatfield and Hatfield (1995) found that the integrating style had a strong association with job satisfaction and job performance. However, that study did not provide any clear link between integrating style and job performance so that it lacked of theoretical and practical explanations. Rahim et al. (2001) also demonstrated that problem solving measured in terms of using more integrating style and less avoiding style, had a positive effect on the job performance.

Although no empirical studies have presented the connection between compromising style and job performance, many studies have found that employees prefer to use the compromising style in resolving conflict (e.g. Lee, 2003; Trubisky et al., 1991). Kim et al. (2007) compared three different groups in term of conflict management styles at the workplace and

found that the compromising style was used often when conflicts existed between employees and supervisors. The compromising style may produce beneficial results due to the fact that this style helps conflicting people quickly find solutions and provide benefits to both sides through concessions (Hocker and Wilmot, 1998; Gross and Guerrero, 2000; Rahim, 2002). Quick and acceptable solutions resulting from using the compromising style may simulate individuals to exert greater effort in achieving performance. Based on those arguments, we propose that both the integrating and compromising styles of conflict resolution will be positively related to job performance. It is generally accepted that the workplace is changing rapidly and that organizations need to adapt management practices to accommodate the increasing pace and growing diversity of their global environments.

Conflict in cooperative and competitive context

In addition to obscuring the reality that people with completely compatible goals not only can but often do have conflict, conflict as opposing interests is confounded with competition defined as incompatible goals. This confounding makes it unclear whether effects theorized or found are due to conflict or to competition.

The irony is that the literature has had an un-confounded definition of conflict for several decades. Morton Deutsch's (1973) theory of cooperation and competition indicated that defining conflict as opposing interests is fundamentally flawed. Although Deutsch is one of the most prominent conflict researchers (e.g., the first recipient of the International Association for Conflict Management's Life-Time Achievement Award), the implications for his definition of conflict have been largely missed. There does not appear to have been enough direct, open conflict about definitions to generate questioning of traditional definitions and developing more effective ones!

Deutsch defined conflict as incompatible activities; one person's actions interfere, obstruct or in some way get in the way of another's action. Incompatible activities occur in both cooperative and competitive contexts. Whether the protagonists believe their goals are cooperative or competitive very much affects their expectations, interaction, and outcomes.

How they negotiate their conflict in turn affects the extent to which they believe they have cooperative or competitive goals with each other. A great deal of evidence from various researchers underlines that cooperative conflict captures many benefits of conflict and is the basis for constructive conflict management whereas assuming goals are incompatible interferences. Previous articles have summaried our own studies (Tjosvold, 1991; Tjosvold et al., forthcoming). This section briefly notes how research studies document that cooperatively managed conflict very much contributes to productive teamwork, including top management teams, and leadership.

Cooperative conflict discussions helped Hong Kong accountants and managers dig into and resolve budget issues, strengthen their relationships, and improve budget quality so that limited financial resources were used wisely (Poon et al., 2001). Over 100 teams working in Chinese organizations who discussed issues cooperatively and openly were able to deal with biases and took risks effectively (Tjosvold and Yu, forthcoming). According to their managers, these risk-taking groups were able both to innovate and to recover from their mistakes. Cooperative conflict management can very much contribute to effective top management teams. Executives from 105 high technology firms around Beijing who indicated that they relied on cooperative rather than competitive or and avoiding conflict were rated by their CEOs as effectiveness and their organizations as innovative (Chen et al., 2005). Cooperative, open conflict helped Hong Kong senior accounting managers effectively lead employees in mainland China (Tjosvold and Moy, 1998) and Chinese employees work with their American and Japanese managers (Chen, Tjosvold and Su, forthcoming). Cooperative, constructive controversy interactions were also found critical for Chinese staff to work productively and developed relationships with Japanese managers, outcomes that in turn built commitment to their Japanese companies (Tjosvold et al., 1998). Cooperative conflict facilitated employees development of effective relationships with their Western managers (Chen, Su and Tjosvold, forthcoming).

More than 200 Chinese employees from various industries indicated that cooperative, but not competitive or independent, goals helped them and their foreign managers develop a

quality leader-member exchange relationship and improve leader effectiveness, employee commitment, and future collaboration (Chen and Tjosvold, forthcoming). Cooperative, open-minded discussion of opposing views appears to be an important aid for overcoming obstacles and developing effective leader relationships within and across cultural boundaries.

Field and experimental studies in North America and Asia provide strong internal and external validity to central hypotheses of cooperative and competitive conflict. Whether protagonists emphasize cooperative or competitive goals drastically affects the dynamics and outcomes of their conflict management. Contrary to traditional theorizing, Chinese participants appear to appreciate others who speak their minds directly and cooperatively.

Making choices in Conflict is often experienced as something that happens to people and that conflict escalation is built into the situation. The kind of conflict has been theorized to be critical. Specifically, value, emotional, and relationship conflicts are thought to result, nearly inevitably, in destructive outcomes. The more frequent and intense the relationship compared to the task conflict, the more negative the effects on group productivity. But the research support for this theorizing is unconvincing (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003).

Conflict does not just happen nor does conflict escalate by itself. People make choices that escalate conflict or lead to more constructive outcomes. They can, for example, manage their angry conflicts effectively or ineffectively (Averill, 1982; Tjosvold and Su, forthcoming). It may be that certain kinds of conflicts are generally more difficult for people to make effective choices, although documenting this idea might prove highly difficult. What counts though are the choices the participants make and the skills they use to implement them? People control conflict; conflict does not control people. Alas, controlling conflict productively is much easier accomplished through the combined efforts of all protagonists.

Critical choices begin with how people understand and frame the conflict. They construct whether they are in conflict, the issues at stake, indeed, and their feelings. They feel angry at another's incompatible action if they believe they have been deliberately and

unjustifiably frustrated, but not if they accept that the other did not intend or was justified in frustrating them (Averill, 1982; Tjosvold and Su, forthcoming).

Impact of leadership on conflicts

While some researchers (Bass and Riggio, 2006) stress the central role leaders can playin conflict management, research on transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership and conflict in situations of organizational change is rather scarce. The few studies that have addressed this issue remain mostly theoretical in nature.

Transformational leadership and conflict

In this section, we expose how the four dimensions associated with transformational leadership can diminish conflict. In general, Bass and Riggio (2006) argue that by emphasizing the organization's interests over the individual's own interests, transformational leaders find ways to resolve conflict between subordinates. More specifically, as of 1978, Burns has postulated that, although conflict is inherent to human relationships, a shared vision developed by the transformational leader could contribute to reducing conflict. Moreover, by acting as role models, transformational leaders are able to show how subordinates can gain from cooperating with one another rather than holding rigid positions. Through intellectual stimulation, these leaders can also move employees involved in a conflict situation toward integrative and collaborative solutions, thus transforming the conflict into a mutual problem to be solved (Bass and Riggio, 2006, p. 69). Moreover, some research studies have shown that transformational leadership is linked to higher rates of cohesion and that it strengthens the collective identity of a group of employees (Carless et al., 1995; Shamir et al., 1993). Transformational leaders can also reduce conflict by being sensitive to their subordinates' needs. This individualized consideration could therefore encourage their employees to respect and understand the position and needs of others and, at times, overcome any rigid positions they may hold (Bass and Riggio, 2006). For their part, Parent and Gallupe (2001) argue that transformational leaders reduce conflict levels among employees involved in a group support system (i.e. an interactive-based tool that helps decision making and task completion in a

group). Finally, Xin and Pelled (2003) established a negative relationship between emotional conflict and supervisors' emotional support and creativity encouragement, two leadership behaviors that are respectively similar to the inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation dimensions of transformational leadership. More specifically, they found that employees who experience this kind of conflict perceive their leaders as expressing less confidence in achieving goals and encouraging their creativity to a lesser extent.

Transactional leadership and conflict

By clarifying certain objectives and rewarding good performance, a transactional leader can maintain positive interactions among his/her subordinates, therefore reducing emotional conflict. Kotlyar and Karakowski (2006) argue that leaders who promote clear rules of conduct and are able to manage subordinates' expectations in a team could reduce the level of frustration that could emerge from their interactions. These two authors find that the behaviors of transactional leaders are associated with lower levels of affective conflict when compared with transformational leadership. For Bass and Riggio (2006) transactional leaders should reduce conflict because they look for expedient compromises that are rewarding. This search for neutral solutions could often be more satisfactory for both parties and therefore diminish potential conflicts. However, Parent and Gallupe (2001) find that, in a group support system environment, a leader who adopts a management by exception style tends to increase conflict among subordinates.

Laissez-faire leadership and conflict

We found a lot less in terms of evidence in the literature respecting the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and conflict. The only study we identified was the one by Bass and Riggio (2006), who propose that laissez-faire leadership could sometimes be a good alternative as it allows conflicts to be resolved by themselves. This positive relationship

between laissez-faire leadership and conflict could nevertheless be viewed in the opposite light, as it could be argued that not intervening in a conflict situation could effectively lead to higher levels of conflict. Indeed, if frustrations, problems or frictions are allowed to pile up, then even minor disagreements may very well degenerate into major conflicts and even expand, involving other individuals. Because it seems that laissez-faire leadership can go both ways on conflict

Needs and significance of the study

Researchers have described the benefits of possessing a high EI. Such individuals are found to be healthier and more successful than their less emotionally intelligent peers (Cooper, 1997). Many characteristics owned by emotionally intelligent people coincide with the characteristics desired in leaders. Emotionally intelligent individuals are found to have strong personal relationships (Cooper), monitor and evaluate others' feelings (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), empathize with others (Kelley & Caplan, 1993), and excel in interpersonal skills (Goleman, 1998a). The only two studies to examine EI and leadership have utilized mixed-model measures of EI. Barling, Slater, and Kelloway (2000) found that EI scores were related to subordinates' ratings of transformational leadership. Because of the large overlap of the mixed-model measures of EI and personality, the link between EI and leadership may be due solely to the shared variance with personality. Research has indicated that personality may predict effective leadership behaviours. For example, Judge and Bono (2000) found that extraversion and agreeableness uniquely predicted transformational leadership, while controlling for the effects of the other Big 5 factors. Openness to experience had a significant zero-order correlation with transformational leadership, although this relationship disappeared when the five factors were examined jointly. Neuroticism and conscientiousness were unrelated to transformational leadership.

One of the high performance leadership competencies that Schroder and colleagues (Schroder 1997; Spangenberg, Schroder, & Duvenage, 1999) identified is Interpersonal learning. It is feasible that EI (especially the Interpersonal Skills factor of the EQ-i, Bar-On, 1997) would overlap significantly with this factor. Again, these studies on leadership competencies may reinforce the idea that certain factors of the mixed-model measures of EI are not truly EI, but

are effective leader competencies. Future research should examine these issues and relate them to existing validated measures (e.g., 5-factor model of personality, self-monitoring abiltiy, empathy, self-control, and delayed gratification).

Review of existing literature suggests that EI plays an important role in leadership and decision making. A growing number of scholars suggest that emotional intelligence plays an important role in managing interpersonal conflicts (e.g. Rahim, 2001). However, there is little empirical data on relationship among emotional intelligence, leadership styles and handling interpersonal conflict conducted in an Indian organizational context except Singh (2007) to explore relationship between EI and leadership in Indian context based on gender with a small sample of IT professionals. Rajendran, Downey, and Stough (2007) explored the preliminary reliability of EI in Indian Context. Such a gap in the existing scene of research in the field of EI provides motivation to carry out this study.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

Chapter 1 presented an introduction to the topic of emotional intelligence, the purpose of the study, and a brief description of how emotional intelligence relates to leadership and inter-personal conflicts. Chapter 2 contained a review of the literature concerning emotional intelligence - especially as it has been shown to enhance leadership and conflict management. This chapter includes an analysis of the research design, a description of the population and sample, an explanation of the data collection, a description of the instrumentation, an explanation of the data analysis, and a summary.

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to explore the emotional intelligence levels among managers working at different levels of organizational hierarchy. In this pursuit, it was sought to determine the strength of the relationship that existed between the emotional intelligence scores of managers as measured by the *Emotional Competence Inventory* (ECI) (Boyatzis et al.,

1999) and their perception of interpersonal conflicts, handling of interpersonal conflicts and leadership styles.

This study was designed to be correlational. It was a relationship study designed to analyze the strength of relationship between variables (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). One limitation to this type of research is the tendency to infer that one event "causes" another event. This is misleading because the impact could be the result of a third variable. Another limitation of a correlational study could be that the relationship between two variables is the result of an artifact. An example would be a false positive relationship between two scales because the scales themselves contained similar items and not because their items are causally related (Gall et al.).

An advantage to the correlation method is its usefulness in studying problems in management and in other social sciences. Correlation research permits the researcher to investigate relationships among a large number of variables. Another advantage of the correlation method is that it provides information about the degree to which certain variables are related (Gall et al., 1996).

In summary, only an experiment can prove a definitive cause-and-effect relationship. Correlation coefficients are best used to measure the degree of relationship between two or more variables and explore possible causal factors (Gall et al., 1996).

Statement of the problem

"Relationship among emotional intelligence, leadership styles and conflict management"

Definitions of Terms

For the purpose of this research, the following definitions apply

1. Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thoughts; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate

emotions to promote professional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10).

2. The term conflict has been employed in different ways reflecting the different levels at which conflicts exist (Deutsch, 1990; Thomas, 1992a). According to Thomas (1992a) there are two broad uses of the term conflict. The first refers to incompatible response tendencies within an individual, e.g., behavioral conflicts where one must choose whether or not to pursue a particular course of action or a goal, or role conflict where one must choose between several competing sets of role demands. The second use refers to conflicts that occur between different individuals, groups, organizations, or other social units. Hence, the terms interpersonal, inter-group, and inter-organizational conflict are used. Putnam and Poole (1987) and Thomas (1992a, 1992b) on the basis of their analysis of numerous conceptualizations and definitions of conflict identified three general themes or properties: interdependence, disagreement, and interference.

3. Leadership is a social skill. It consists of certain attitudes and behavior (acts) towards others and a way of conducting oneself which enables a person to cause others to follow him willingly or which enables one to cause others to follow him for a common goal. The ability of a person to cause others to follow him for a goal is the mark of leadership.

Objectives of the study

In the present study the investigator has considered three variables of interest namely "emotional intelligence, leadership and conflict management." Each of these variables was supposed to be related to each other. The objectives of the study were:

1. To see the relationship of emotional intelligence and leadership.

2. To see the relationship of emotional intelligence and conflict management.

3. To see the relationship of leadership and conflict management.

Hypotheses

In this study following statistical null versus alternative hypotheses were investigated:

1. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership.
2. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management.
3. There is no significant relationship between leadership and conflict management.

Population and Sample

- A total of 1,125 managers working at different levels of organizational hierarchy made the sample of the study. The organizations were chosen based upon their location and sector. All managers present for work were required to appear and fill their responses in questionnaire provided to them by the research scholar. They were encouraged to give frank and honest responses to all questions.
- A total of 1,125 questionnaires were completed, of which 981 were usable for the purposes of the study. Usable self- reports were available for 161 managers who had also completed the questionnaire.

Delimitations of the study

Certain delimitations of the study must be considered. They are listed below:

1. The study has been delimited to a sample of 981 managers.
2. The data collected was self-reported and, therefore, subject to the limitations of that process.

Instrumentation

The indicator of emotional intelligence that was used in this study was the *Emotional Competence Inventory* (ECI) (Boyatzis et al., 1999). This inventory includes self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills.

Self-awareness consists of knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions. This dimension contains the competencies of emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self confidence.

Self-management involves the management of one's internal states, impulses, and resources to facilitate reaching goals.

Social Awareness refers to being aware of others' feelings, needs and concerns.

Social Skills are the basic skills in interpersonal relationships. It involves adeptness at inducting desirable responses in others.

It consists of 80 items that reflect adaptive tendency toward emotional intelligence. Each item in the questionnaire described a work-related behavior. Respondents used a 7-point Likert scale. The higher the score, the greater the tendency an individual possessed to exhibit emotionally intelligent behavior. The ECI is divided into 4 clusters. An average for each cluster was found by summing responses (1-7) to the corresponding questions that pertain to a cluster and dividing by the number of valid responses.

In addition to the ECI, A questionnaire measuring Interpersonal Conflict and Conflict Management Styles was used. Interpersonal conflict was defined as a phenomenon that occurs between interdependent parties when they experience negative emotional reactions to perceived disagreements and interference concerning the parties' goals. Given the lack of reliable and validated measures of interpersonal conflict, items were developed to assess each of the four definitional properties: interdependence, disagreement and interference. Twenty items, adapted from previous measures (Kilmann and Thomas 1977; Rahim 1983), were used to assess the extent to which students employed five styles (problem-solving, asserting, avoiding, compromising, and accommodating). For each style, two items inquired respondent's own

behaviors, and two items asked about the behaviors of the other party (ies). Conceptually, these indices measure the overall usage of each style by everyone involved, and not only the respondent's own usage of the style. As such, relationships between interpersonal conflicts (reflecting the interdependence, disagreement, interference, and negative emotions of all participants in the project) and conflict management styles (again reflecting the behavioral styles of all project participants) can be investigated. This questionnaire measures five different styles of conflict management: asserting, accommodating, compromising, problem-solving, and avoiding. These styles are seen as general strategies or behavioral orientations that individuals adopt for managing and resolving conflicts.

Asserting style (also described as competing, controlling, distributive or contending style) occurs as individuals strive to win. In this style one party make gains at the cost of the gains of other party. Conflict, therefore, is considered a win- lose situation. Like asserting, **accommodating style** (also described as obliging style, non confrontation, yielding, or lose-win style) also occurs when individuals sacrifice their own needs and desires in order to satisfy the needs of other parties. This occurs as individuals oblige or yield to others' positions, or cooperate in an attempt to resolve conflicts. **Compromising** is a third style (also described as mixed motive in game theory) frequently splits the difference or involves give and take behaviors where each party wins some and loses some. **Problem-solving style** (also described integrating style, collaborative, cooperation, solution-oriented and win-win or positive sum style) occurs when individuals in conflict try to fully satisfy the concerns of all parties. Here, actions are aimed at the achievement of goals and objectives of all parties. Hence, it results as a win-win solution. Finally, **avoiding style** (inaction, withdrawal, or ignoring style) occurs when individuals are indifferent to the concerns of either party and refuse to act or participate in conflict. Here, one withdraws, physically or psychologically, abdicating all responsibility for the solution. The style items assessed these behaviors on 7-point scales ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always).

Leadership styles were assessed by using *The Teal Trust Leadership Style Indicator* (2001). It comprises of 30 items assesses six styles of leadership viz. Pioneering, Strategic, Management/Administrative, Team leadership, Pastoral and Encouraging.

Pioneer leaders are those who are willing to push themselves, and take appropriate risks in striving to move forwards to discover and reach long term goals. Pioneering leaders are passionate about the vision, and are wholly committed to it. Pioneering leaders are at their strongest in the early stages of a vision or project. However as time passes they may lose interest in the implementation of a vision, eager to be looking ahead to the next challenge. Strategic Leaders can break down visions and large aims into manageable chunks that are vital for the project. Strategic leaders have the insight and focus to work out ways of achieving the vision, the "how", and are able to persuade the rest of the group to accept this plan. Strategic leaders can bring common sense to a difficult task - able to help people see how the seemingly impossible can be achieved. However, like pioneers, they can be less engaged with the implementation of a task, preferring to leave this to others. Any vision or change will require people able to plan and problem solve, delegate and organize. Without this gift, the best plans may well not get implemented. Managers are often underappreciated, having a leadership style which is less "up-front" than some of the other styles. However, much of the work simply would not get done without Management/Administration leaders. They are able to organize, and follow through on all the necessary tasks and activities to ensure that the project is completed on time. They may struggle to relate to the visionary pioneers - dreaming of achieving the impossible is not their home ground. Team Leadership includes leadership in a group context, whether the leader has a formal leadership role in a group or not. The key strengths of team leaders are a desire to work with others, and an ability to trust them. Team leaders need great humility and servant hood - their sole aim is that the team achieves its goals. What they as individuals achieve is secondary. Team leaders are invaluable - if the church is truly to function as a body, team leaders are needed to ensure harmony and effectiveness in the way the team works. **Pastoral leaders** are real "people people", who have an important role in supporting the pioneers, strategists, team leaders and the rest of the organization, particularly when times are hard. Vision and moving into vision seem less important to pastoral leaders. Pastoral leadership

is often unseen, and often unappreciated publically, yet hugely important. Those who are pastoral leaders can sometimes be threatened by the pioneers and strategists - and at times are irritated by the attention to detail shown by the managers. Yet their contribution to a team is invaluable - take time for a moment to think of a pastoral leader - and you will probably find that they command huge respect and support. **Encouraging leaders** are able to motivate teams and individuals. They have great discernment into people's gifts, their feelings and what motivates them, able to release them into fulfilling their goals. Encouraging leaders have the knack of knowing when a quiet word can spur people on, when to challenge and when to support, when to coach and when to give space. Occasionally they may irritate people by appearing less "involved" than other leadership styles - sometimes people want more than just encouragement.

Data Collection

The study was limited to 1125 managers working at different levels of organizational hierarchy. All the participants were contacted and requested to fill their responses in the questionnaire provided to them by the research scholar. The purpose of the study was explained to them and they were encouraged to give frank and honest responses to all questions. Amongst all the responses gathered 981 were usable for the purposes of the study.

Data Analysis

For the purpose of data analysis SPSS software is used. The following statistical were used:

1. Descriptive statistics
2. Cronbach Alpha, to check the reliability
3. P-P plot to check the normality of the data

4. Pearson product-moment Correlation

5. Linear regression

Level of significance to accept the results is 0.05 or higher than 0.05

Chapter 4

ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION & FINDING

After collecting data it is imperative to analyze the data in order to extract the desired information from the same since the raw data gathered on certain tests have no meaning and appear like a heap of certain hidden facts or information. Keeping in view the objectives of the underlying study and their corresponding hypotheses, the data were statistically processed using appropriate design and techniques.

Therefore, keeping in view the nature of study the investigator adopted a descriptive survey method to carry out the study. Descriptive survey method deals with, what exists at present and it describes and interprets the current prevailing conditions, relationships and practices. It is a relationship study designed to analyze the relationship between variables (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). An advantage to the correlation method is that it permits the researcher to investigate relationships among a large number of variables. Another advantage of the correlation method is that it provides information about the degree to which certain variables are related.

First of all, the reliability of the data was tested by computing Cronbach's Alpha Model .. The variable wise reliability coefficients are emotional intelligence $\alpha = .823$, leadership $\alpha = .762$ and conflict management $\alpha = .673$.The descriptive statistics of the data are given in table 4.1

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics of the Data N=981

Variable	Range of scores	Min score	Max score	Mean score	Std. Dev.
Self-awareness	0 - 105	44	99	73.11	10.38
Self-management	0 - 182	59	169	127.24	18.37
Social-awareness	0 - 105	28	116	80.65	11.27
Social-skill	0 - 168	13	165	125.37	21.02
Emotional Intelligence	0 - 560	180	514	406.36	51.46
Pioneering Leadership	0 - 35	15	35	25.57	4.19
Strategic Leadership	0 - 35	15	35	24.82	3.45
Management Leadership	0 - 35	14	34	25.18	4.04
Team Leadership	0 -35	6	34	25.11	4.28
Pastoral Leadership	0 - 35	14	30	23.45	3.29
Encouraging Leadership	0 - 35	11	35	23.41	3.53
Problem Solving	0 -28	4	28	20.43	4.16
Asserting	0 - 28	4	28	18.93	4.43
Avoiding	0 - 28	2	27	14.04	5.43
Compromising	0 - 28	4	28	18.61	4.26
Accommodating	0 - 28	5	27	17.48	4.07

After finding the data reliable, at next step the normality distribution of dependent variables Y_1 (pioneering leadership), Y_2 (strategic leadership), Y_3 (management leadership), Y_4 (team leadership), Y_5 (pastoral leadership), and Y_6 (encouraging leadership) and explanatory variable X (emotional intelligence) and its constituents X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social awareness) and X_4 (social skills) was checked. The normality assumption of data is an essential condition for application of parametric tests.

For this purpose Normal P-P plot technique was applied. In a P-P normal plot, the expected normal percentile values are plotted against the observed sample percentile (i.e. sample percentile) values. The results are presented below.

Figure 4.1: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership)

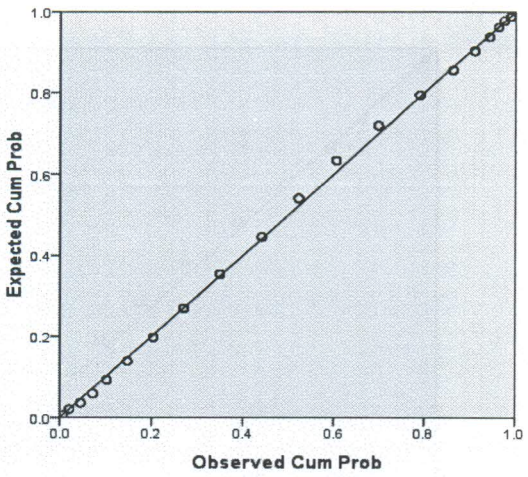

Figure 4.1 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_1 (pioneering leadership).

Figure 4.2: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_2 (strategic leadership)

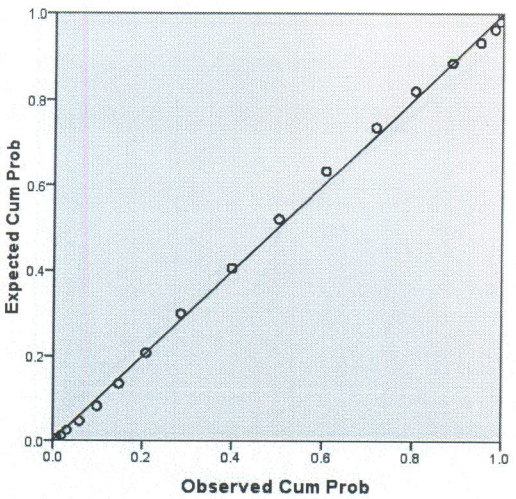

Figure 4.2 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_2 (strategic leadership).

Figure 4.3: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_3 (management leadership)

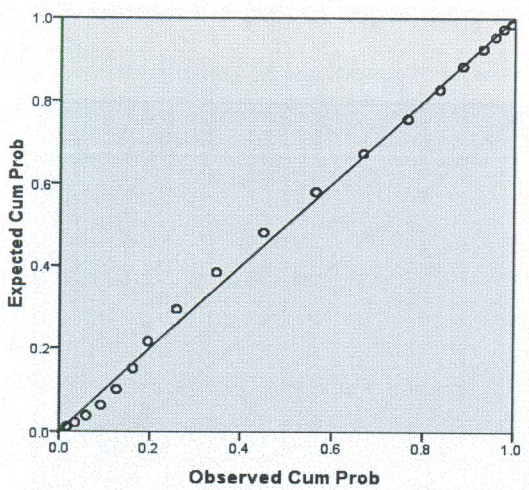

Figure 4.3 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_3 (management leadership).

Figure 4.4: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_4 (team leadership)

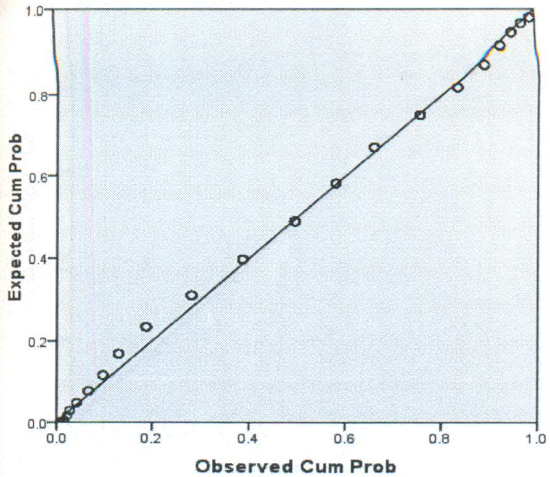

Figure 4.4 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_4 (team leadership).

Figure 4.5: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_5 (pastoral leadership)

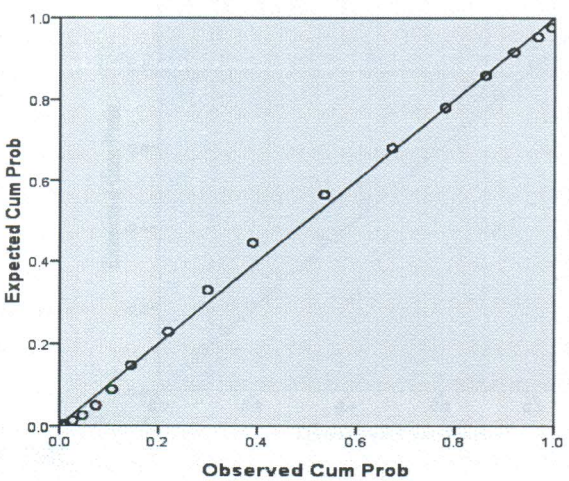

Figure 4.5 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_5 (pastoral leadership).

Figure 4.6: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership)

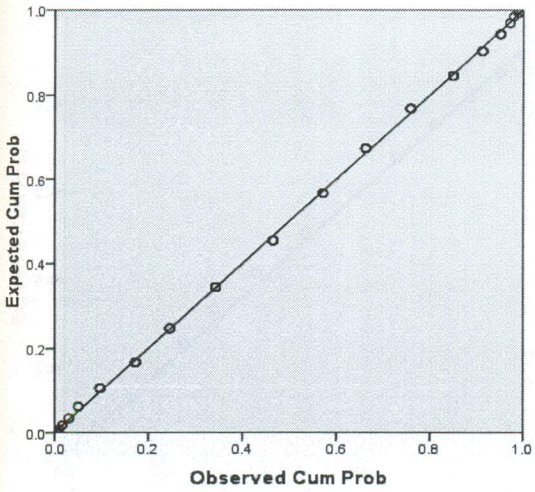

Figure 4.6 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_6 (encouraging leadership).

Figure 4.7: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_7 (problem solving)

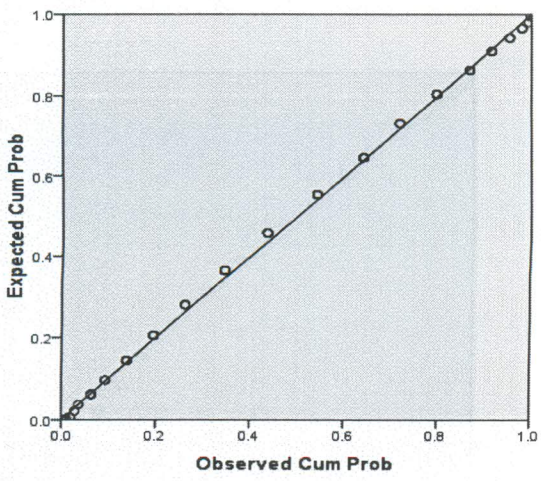

Figure 4.7 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_7 (problem solving).

Figure 4.8: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_8 (asserting)

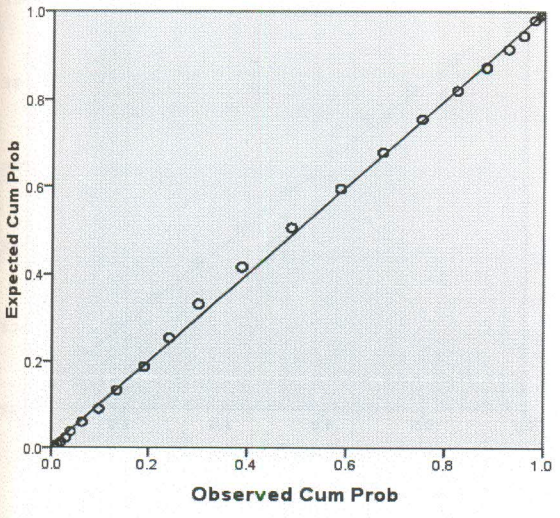

Figure 4.8 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_8 (asserting).

Figure 4.9: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_9 (avoiding)

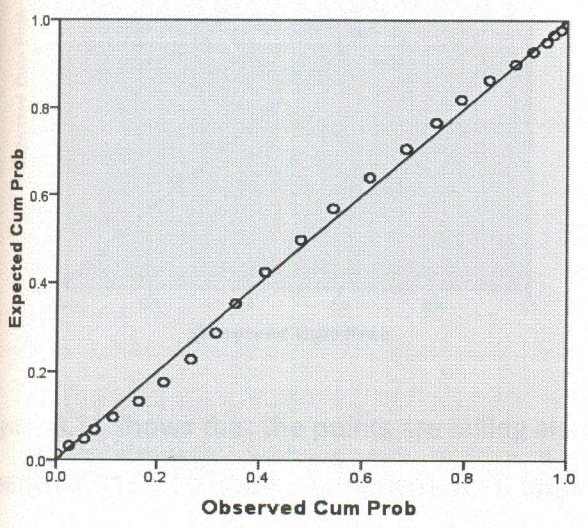

Figure 4.9 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_9 (avoiding).

Figure 4.10: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_{10} (compromising)

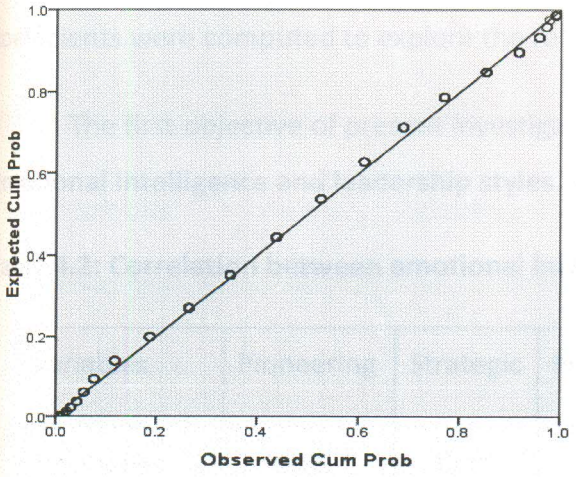

Figure 4.10 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_{10} (compromising).

Figure 4.11: Normal P-P plot of dependent variable Y_{11} (accommodating)

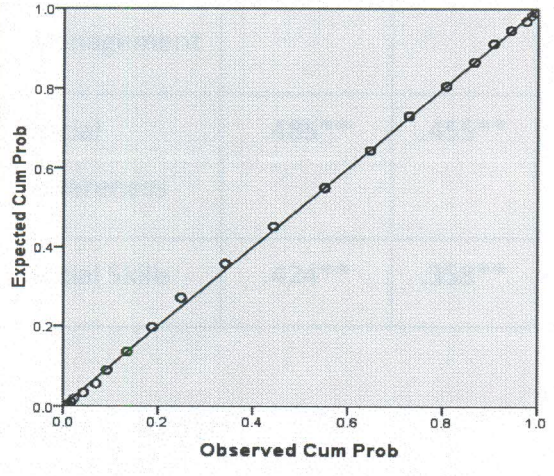

Figure 4.11 shows that the points are falling along the line. It ensures the normality assumption, needed in multiple linear regressions of Y_{11} (accommodating).

The purpose of the study was to investigate linear relationships among emotional intelligence, leadership styles and conflict management. The Karl Pearson's correlation coefficients were computed to explore the relationships among the variables.

The first objective of present investigation was **to explore the relationship between the emotional intelligence and leadership styles**. The results are presented in the table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Correlation between emotional intelligence and leadership styles

Variables	Pioneering	Strategic	Management	Team	Pastoral	Encouraging
Emotional Intelligence	.564**	.451**	.487**	.536**	.419**	.447**
Self Awareness	.522**	.418**	.436**	.389**	.347**	.303**
Self Management	.501**	.337**	.414**	.426**	.313**	.336**
Social Awareness	.485**	.455**	.408**	.423**	.379**	.369**
Social Skills	.424**	.358**	.396**	.520**	.377**	.452**

$p < 0.05$ * $p < 0.01$**

The analysis of table 4.2 reflects that emotional intelligence is positively correlated with pioneering, strategic, management, team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership.

Even the subscales self-awareness, self management, social awareness and social skills are positively correlated with pioneering, strategic, management, team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership.

The second objective of the study was **to explore the relationship between the emotional intelligence and conflict management styles**. The correlation results are presented in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Correlation between emotional intelligence and styles of conflict management

Variables	Problem Solving	Asserting	Avoiding	Compromising	Accommodating
Emotional Intelligence	.331**	.399**	-.060	.274**	.260**
Self Awareness	.245**	.304**	.022	.199**	.177**
Self Management	.294**	.305**	-.041	.233**	.250**
Social Awareness	.375**	.407**	-.060	.257**	.263**
Social Skills	.232**	.341**	-.068	.231**	.190**

$p < 0.05$ * $p < 0.01$**

The analysis of table 4.3 reflects that emotional intelligence is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. There is no significant correlation between emotional intelligence and avoiding style of conflict management.

If we see at subscale level self-awareness, self -management, social awareness and social skills are positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. There is no significant correlation between self-

awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills and avoiding style of conflict management.

The third objective of the present was **to explore the relationship between the leadership and conflict management**. The results are presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Correlation between leadership styles and styles of conflict management

Variables	Problem Solving	Asserting	Avoiding	Compromising	Accommodating
Pioneering	.140*	.210**	-.119	.143**	-.069
Strategic	.221**	.155*	-.157*	.028	.081
Management	.293**	.218**	-.013	.261**	.225**
Team	.149*	.200**	-.161*	.162*	.206**
Pastoral	.181**	.192**	-.023	.132*	.139*
Encouraging	.222**	.236**	.042	.151*	.138*

$p< 0.05$ * $p < 0.01$**

The analysis of table 4.4 reflects that pioneering style of leadership has significant positive relationship with problem solving, asserting and compromising styles. It has no relationship with avoiding and accommodating styles of conflict management

Strategic leadership style is positively correlated with problem solving and asserting styles of conflict management it is negatively correlated with avoiding style of conflict management. It has no relationship with compromising and accommodating style of conflict management.

Management style of leadership has positive correlation with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no relationship with avoiding style of conflict management.

Team leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It is negatively correlated with avoiding style of conflict management

Pastoral leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no correlation with avoiding style of conflict management

Encouraging leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no correlation with avoiding style of conflict management.

Regression

The results indicating significant relationship between independent and dependent variables motivated the investigator to use Multiple Linear Regression to establish the linear relationships between the independent and the dependent variables. These linear relationships are useful to predict the value of dependent variable for given values of the explanatory variables.

Pioneering Leadership

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership) is:

Y_1(pioneering leadership) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self-awareness) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (self- management) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership) are given in table 4.5 below:

Table 4.5: Successive models for dependent variable Y_1 (Pioneering Leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.522[a]	.273	.270	3.57986
2	.575[b]	.330	.325	3.44224
3	.587[c]	.344	.336	3.41295

a Predictors: (Constant), Self-awareness

b Predictors: (Constant), Self-awareness, Social awareness

c Predictors: (Constant), Self-awareness, Social awareness, Self-management

Table 4.5 shows that the value of R increases in successive step and it is highest (R = .587) in model 3 in which the explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_3(social awareness) and X_2(self-management) are included and X_4 (social skills) is excluded. The results of ANOVA for all the models used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 4.6.

Table 4.6: ANOVA of successive models for dependent variable Y_1 (Pioneering Leadership)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1173.373	1	1173.373	91.560	.000[a]
	Residual	3126.952	980	12.815		
	Total	4300.325	981			

2	Regression	1421.011	2	710.505	59.963	.000[b]
	Residual	2879.315	979	11.849		
	Total	4300.325	981			
3	Regression	1481.452	3	493.817	42.394	.000[c]
	Residual	2818.873	978	11.648		
	Total	4300.325	981			

Table 4.6 shows that all the three models obtained in table 4.5 are highly significant. This table also reflects that model 3, where the explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_3(social awareness) and X_2(self-management) are included and X_4 (social skills) is excluded, is most appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership) since its R value is highest. Table 4.7 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.7: Results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	P value
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	10.155	1.627	6.242	.000
	Self-awareness	.211	.022	9.569	.000
2	(Constant)	6.160	1.792	3.438	.001
	Self-awareness	.148	.025	5.890	.000
	Social awareness	.106	.023	4.572	.000

3	(Constant)	5.412	1.807	2.995	.003
	Self-awareness	.116	.029	4.023	.000
	Social awareness	.082	.025	3.260	.001
	Self-management	.040	.017	2.278	.024

Table 4.7 gives the numerical values of individual regression coefficients associated with the explanatory variables and their significance. With these significant numerical values of the regression coefficients, the prediction equation is:

$$Y_1^* \text{ (pioneering leadership)} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 \text{ (social skills)} + \beta_3 X_3 \text{ (social awareness)} + \beta_2 X_2 \text{(self- management)}$$
$$= 5.412 + .116\, X_1 \text{ (social skills)} + .082\, X_3 \text{ (social awareness)} + .040\, X_2 \text{(self- management)}$$

Example of prediction: 12^{th} entry of the data was considered to predict the pioneering leadership of the participant by substituting the values of corresponding explanatory variables in the above equation. The predicted value of pioneering leadership is:

Y_1^* (predicted general well-being) = $5.412 + .116 \times 52 + .082 \times 85 + .040 \times 104$

$= 22.572$

The corresponding original pioneering leadership score of the participant is 21. The above prediction equation gives the predicted values close to the observed/actual value. X_1, X_3 and X_2 are included since they were significant.

Strategic Leadership

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_2 (strategic leadership) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_2 (strategic leadership) is:

$$Y_2 \text{ (strategic leadership)} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 \text{ (self-awareness)} + \beta_2 X_2 \text{ (self-management)} +$$

$$\beta_3 X_3 \text{ (social awareness)} + \beta_4 X_4 \text{ (social skills)}$$

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_2 (strategic leadership) are given in table 4.8 below:

Table 4.8: Successive models for dependent variable Y_2 (strategic leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.455[a]	.207	.204	3.08739
2	.499[b]	.249	.242	3.01099

a Predictors: (Constant), Social awareness

b Predictors: (Constant), Social awareness, Self-awareness

Table 4.8 shows that the value of R increases in successive step and it is highest (R = .499) in model 2 in which the explanatory variables X_3(social awareness) and X_1 (self-awareness) are included and X_2(self-management) and X_4 (social skills) are excluded. The results of ANOVA for both the models used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 4.9.

Table 4.9: ANOVA of successive models for dependent variable Y_2 (strategic leadership)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	606.330	1	606.330	63.610	.000
	Residual	2325.800	980	9.532		
	Total	2932.130	981			
2	Regression	729.081	2	364.540	40.209	.000
	Residual	2203.049	979	9.066		
	Total	2932.130	981			

Table 4.9 shows that both the models obtained in table 4.8 are highly significant. This table also reflects that model 2, where the explanatory variables X_3(social awareness) and X_1 (self-awareness) are included and X_2(self-management) and X_4 (social skills) are excluded is most appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_2 (strategic leadership) since its R value is highest. Table 4.10 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.10: Results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	P value
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	13.566	1.425	9.520	.000
	social awareness	.140	.017	7.976	.000
2	(Constant)	10.898	1.567	6.953	.000
	social awareness	.099	.020	4.882	.000
	self-awareness	.081	.022	3.680	.000

Table 4.10 gives the numerical values of individual regression coefficients associated with the explanatory variables and their significance. With these significant numerical values of the regression coefficients, the prediction equation for Y_2 (strategic leadership) is:

Y_2^* (strategic leadership) = $\beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_1 X_1$ (self- awareness)

= 10.898 + .099 X_3 (social awareness) + .081 X_1 (self- awareness)

Management Leadership

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_3 (management leadership) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_3 (management leadership) is:

Y_3 (management leadership) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self-awareness) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (self-management) +

$\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_3 (management leadership) are given in table 4.11 below:

Table 4.11: Successive models for dependent variable Y_3 (management leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.436[a]	.190	.187	3.65089
2	.481[b]	.232	.226	3.56251

a Predictors: (Constant), Self-awareness

b Predictors: (Constant), Self-awareness, Social awareness

Table 4.11 shows that the value of R increases in successive step and it is highest (R = .481) in model 2 in which the explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness) and X_3(social awareness) are included and X_2(self-management) and X_4 (social skills) are excluded. The results of ANOVA for both the models used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 4.12.

Table 4.12: ANOVA of successive models for dependent variable Y_3 (management leadership)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	762.500	1	762.500	57.206	.000
	Residual	3252.268	980	13.329		
	Total	4014.768	981			

2	Regression	930.742	2	465.371	36.668	.000
	Residual	3084.027	979	12.691		
	Total	4014.768	981			

Table 4.12 shows that both the models obtained in table 4.11 are highly significant. This table also reflects that model 2, where the explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness) and X_3(social awareness) are included and X_2(self-management) and X_4 (social skills) are excluded is most appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_3 (management leadership) since its R value is highest. Table 4.13 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.13: Results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models

Models	**Explanatory Variables**	**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**t**	**P value**
		β	**Std. Error**		
1	(Constant)	12.758	1.659	7.689	.000
	self-awareness	.170	.022	7.563	.000
2	(Constant)	9.465	1.855	5.104	.000
	self-awareness	.119	.026	4.545	.000
	social awareness	.087	.024	3.641	.000

Table 4.13 gives the numerical values of individual regression coefficients associated with the explanatory variables and their significance. With these significant numerical values of the regression coefficients, the prediction equation for Y_3 (management leadership) is:

Y_3*(management leadership) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self- awareness) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness)

= 9.465 + .119 X_1 (self- awareness) + .087 X_3 (social awareness)

Team Leadership

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_4 (team leadership) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_4 (team leadership) is:

Y_4 (team leadership) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self-awareness) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (self-management) +

$\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

Results of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_1 are given in table 4.14 below:

Table4.14: Successive models for dependent variable Y_4 (team leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.520[a]	.271	.268	3.66346
2	.539[b]	.290	.285	3.62107

a Predictors: (Constant), social skills

b Predictors: (Constant), social skills, Self-management

Table 4.14 shows that the value of R increases in successive step and it is highest (R = .539) in model 2 in which the explanatory variables X_4 (social skills) and X_2(self-management) are included and X_1 (self-awareness) and X_3(social awareness) are excluded. The results of ANOVA for both the models used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 4.15.

Table 4.15: ANOVA of successive models for dependent variable Y_4 (team leadership)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1216.109	1	1216.109	90.613	.000
	Residual	3274.704	980	13.421		
	Total	4490.813	981			
2	Regression	1304.561	2	652.280	49.746	.000
	Residual	3186.252	979	13.112		
	Total	4490.813	981			

Table 4.15 shows that both the models obtained in table 4.14 are highly significant. This table also reflects that model 2, where the explanatory variables X_4 (social skills) and X_2 (self-management) are included and X_1 (self-awareness) and X_3(social awareness) are excluded is most appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_4 (team leadership) since its R value is highest. Table 4.16 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.16: Results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	P value
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	11.832	1.415	8.364	.000
	social skills	.106	.011	9.519	.000
2	(Constant)	9.327	1.699	5.490	.000
	social skills	.084	.014	6.099	.000
	self-management	.041	.016	2.597	.010

Table 4.16 gives the numerical values of individual regression coefficients associated with the explanatory variables and their significance. With these significant numerical values of the regression coefficients, the prediction equation for Y_4 (team leadership) is:

Y_4*(team leadership) = $\beta_0 + \beta_4 X_4$ (social skills) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (self-management)

= 9.327 + .084 X_4 (social skills) + .041 X_2 (self-management)

Pastoral Leadership

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_5 (pastoral leadership) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_5 (pastoral leadership) is:

Y_5 (pastoral leadership) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self-awareness) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (self-management) +

$\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

Results of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_1 are given in table 4.17 below:

Table 4.17: Successive models for dependent variable Y_5 (pastoral leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.379[a]	.143	.140	3.05854
2	.421[b]	.178	.171	3.00330

a Predictors: (Constant), social awareness

b Predictors: (Constant), social awareness, social skills

Table 4.17 shows that the value of R increases in successive step and it is highest (R = .421) in model 2 in which the explanatory variables X_3(social awareness) and X_4 (social skills) are included and X_1 (self-awareness) and X_2(self-management) are excluded. The results of ANOVA for both the models used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 4.18.

Table 4.18: ANOVA of successive models for dependent variable Y_5 (pastoral leadership)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	382.382	1	382.382	40.876	.000[a]
	Residual	2282.533	980	9.355		
	Total	2664.915	981			
2	Regression	473.096	2	236.548	26.225	.000[b]
	Residual	2191.819	979	9.020		
	Total	2664.915	981			

Table 4.18 shows that both the models obtained in table 4.17 are highly significant. This table also reflects that model 2, where the explanatory variables X_3 (social awareness) and X_4 (social skills) are included and X_1 (self-awareness) and X_2(self-management) are excluded is most appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_5 (pastoral leadership) since its R value is highest. Table 4.19 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.19: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_5 (pastoral leadership)

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	P value
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	14.513	1.412	10.281	.000
	social awareness	.111	.017	6.393	.000
2	(Constant)	13.281	1.440	9.226	.000
	social awareness	.069	.021	3.235	.001
	social skills	.036	.012	3.171	.002

Table 4.19 gives the numerical values of individual regression coefficients associated with the explanatory variables and their significance. With these significant numerical values of the regression coefficients, the prediction equation is:

Y_5*(pastoral leadership) = $\beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

= 13.281+ .069 X_3 (social awareness) + .036 X_4 (social skills)

Encouraging Leadership

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership) is:

Y_6 (encouraging leadership) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self-awareness) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (self-management) +

$\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership) are given in table 19 below:

Table 4.20: Successive models for dependent variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.452[a]	.204	.201	3.15942
2	.467[b]	.218	.212	3.13753

a Predictors: (Constant), social skills

b Predictors: (Constant), social skills, social awareness

Table 4.20 shows that the value of R increases in successive step and it is highest (R = .467) in model 2 in which the explanatory variables X_4 (social skills) and X_3(social awareness) are included and X_1 (self-awareness) and X_2(self-management) are excluded. The results of ANOVA for both the models used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 4.21.

Table 4.21: ANOVA of successive models for dependent variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	623.940	1	623.940	62.507	.000[a]
	Residual	2435.592	980	9.982		
	Total	3059.533	981			
2	Regression	667.412	2	333.706	33.899	.000[b]
	Residual	2392.120	979	9.844		
	Total	3059.533	981			

Table 4.21 shows that both the models obtained in table 4.20 are highly significant. This table also reflects that model 2, where the explanatory variables X_4 (social skills) and X_3 (social awareness) are included and X_1 (self-awareness) and X_3(social awareness) are excluded is most appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership) since its R value is highest. Table 4.22 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.22: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership)					
Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	P value
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	13.897	1.220	11.390	.000
	social skills	.076	.010	7.906	.000
2	(Constant)	12.025	1.504	7.996	.000
	social skills	.061	.012	5.037	.000
	social awareness	.047	.022	2.101	.037

Table 4.22 gives the numerical values of individual regression coefficients associated with the explanatory variables and their significance. With these significant numerical values of the regression coefficients, the prediction equation for Y_6 (encouraging leadership) is:

Y_6*(encouraging leadership) = $\beta_0 + \beta_4 X_4$ (social skills) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness)

= 12.025+ .061 X_4 (social skills) + .047 X_3 (social awareness)

Problem solving

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_7 (problem solving) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_7 (problem solving) is:

Y_7 (problem solving) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self-awareness) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (self-management) +

$\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

Results of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_7 (problem solving) are given in table 4.23 below:

Table 4.23: Model for dependent variable Y_7 (problem solving)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.375[a]	.140	.137	3.87348

a Predictors: (Constant), social awareness

Table 4.23 shows that the value of R in model is (R = .421) in which the explanatory variable X_3(social awareness) is included and X_1 (self-awareness), X_2(self-management) and X_4 (social skills) are excluded. The results of ANOVA for the models used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 4.24.

Table 4.24: ANOVA of model for dependent variable Y_7 (problem solving)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	597.384	1	597.384	39.815	.000[a]
	Residual	3660.941	980	15.004		
	Total	4258.325	981			

Table 4.24 shows that the model obtained in table 4.23 is highly significant. This table also reflects that in model the explanatory variables and X_3 (social awareness) is included and X_1

(self-awareness), X_2(self-management) and X_4 (social skills) are excluded is appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_7 (problem solving). Table 4.25 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.25: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of model for dependent variable Y_7 (problem solving)

Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	P value
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	9.259	1.788	5.179	.000
	Social awareness	.139	.022	6.310	.000

Table 4.25 gives the numerical values of individual regression coefficients associated with the explanatory variable and its significance. With these significant numerical values of the regression coefficients, the prediction equation for Y_7 (problem solving) is:

Y_7*(problem solving) = $\beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness)

= 9.259+ .139 X_3 (social awareness)

Asserting

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_8 (asserting) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_8 (asserting) is:

Y_8 (asserting) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self-awareness) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (self-management) +

$\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

Results of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_8 (asserting) are given in table 4.26 below:

Table 4.26: Successive models for dependent variable Y_8 (asserting)				
Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.407[a]	.166	.163	4.06173
2	.424[b]	.180	.173	4.03617

a Predictors: (Constant), social awareness

b Predictors: (Constant), social awareness, social skills

Table 4.26 shows that the value of R increases in successive step and it is highest (R = .424) in model 2 in which the explanatory variables X_3 (social awareness) and X_4 (social skills) are included and X_1 (self-awareness) and X_2(self-management) are excluded. The results of ANOVA for both the models used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 4.27.

Table 4.27: ANOVA of successive models for dependent variable Y_8 (asserting)					
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	801.536	1	801.536	48.585	.000[a]
Residual	4025.423	980	16.498		
Total	4826.959	981			
2 Regression	868.322	2	434.161	26.651	.000[b]
Residual	3958.637	979	16.291		
Total	4826.959	981			

Table 4.27 shows that both the models obtained in table 4.26 are highly significant. This table also reflects that model 2, where the explanatory variables X_3 (social awareness) and X_4 (social skills) are included and X_1 (self-awareness) and X_2(self-management) are excluded is most appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_8 (asserting) since its R value is highest. Table 4.28 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.28: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_8 (asserting)

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	P value
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	5.994	1.875	3.197	.002
	Social awareness	.160	.023	6.970	.000
2	(Constant)	4.937	1.935	2.552	.011
	Social awareness	.125	.029	4.333	.000
	Social skills	.031	.015	2.025	.044

Table 4.28 gives the numerical values of individual regression coefficients associated with the explanatory variables and their significance. With these significant numerical values of the regression coefficients, the prediction equation for Y_8 (asserting) is:

$$Y_8^*(\text{asserting}) = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 (\text{social awareness}) + \beta_4 X_4 (\text{social skills})$$
$$= 4.937 + .125 X_3 (\text{social awareness}) + .031 X_4 (\text{social skills})$$

Compromising

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_9 (compromising) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_9 (compromising) is:

$$Y_9 (\text{compromising}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 (\text{self-awareness}) + \beta_2 X_2 (\text{self-management}) +$$
$$\beta_3 X_3 (\text{social awareness}) + \beta_4 X_4 (\text{social skills})$$

The explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) do not have relationship with variable Y_9 (compromising).

Avoiding

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_{10} (avoiding) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_{10} (avoiding) is:

Y_{10} (avoiding) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self-awareness) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (self-management) +

$\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

Results of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_9 (compromising) are given in table 4.29 below:

Table 4.29: Model for dependent variable Y_{10} (avoiding)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.257	.066	.062	4.12876

a Predictors: (Constant), social awareness

Table 4.29 shows that the value of R in model is (R = .257) in which the explanatory variable X_3(social awareness) is included and X_1 (self-awareness), X_2(self-management) and X_4 (social skills) are excluded. The results of ANOVA for the model are presented in table 4.30.

Table 4.30: ANOVA of model for dependent variable Y_{10} (avoiding)					
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	295.371	1	295.371	17.327	.000[a]
Residual	4159.381	980	17.047		
Total	4454.752	981			

Table 4.30 shows that the model obtained in table 4.29 is highly significant. This table also reflects that in model the explanatory variables and X_3 (social awareness) is included and X_1 (self-awareness), X_2(self management) and X_4 (social skills) are excluded is appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_2 (strategic leadership) since its R value is highest. Table 4.31 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.31: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_{10} (avoiding)					
Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	P value
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	10.750	1.906	5.641	.000
	Social awareness	.097	.023	4.163	.000

Table 4.31 gives the numerical values of individual regression coefficients associated with the explanatory variable and its significance. With these significant numerical values of the regression coefficients, the prediction equation is:

$Y10^{*}$(avoiding) = $\beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness)

= 10.750 + .097 X_3 (social awareness)

Accommodating

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_{11} (accommodating) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (self-awareness), X_2 (self-management), X_3 (social-awareness) and X_4 (social skills) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_{11} (accommodating) is:

Y_{11} (accommodating) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self-awareness) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (self-management) +

$\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

Results of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_9 (compromising)are given in table 4.32 below:

Table 4.32: Model for dependent variable Y_{11} (accommodating)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.263[a]	.069	.065	3.93948

a Predictors: (Constant), social awareness

Table 4.32 shows that the value of R in model is (R = .263) in which the explanatory variable X_3(social awareness) is included and X_1 (self-awareness), X_2(self-management) and X_4 (social skills) are excluded. The results of ANOVA for the models used are presented in table 4.33.

Table 4.33: ANOVA of model for dependent variable Y_{11} (accommodating)					
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	280.681	1	280.681	18.086	.000[a]
Residual	3786.753	980	15.519		
Total	4067.435	981			

Table 4.33 shows that the model obtained in table 4.32 is highly significant. This table also reflects that in model the explanatory variables and X_3 (social awareness) is included and X_1 (self-awareness), X_2(self management) and X_4 (social skills) are excluded is appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_{11} (accommodating). Table 4.34 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.34: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_{11} (accommodating)					
Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	P value
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	9.826	1.818	5.404	.000
	social awareness	.095	.022	4.253	.000

Table 4.34 gives the numerical values of individual regression coefficients associated with the explanatory variable and its significance. With these significant numerical values of the regression coefficients, the prediction equation for Y_{11} (accommodating) is:

Y_{11}*(accommodating) = $\beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness)

= 9.826 + .095 X_3 (social awareness)

Findings

1. Emotional intelligence is positively correlated with pioneering, strategic, management, team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership.
2. Even the subscales self-awareness, self management, social awareness and social skills are positively correlated with pioneering, strategic, management, team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership.
3. Strategic leadership style is positively correlated with problem solving and asserting styles of conflict management it is negatively correlated with avoiding style of conflict management. It has no relationship with compromising and accommodating style of conflict management.
4. Management style of leadership has positive correlation with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no relationship with avoiding style of conflict management.
5. Team leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It is negatively correlated with avoiding style of conflict management
6. Pastoral leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no correlation with avoiding style of conflict management
7. Encouraging leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no correlation with avoiding style of conflict management.
8. Self awareness is significantly correlated with asserting and compromising styles of conflict management, and there is no relationship between problem solving, avoiding and accommodating styles of conflict management.
9. Self management is significantly and positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no significant relationship with avoiding styles of conflict management.

10. Social awareness is positively and significantly correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no relationship with avoiding style of conflict management.
11. Social skills are positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management.
12. Self-awareness, social-awareness and self management are significant predictors of pioneering style of leadership.
13. Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of strategic style of leadership.
14. Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of management style of leadership.
15. Self-management and social skills are significant predictors of team leadership.
16. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of pastoral style of leadership.
17. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of encouraging style of leadership.
18. Social-awareness is significant predictor of problem solving style of conflict management.
19. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of asserting style of conflict management
20. EI cannot predict about compromising style of conflict management.
21. Social-awareness is a significant predictor of avoiding style of conflict management.
22. Social-awareness is significant predictors of accommodating style of conflict management.

Chapter 5

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The basic purpose of a scientific research activity is to relate the observed facts (i.e. immediate discovery) to some organizations of a system. It amounts to what Arieti (1976) names, individualizing some underlying commonality or connection between things hitherto deemed dissimilar or unrelated. If, however, some of the observed facts do not seem to fit in a system, such apparent contradictions should be explainable with valid reasons. When the observed facts are related to a system, "the immediate discovery may lead to additional properties hidden in the class or system" (Arieti, 1976). It then, becomes an innovation.

This humble piece of research does not attain that lofty ideal of innovation. It merely tends to correlate leadership styles and conflict management with emotional intelligence.

In this chapter an effort has been made to explain various observations in the light of theoretical orientation of emotional intelligence, leadership styles and conflict management. Secondly, the results are discussed to show how these findings are concurrent with the empirical studies already conducted in the field, if any. At places, where the observations did not concur the findings of other investigators, attempts have been made to fathom plausible reasons for these disagreements

Main Findings

1. Emotional intelligence is positively correlated with pioneering, strategic, management, and team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership.

2. Even the subscales self-awareness, self management, social awareness and social skills are positively correlated with pioneering, strategic, management, team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership.

3. Self awareness is significantly correlated with asserting and compromising styles of conflict management, and there is no relationship between problem solving, avoiding and accommodating styles of conflict management.

4. Self management is significantly and positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no significant relationship with avoiding styles of conflict management.

5. Social awareness is positively and significantly correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no relationship with avoiding style of conflict management.

6. Social skills are positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management.

7. Strategic leadership style is positively correlated with problem solving and asserting styles of conflict management it is negatively correlated with avoiding style of conflict management. It has no relationship with compromising and accommodating style of conflict management.

8. Management style of leadership has positive correlation with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no relationship with avoiding style of conflict management.

9. Team leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It is negatively correlated with avoiding style of conflict management

10. Pastoral leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no correlation with avoiding style of conflict management

11. Encouraging leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no correlation with avoiding style of conflict management.

12. Self-awareness, social-awareness and self management are significant predictors of pioneering style of leadership.

13. Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of strategic style of leadership.

14. Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of management style of leadership.

15. Self-management and social skills are significant predictors of team leadership.

16. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of pastoral style of leadership.

17. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of encouraging style of leadership.

18. Social-awareness is significant predictor of problem solving style of conflict management.

19. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of asserting style of conflict management

20. EI cannot predict about compromising style of conflict management.

21. Social-awareness is a significant predictor of avoiding style of conflict management.

22. Social-awareness is significant predictors of accommodating style of conflict management.

Discussion

The present study seeks to explore relationship among emotional intelligence, leadership styles and conflict management. Therefore, the study was designed to be correlation to explore the strength of relationship among all variables. In this section the results obtained are discussed in the context of existing research and conclusions are drawn. One of the objectives of the study was to determine, at least in a preliminary way, the relationship among emotional intelligence and different leadership styles. The results indicated that Emotional intelligence is positively correlated with pioneering, strategic, management, and team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership. Even the subscales self-awareness, self management, social awareness and social skills are positively correlated with pioneering, strategic, management, team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership. Furthermore, Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of strategic and management style of leadership. Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of t style of leadership. Self-management and social skills are significant predictors of team leadership. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of pastoral and encouraging style of leadership. Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to be aware of their own emotions and moods (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Research suggests that a leader with heightened self-awareness may be more effective at inspiring subordinates (Atwater & Yammarino, 1997; Bass & Yammarino, 1989; Fleenor & McCauley, 1996; Sosik & Dworakivsky, 1998). Leaders who possess heightened levels of self-perception have been shown to be more effective leaders (Roush & Atwater, 1992). When the leader accurately perceives subordinate's emotions and responds appropriately, the followers may be more receptive (George, 2000). Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to be aware of their emotions and the impact that their emotions have on others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Leaders who are self-aware tend to possess heightened levels of interpersonal control (Sosik & Megerian, 1999) and may be more empathetic toward followers' needs (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). Individuals who can accurately read other people's emotions tend to be more effective at interpersonal interactions with co-workers (Mayer et al., 2000b). Research suggests that leader emotional expression tends to have an impact on both follower affect and perceptions of

leader effectiveness (Lewis, 2000).

Another objective of the study was to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and different styles of handling interpersonal conflicts. A significantly positive relationship was found among all components of emotional intelligence and different styles of handling interpersonal conflicts. Self awareness is significantly correlated with asserting and compromising styles of conflict management, and there is no relationship between problem solving, avoiding and accommodating styles of conflict management. Self management is significantly and positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no significant relationship with avoiding styles of conflict management. Social awareness is positively and significantly correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no relationship with avoiding style of conflict management. Social skills are positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. Furthermore, Social-awareness is significant predictor of problem solving style of conflict management. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of asserting style of conflict management. Social-awareness is a significant predictor of avoiding style of conflict management. Social-awareness is significant predictors of accommodating style of conflict management. Emotionally intelligent individuals possess the ability to be empathetic and to manage interpersonal relationships (Mayer et al., 2000c). Previous research found that integrating and compromising styles are the most preferred styles of individuals when they face conflicts (Trubisky et al., 1991; Lee, 2003). Second, the literature also showed that both styles have positive impact on promotion, productivity and job performance (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Jamieson and Thomas;, 1974; Jordan and Troth, 2002). However, Rahim (2000, p. 5) argued the weakness of this stream of studies and stated that "unfortunately studies on conflict resolution did not provide any clear link between conflict management strategies and effectiveness". It is therefore necessary to re-examine the causes and effects of those integrating and compromising styles.

Scholars have noted that EI plays an important role in resolving conflict functionally

(Borisoff and Victor, 1998; Jordan and Troth, 2002, 2004). Jordan and Troth (2004, p. 196) argued that "the ability to be aware of and manage emotions is also thought to facilitate functional than dysfunctional, conflict resolution and consequently contribute to better team performance". We therefore assume that EI may lead people to choose more advantageous styles of handling interpersonal conflicts using the integrating and compromising styles. This is derived from the fact that emotionally intelligent people have the ability to better manage and regulate their own emotions and the emotions of others (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Davies et al., 1998; Ng et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 2008).

In addition, emotionally intelligent people are more like to select integrating and compromising styles because those styles may have more beneficial outcomes in terms of the efficacy and suitability (Gross and Guerrero, 2000). As integrating and compromising styles have positive effects on conflict resolution (Hocker and Wilmot, 1998; Gross and Guerrero, 2000), we expect that the integrating and comprising styles may become a preference for a person high in EI in solving conflicts.

Another objective of the study was to explore the relationship between leadership styles and different styles of handling interpersonal conflicts. Strategic leadership style is positively correlated with problem solving and asserting styles of conflict management it is negatively correlated with avoiding style of conflict management. It has no relationship with compromising and accommodating style of conflict management. Management style of leadership has positive correlation with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no relationship with avoiding style of conflict management. Team leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It is negatively correlated with avoiding style of conflict management. Pastoral leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no correlation with avoiding style of conflict management. Encouraging leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no correlation with avoiding style of conflict management.

Emotionally intelligent individuals possess the ability to manage interpersonal relationships, thus it is expected that leaders with heightened levels of emotional intelligence would be successful leaders (Mayer et al., 2000c).

Managerial implications

The privatization of the workplace has lead to increasing organizational change and organizational contextual volatility, which, in turn, has produced increasing differences and conflicts (Dana and Dana, 2003; Sommer, 2003) as cited in (Yu, Sardessai, Lu and Zhao (2006). Furthermore, Indian organizations are involved in mergers and acquisitions taking place at global level will result in workforce diversity and cultural differences that is another major reason of conflicts among employees. Therefore, the findings of this study have some importance to Indian organizations in leadership and managing conflicts.

The results showed significant influence of EI on strategic, management, team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership. EI has no significant relationship with pioneering style of leadership. Social awareness or empathy refers to the awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns. According to Goleman (1995), empathy involves understanding others, developing others, and having a service orientation. It implies that the more an individual understands others/colleagues, the more likely he or she will use the team and encouraging styles of leadership.

The problem-solving style is generally perceived to be a more appropriate, more effective, and more competent style in managing conflict. Individuals who experience honest self-awareness also recognize their strengths, weaknesses, needs, and drives. Additionally, these people know how their feelings affect themselves, other people, and their job performance (Goleman, 1999). Self-regulation is an important component of social development and it contributes to the quality of interpersonal relationships (Saarni, 1999). Empathy involves understanding others, developing others, and having a service orientation (Goleman, 1995). Self-regulation and empathy can be developed (Davis, 1983; Kestenbaum et al., 1989). If managers want to be effective at managing conflict, then it becomes necessary for

them to adopt and develop an integrative style. Salopek (1998) noted in an interview with Goleman that emotional intelligence abilities are learned and tend to improve as one ages and matures. Therefore, organizations will have to consciously and continuously strive to inculcate self-regulation and empathy among their managers through an effective programme of training and development.

To reduce the conflict, organizations must increase the levels of EI for their employees' which will help them to manage these conflicts properly and reduce its negative impact on their life and work.

Suggestion for further research

While the investigator deems the findings of the present study, obviously caution in adopting them is warranted due to several limitations. First, the small size of the sample prevents us from making stronger claims about the generalizability of these findings. Second, the correlational nature of the data, which were collected at one time point, limits the interpretation with regard to the processes involved. Nevertheless, extrapolations from the data, when supported by theory, can provide suggestions for directions in future investigations.

The present study raised a number of interesting questions for future research: Why was emotional intelligence predictive of leadership and, but not all styles of conflict management. The lack of agreement among researchers on the definition of emotional intelligence poses problems for organizations. The question remains as to whether emotional intelligence is simply a re-labelling of already existing constructs such as personality and general cognitive ability. The abundance of constructs included in the mixed-model framework of emotional intelligence may predict many individual and organizational outcomes. However, labelling these constructs "emotional intelligence" is disingenuous because such constructs fail to meet the criteria for inclusion as a type of intelligence. Future researchers should examine the utility of mixed-model emotional intelligence measures, such as the EQ-i, in predicting work outcomes beyond the influence of other well-established predictor variables, such as personality and general cognitive ability. Current evidence suggests that the EQ-i is not much

more than a measure of personality and affect (e.g., Livingstone & Day, 2002; Newsome et al., 2000).

Several researchers have suggested that emotional intelligence may be used by organizations to select effective leaders (e.g., George, 2001; Kobe, Reiter-Palmon, & Rickers, 2001). It is necessary to empirically examine ability-based emotional intelligence measures in relation to effective leadership behaviours in a military context. The present review outlined a conceptual link between emotional intelligence and leadership suggesting that emotional perception, emotional facilitation, emotional understanding, and emotional management may be important for the prediction of leadership behaviours. Future researchers should test these propositions at different levels within the organization.

It is also important to determine the amount of emotional intelligence that is deemed appropriate for effective leadership. By determining whether emotional abilities are important to successful leadership through job analysis procedures, researcher may gain a greater understanding of whether emotional constructs would be useful for selection and training. According to Arvey et al. (1998) individuals should be selected on the basis of the match between the individual's level of emotional display and the degree of emotional display demanded by the organization. Developing assessment tools to determine the congruency between leader's emotional abilities and the emotional demands of the organization may prove to be beneficial (Arvey et al., 1998). Another related issue involves examining how much emotional intelligence is too much. Leaders who possess very high levels of emotional management / regulation may use these abilities for their own self- interests (Sosik & Dworakivsky, 1998). That is, they may manipulate followers through emotional regulation for their own personal benefit (Sosik & Dworakivsky, 1998). This question should also be addressed in future research.

A related concept to emotional intelligence is emotional labour (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Morris and Feldman, 1996). Emotional labour involves "enhancing, faking, or suppressing emotions to modify emotional expression" (Grandey, 2000, p. 95). An individual engages in this regulation of emotional expression according to the "display rules" of the

organization (Grandey, 2000). Research suggests that emotional labour may result in negative individual health outcomes (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Shaubroeck and Jones (2000) found that individuals who perceived that their job demanded them to express positive emotions tended to report more negative physical health symptoms. Future researchers should examine the impact of emotional management / regulation on the health and well-being of leaders. Finally, the issue of training leaders to enhance their emotional intelligence should be examined in future research. Some researchers suggest that organizations may benefit from providing emotional intelligence training to leaders (e.g., Barling et al., 2000). However, the question remains as to whether emotional intelligence can be developed if it is a set of personality traits (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000). Ambiguity regarding the construct validity of emotional intelligence makes it difficult to determine a starting point at which to determine if a leader's emotional intelligence needs development. This issue should be examined in future research.

Further, no significant attempt has been made except Singh (2007) to explore relationship between EI and leadership in Indian context based on gender with a small sample of IT professionals. Rajendran, Downey, and Stough (2007) explored the preliminary reliability of EI in Indian Context. Thus there is a dearth of empirical support necessitate further exploration of EI and leadership in India.

The understanding of conflict and the role that it plays in influencing employee behaviour and work outcomes is now more important than it ever was. Simply because the work environment is now richer in terms of conflict seeds than before, e.g. diversity, hostility and complexity. In this context, Suliman (2003, p. 330) argued: "The sophisticated methods that used these days by most organizations in order to develop structures, departments and to arrange jobs have increased the growing of counterproductive organizational conflict".

Thus, there is a general agreement among researchers that analyzing work outcomes helps to understand the processes by which the interaction of employee/organization influences his/her behaviour and work performance including organizational conflict, and it is a fact of life, in organizations just as everywhere else, as people compete for jobs, resources, power, acknowledgement, and security. Dealing with it is difficult

because it arouses such primitive emotions. People feel threatened (rightly or wrongly), and this creates a version of the age-old stress response – fight or flight (Bagshaw, 1998, p. 206). Moreover, most scholars incline to postulate conflict as an inevitable outcome of organizational operation. And "since conflict in organizations is inevitable, it is critical that it be handled as effectively as possible" (Rahim et al., 1999, p. 166). Moreover, no significant empirical work is done in Indian context to validate the findings, which makes it more important to carry out further research.

Future research also will need to examine whether emotional intelligence skills can be taught. That is can executives increase their score on tests that measure the ability to perceive, use, understand and regulate emotions? Zeidner, Roberts and Matthews (2002) and Gil-Olarte, Palomera Martin and Brackett (2006) urge educators to validate emotional literacy programmes. Of course, these findings can be replicated and certain of the interrelationships explored further. But a beginning of importance in this regard in Indian context, the investigator feels, has been made.

Chapter 6

SUMMARY

The term "emotional intelligence" first coined by Salovey and Mayer (1990) explained a different type of intelligence. Many have noted the distinction between academic intelligence and social intelligence (Neisser, 1976). While the standard intelligence quotient (IQ) tended to be static, emotional intelligence can be learned (Salopek, 1998). Specifically, emotional intelligence as explained is the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).Gardner (1983) described what is now recognized as emotional intelligence as being a deep awareness of one's own emotions and the ability to label and draw upon those emotions as a resource to guide behavior.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) categorized emotional intelligence in five domains. Their domains include self-awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, empathy, and handling relationships. Goleman (1995) later developed his four dimensions of emotional intelligence to include knowing and managing one's emotions, self-motivation, empathy toward others, and social deftness.

When reviewing the literature, the work of particular researchers often appears. Some of the most recognized authors like Edward Thorndike was credited with the initial study of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995). The term had not yet been coined, but Thorndike (1920) researched dimensions of emotional intelligence as a form of "social intelligence". Howard Gardner (1983) continued to expand the knowledge of interpersonal and intrapersonal skills in the mid-1980s. Marlowe (1986) defined social intelligence as the ability to understand other people and social interactions and to use this knowledge to lead and guide others to

mutually satisfying outcomes. Researchers agreed that social intelligence is important for academic and career achievement (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Wentzel, 1991). Walker and Foley (1973) identified two elements of social intelligence. Cognitive skill in drawing accurate conclusions from social interactions and the effectiveness of social behavior based on such observations express the foundation of social intelligence (Walker & Foley, 1973).

Later, Sternberg (1985) concurred with Thorndike's findings stating that social intelligence is not only distinct from academic abilities but is also an integral part of what makes people do well in the practicalities of life. He noted that conventional IQ tests assess only the analytical aspect of intelligence (Sternberg, 1996). Goleman (1995) outlined several dimensions of emotional intelligence. The dimensions included knowing and managing one's emotions, self-motivation, empathy toward others, and social deftness. Knowing and managing one's emotions involves being observant of oneself and the emotions one is feeling as well as handling the feelings appropriately. Goleman described self-motivation as the channeling of emotions in the service of a goal, delaying gratification, and stifling impulses. Empathy speaks to the appreciation of the differences in people and the sensitivity to others' feelings and concerns. It is the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them one's self (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Rogers (1951) considered an act of striving to understand other people and to empathize with them a priceless gift as well as a prerequisite for helping another grow. Goleman portrayed social deftness as the ability to manage emotions in others. Kelly and Moon (1998) defined intrapersonal abilities as personal talents that enable one to take constructive action with respect to both people and tasks. Such abilities help an individual develop self-awareness, capitalize on personal strengths, minimize personal weaknesses, make effective life decisions, and set and achieve goals.

Goleman (1998b) reported that virtually all effective leaders have motivation. He also noted that people with high motivation remain optimistic even when the score is against them. Self-awareness is the part of intrapersonal skills that speaks to one understands of one's own emotions (Goleman, 1998b). Individuals who experience honest self-awareness also recognize their strengths, weaknesses, needs, and drives. Additionally, these people know how their

feelings affect themselves, other people, and their job performance. People who experience a high degree of self-regulation reflect a propensity for thoughtfulness, integrity, comfort with ambiguity, and an ability to say no to impulsive urges (Goleman, 1998b). Goleman (1998c) advocates self-regulation as an important attribute of leaders. Finally, self-awareness and self-regulation help enable an individual to experience positive affect within themselves and others, and so contribute to well-being. Thus, "the emotionally intelligent person is often a pleasure to be around and leaves others feeling better" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 201). What role do variables such as age and sex play in the development of emotional intelligence? The developmental nature of emotional intelligence might have some bearing in this study when one considers the age of the participants. Salopek (1998) noted in an interview with Goleman that emotional intelligence abilities are learned and tend to improve as one ages and matures. Mayer et al. (as cited in King, 1999), found that emotional intelligence abilities increased from adolescence to early adulthood. Studies revealed that major gender differences exist in the measurement of emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., as cited in King, 1999, Mayer & Geher, 1996).

The benefits of emotional intelligence are many and varied. A group of four-year old children - found to resist impulse - were tracked through high school and were found to be more self-assertive, socially skilled, independent, and persevering than their more impulsive peers. In addition, they achieved significantly higher SAT scores (Shoda, Mischel, & Peake, 1990). Harrington-Lueke (1997) found in her research that being emotionally intelligent is just as important to success in life as good grades. Essentially, people with high levels of emotional intelligence experience more career success, build stronger personal relationships, lead more effectively, and enjoy better health than those with low levels of emotional intelligence (Cooper, 1997). Bass (1990) found many components of emotional intelligence. The most common factors included social and interpersonal skills, technical skills, administrative skills, leadership effectiveness and achievement, social nearness, friendliness, support of the group task, and task motivation and application.

Emotional intelligence model of present study

Drawing upon the support from various sources of research and training in emotional intelligence, EI theory has tended to take two different approaches to model building. Academic researchers viewed EI as an abstract concept whereas training specialists looked at it as a combination of practical competencies acquired by the individual. This study, while drawing heavily upon the insights from academic research, approaches EI from the competency perspective and hence presented a model that construes EI as a constellation of competencies.

Some researchers suggest that emotionally intelligent people may be believed to behave in rationally and emotionally balanced ways because they are in possession of certain attributes called EI competencies (Mayer et al., 2004; Salovey et al., 1999). These competencies can be classified into two broad categories:

1. personal competence in understanding and managing one's "own self"; and
2. social competence in knowing and dealing with the "self of others" (Feist and Barron, 1996; Goleman, 1995; Mayer and Salovey, 1997 b; Sternberg, 1996;Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004).

Personal competence was defined as the ability of a person to sense one's own internal mental moods and processes and regulate the operations of the mind in such a way that emotions do not disturb or deter the rational mind from executing its actions rationally and to the best of its intellectual capacity. Personal competence is divisible into two sub-competencies, namely, self-awareness and self-regulation.

Self-awareness was defined as the ability to detect the internal emotions and feelings, in real time, as they occur within us. Self-aware individuals are able to read and "link" their feelings with what they think and act. In EI terms, it is called "emotional literacy" (Mayer and Salovey, 1993; McGarvey, 1997).

Self-regulation was defined as the ability of a person to use self-awareness (or emotional literacy) to manage one's own emotions. The person uses self-awareness to regulate

the rational and emotional operations of the mind in balanced ways so as to provide an emotionally supportive pathway for the reasoning mind to make logically correct and socially acceptable decisions and judgments (Martinez, 1997; Tischler et al., 2002).

Research indicated that people possessing personal competence managed their impulsive feelings and disturbing emotions well and stay composed, positive, and unflappable even during trying moments (Martinez, 1997; Mayer and Salovey, 1995).Thus Such people could think clearly, stay focused under pressures and were able to take sound, decisive decisions despite uncertainties and demands, shifting priorities, and changes in their life (Slaski and Cartwright, 2002). Moreover, they show remarkable tact in adapting to fluid circumstances.

Concepts related to personal competence have been discussed in psychology previously. For example, personal competence may appear similar to self-monitoring - a concept in psychology proposed by Snyder (1974). Self-monitoring theory refered to the process through which people regulate their own behavior so as to appear and "look good" so that they will be perceived by others in a favorable manner. Self-monitoring theory distinguishes between high self-monitors, who monitor their behavior to fit different situations, and low self-monitors, who are more cross-situationally consistent (Snyder, 1974). However, while self-monitoring takes care of one's behavior and appearance in public/social situations, it does not fully enable a person to handle and regulate his/her deeper, disturbing internal feelings and emotions – a feat that EI can achieve. EI should, accordingly, be viewed differently from self-monitoring.

Social competence was defined as the ability of a person to gain psychological insight into the emotional world of others and to use one's empathic capabilities and "relationship skills" (such as leadership, assertiveness, and communication) to produce socially desirable and productive behavioral outcomes both for themselves and others. Social competence includes two distinct sub-competencies: social-awareness and social influence.

Social awareness refered to the competence of a person in getting a "true feel" of the emotional mind of others. He/she enters into a covert "emotional dialogue" with the interacting partners (Salovey et al., 1999) and is able to empathize or "feel like" the other

person. Empathy forges emotional connection (Kellett et al., 2002) and in many cases bonds people even far deeper and stronger than shared values, ideologies, and beliefs. Goleman believes that empathy underlies many interpersonal aptitudes like teamwork, persuasion and leadership (Goleman, 1998c).

Social influence refered to the potential of a person to influence and effect positive changes and outcomes in others by using his or her interpersonal skills. The term social influence, as a component of EI, has received only rudimentary treatment in EI literature. In the classic EI models, the second component of social competence is represented by "social skills". Social skills are a misnomer in the study and analysis of EI, so far. A review of 18 journal websites reveals that EI theorists and training specialists have bundled a large repertory of (historically known) interpersonal skills under the competence "social skills" – making it difficult to define as well as measure this competency.

This study, however, assumed that there are prominent interpersonal skills that need to be focused and developed in individuals if EI is to produce desirable effects and impacts on their social environment. While the skills required for effectively influencing others could be many, a few could be rated as important, considering the significance attached to these skills in management development and career counseling circles. Chief among these skills that contribute to a person's social influence are assertiveness, communication, and empowering leadership. Assertiveness helps a person in establishing a mutually respectful, win-win, I am ok-You are ok relationship with others. Communication skills enable the person to listen carefully to others as well as negotiate successfully to produce desirable outcomes in social transactions. Empowering leadership equips the person with the abilities of guiding and motivating others in situations that involve leadership and group management.

Though these core social influence skills might appear as independent of each other, in actual use they merge and blend with each other and have to be used in a highly synchronized manner to be productive and effective in the social environment.

Social influence might appear akin to the so-called political skill but the two should be

viewed as related but different attributes. Political skill is the ability of a person to influence others and get them to buy into one's own ideas and objectives (Ferris et al., 2000). Political skill in itself is a virtue that is increasingly being advocated today as necessary competency to be effective in organizations (Ferris et al., 2007); but, the possibility exists that it could also be used, at times, for personal gains than for mutual benefits. Social influence on the other hand uses one's relationships skills in an empathic manner and focuses on buying others into one's ideas by building trust and pursuing means that mutually benefit each other. These additional elements of empathy coupled with mutuality of benefits to each other in social transactions perhaps demarcate social competence from political skill and distinctly distinguish it from the latter.

This study proved that in an emotionally intelligent person, the above four competencies work together and in unison. Absence of one or more of these reduces the EI competence of the person and possibly inflicts damages both to the person and to his/her social functioning. However, a word of caution is due. The first three of the EI competencies, namely, self-awareness, self-regulation, and social-awareness are basically functions of the rational-emotional mind of the person and could be enhanced by a person through rigorous training and practice in EI techniques. The fourth competency, social-influence, on the contrary, is highly interpersonal in nature, and, therefore, the success of this competency is dependent, also, on the attitudes and attributes of the other parties involved in social interactions. Furthermore, while engaging in and deploying the skills of social influence, the person is under pressure to keep aloof from the tendencies to engage in politicking because the means and goals of the latter often conflict with those of emotionally intelligent behavior. Thus it was concluded that developing one's social influence skills is more difficult than the acquisition of other competencies of EI.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Leadership was defined as a process of influencing other people's orientation towards and achievement of goals (Greenberg, Baron, Sales, & Owens, 2000; Johns & Saks, 2001). Transformational leadership involves inspiring followers and communicating a vision.

Intuitively, it may appear logical to expect aspects of the ability-based model of EI to have important consequences for the study of leadership.

Several of the traits and behaviors associated with effective leaders (e.g., emotional stability, self-confidence, adaptability, and tenacity) overlap with the trait-based view of EI. An integral part of impression management is managing own emotions (which requires an ability to perceive others' emotions and one's own emotions). Theoretically, an individual who was high on impression management was also adept at managing his or her own emotions and was also able to correctly perceive others' emotions and one's own emotions. Charismatic leaders have "insight into the needs, values, and hopes of their followers" (Bass, 1985, p.46). This insight facilitated a higher level of emotional awareness and sensitivity. Bass (1985) also claimed that charismatic leaders are great actors, because they are engaging in impression management. Charismatic leaders create, communicate, and instill commitment toward a common vision (Bass, 1985). They create emotional responses (e.g., sense of excitement) in followers. Charismatic leaders create shared norms and tend to "actively shape and enlarge audiences through their own energy, self-confidence, assertiveness, ambition, a seizing of opportunities" (Bass, 1985; p.40).

Bass (1985) noted that when focusing on their individual followers, leaders must be supportive, considerate, empathetic, caring, and must give personalized attention. These requirements may be easier for an individual high in emotional intelligence, which is able to accurately perceive and understand others' emotions, while managing his or her own emotions. Bass (1985) also recognized that in many situations military leaders are expected to be mentors and counselors to their followers. They must display developmentally-oriented behaviors (e.g., encourages delegation), conduct individual counseling, and become a mentor and role model for followers. Emotional intelligence also help leaders understand the emotions of followers and understand how to manage his or own emotions. This emotional knowledge helps the leader become an effective mentor by modeling appropriate emotional responses. The emotional perception ability of leaders is critical to the counseling and mentoring role.

Although charismatic leadership has been associated with positive outcomes,

charismatic leaders are ineffective for several reasons. A leader may fail if he or she is unable to cope with the difficulties that s/he faces, if the leader is overly confident and unwilling to compromise his or her principles, or if the leader is cold or arrogant (Bass, 1985). Charismatic leaders who are also sensitive to their followers, who have a good understanding of their own emotions (as well as the emotions of their followers), and who are capable of managing their own emotions (i.e., having high EI)are less likely to fail. That is, it is possible that EI moderates the relationship between charisma and leadership effectiveness. Future research must examine this issue. Moreover, charismatic leaders are not necessarily effective, and there is a potential dark side of charismatic leaders, which is evident if the number of charismatic leaders who manipulated their followers for their own gain (e.g., Adolf Hitler, Charles Manson, etc.). Some EI researchers have also suggested that an individual who was extremely high in EI may be excellent at impression management to the extent of negatively influencing people.

Barling, Slater, and Kelloway (2000) found that EI scores were related to subordinates' ratings of transformational leadership. Because of the large overlap of the mixed-model measures of EI and personality, the link between EI and leadership may be due solely to the shared variance with personality. Research has indicated that personality may predict effective leadership behaviours. For example, Judge and Bono (2000) found that extraversion and agreeableness uniquely predicted transformational leadership, while controlling for the effects of the other Big 5 factors. Openness to experience had a significant zero-order correlation with transformational leadership, although this relationship disappeared when the five factors were examined jointly. Neuroticism and conscientiousness were unrelated to transformational leadership.

One of the high performance leadership competencies that Schroder and colleagues (Schroder 1997; Spangenberg, Schroder, & Duvenage, 1999) identified was Interpersonal learning. It is feasible that EI (especially the Interpersonal Skills factor of the EQ-i, Bar-On, 1997) would overlap significantly with this factor. Again, these studies on leadership competencies may reinforce the idea that certain factors of the mixed-model measures of EI are not truly EI, but are effective leader competencies. Future research should examine these issues and relate

them to existing validated measures (e.g., 5-factor model of personality, self-monitoring abiltiy, empathy, self-control, and delayed gratification).

Emotional Intelligence and Conflict management styles

The integrating style has been considered a valuable way to manage interactions with other individuals in conflict situations, facilitating proper resolution of conflict and producing more productive results (Gross and Guerrero, 2000). For example, the integrating and compromising styles were the styles most frequently used by Korean respondents when they faced conflicts (Ting-Toomey et al., 1991; Cho and Park, 1998). Scholars have noted that EI plays an important role in resolving conflict functionally (Borisoff and Victor, 1998; Jordan and Troth, 2002, 2004). Jordan and Troth (2004, p. 196) argued that "the ability to be aware of and manage emotions is also thought to facilitate functional than dysfunctional, conflict resolution and consequently contribute to better team performance". Emotionally intelligent people have the ability to better manage and regulate their own emotions and the emotions of others (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Davies et al., 1998; Ng et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 2008). In addition, emotionally intelligent people are those who consider their own emotions and the emotions of others as a basis in framing their relationships with other people (Mayer and Salovey, 1993, 1997).

This characteristic might generate the empathy (Mayer et al., 1999; Schute et al., 2001) that encourages individuals to consider other interests when they want to solve conflicts. Moreover, this empathy can lead people to be altruistic (Singer and Fehr, 2005; Declerck and Bogaert, 2008), cognizant of the existence of other people' needs (Kamdar et al., 2006) and more skillful in anticipating what other people will behave and act (Singer and Fehr, 2005; Declerck and Bogaert, 2008). With these characteristics, emotionally intelligent people may regard other people's needs and interests in solving conflict. Thus, a win-win solution produced by integrating and compromising styles may become a priority in resolving the conflicts among individuals in order to satisfy everyone's interests.

In addition, emotionally intelligent people are more like to select integrating and

compromising styles because those styles may have more beneficial outcomes in terms of the efficacy and suitability (Gross and Guerrero, 2000). This idea departs from the notion that "the whole point of emotion was to alert us to danger or to opportunity and to focus our cognitive processing upon it" (Andrade and May, 2004, p. 216). This may lead to the signal that emotionally intelligent people may have abilities to plainly think and focus on more advantageous styles of handling interpersonal conflicts as those will benefit for them. As integrating and compromising styles have positive effects on conflict resolution (Hocker and Wilmot, 1998; Gross and Guerrero, 2000), we expect that the integrating and comprising styles may become a preference for a person high in EI in solving conflicts.

Needs and significance of the study

Researchers have described the benefits of possessing a high EI. Such individuals are found to be healthier and more successful than their less emotionally intelligent peers (Cooper, 1997). Many characteristics owned by emotionally intelligent people coincide with the characteristics desired in leaders. Emotionally intelligent individuals are found to have strong personal relationships (Cooper), monitor and evaluate others' feelings (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), empathize with others (Kelley & Caplan, 1993), and excel in interpersonal skills (Goleman, 1998a). The only two studies to examine EI and leadership have utilized mixed-model measures of EI. Barling, Slater, and Kelloway (2000) found that EI scores were related to subordinates' ratings of transformational leadership. Because of the large overlap of the mixed-model measures of EI and personality, the link between EI and leadership may be due solely to the shared variance with personality. Research has indicated that personality may predict effective leadership behaviours. For example, Judge and Bono (2000) found that extraversion and agreeableness uniquely predicted transformational leadership, while controlling for the effects of the other Big 5 factors. Openness to experience had a significant zero-order correlation with transformational leadership, although this relationship disappeared when the five factors were examined jointly. Neuroticism and conscientiousness were unrelated to transformational leadership.

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Review of existing literature suggests that EI plays an important role in leadership and decision making. A growing number of scholars suggest that emotional intelligence plays an important role in managing interpersonal conflicts (e.g. Rahim, 2001). However, there is little empirical data on relationship among emotional intelligence, leadership styles and handling interpersonal conflict conducted in an Indian organizational context except Singh (2007) to explore relationship between EI and leadership in Indian context based on gender with a small sample of IT professionals. Rajendran, Downey, and Stough (2007) explored the preliminary reliability of EI in Indian Context. Such a gap in the existing scene of research in the field of EI provides motivation to carry out this study.

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to explore the emotional intelligence levels among managers working at different levels of organizational hierarchy. In this pursuit, it was sought to determine the strength of the relationship that existed between the emotional intelligence scores of managers as measured by the *Emotional Competence Inventory* (ECI) (Boyatzis et al., 1999) and their perception of interpersonal conflicts, handling of interpersonal conflicts and leadership styles.

This study was designed to be correlational. It was a relationship study designed to analyze the strength of relationship between variables (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). One limitation to this type of research is the tendency to infer that one event "causes" another event. This is misleading because the impact could be the result of a third variable. Another limitation of a correlational study could be that the relationship between two variables is the result of an artifact. An example would be a false positive relationship between two scales because the scales themselves contained similar items and not because their items are causally related (Gall et al.).

An advantage to the correlational method is its usefulness in studying problems in management and in other social sciences. Correlational research permits the researcher to investigate relationships among a large number of variables. Another advantage of the correlational method is that it provides information about the degree to which certain variables are related (Gall et al., 1996).

In summary, only an experiment can prove a definitive cause-and-effect relationship. Correlation coefficients are best used to measure the degree of relationship between two or more variables and explore possible causal factors (Gall et al., 1996).

Statement of the problem

"Relationship among emotional intelligence, leadership styles and conflict management"

Definitions of Terms

For the purpose of this research, the following definitions apply

1. Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thoughts; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote professional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10).

2. The term conflict has been employed in different ways reflecting the different levels at which conflicts exist (Deutsch, 1990; Thomas, 1992a). According to Thomas (1992a) there are two broad uses of the term conflict. The first refers to incompatible response tendencies within an individual, e.g., behavioral conflicts where one must choose whether or not to pursue a particular course of action or a goal, or role conflict where one must choose between several competing sets of role demands. The second use refers to conflicts that occur between different individuals, groups, organizations, or other social units. Hence, the terms interpersonal, inter-group, and inter-organizational conflict are used. Putnam and Poole (1987) and Thomas (1992a, 1992b) on the basis of their analysis of numerous conceptualizations and definitions of conflict identified three general themes or properties: interdependence, disagreement, and interference.

3. Leadership is a social skill. It consists of certain attitudes and behaviour (acts) towards others and a way of conducting one self which enables a person to cause others to follow him willingly or which enables one to cause others to follow him for a common goal. The ability of a person to cause others to follow him for a goal is the mark of leadership.

Objectives of the study

In the present study the investigator has considered three variables of interest namely "emotional intelligence, leadership and conflict management." Each of these variables was supposed to be related to each other.

The objectives of the study were:

1. To see the relationship of emotional intelligence and leadership.

2. To see the relationship of emotional intelligence and conflict management.

3. To see the relationship of leadership and conflict management.

Hypotheses

In this study following statistical null versus alternative hypotheses were investigated:

1. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership.
2. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management.
3. There is no significant relationship between leadership and conflict management.

Population and Sample

A total of 1,125 managers working at different levels of organizational hierarchy made the sample of the study. The organizations were chosen based upon their location and sector.

Delimitations of the study

Certain delimitations of the study must be considered. They are listed below:

1. The study has been delimited to a sample of 1125 managers.
2. The data collected was self-reported and, therefore, subject to the limitations of that process.

Instrumentation

The indicator of emotional intelligence that was used in this study was the *Emotional Competence Inventory* (ECI) (Boyatzis et al., 1999). This inventory includes self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills.

Self-awareness consists of knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions. This dimension contains the competencies of emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self confidence.

Self-management involves the management of one's internal states, impulses, and resources to facilitate reaching goals.

Social Awareness refers to being aware of others' feelings, needs and concerns.

Social Skills are the basic skills in interpersonal relationships. It involves adeptness at inducting desirable responses in others.

It consists of 80 items that reflect adaptive tendency toward emotional intelligence. Each item in the questionnaire described a work-related behavior. Respondents used a 7-point Likert scale. The higher the score, the greater the tendency an individual possessed to exhibit emotionally intelligent behavior. The ECI is divided into 4 clusters. An average for each cluster was found by summing responses (1-7) to the corresponding questions that pertain to a cluster and dividing by the number of valid responses.

In addition to the ECI, A questionnaire measuring Interpersonal Conflict and Conflict Management Styles was used. Interpersonal conflict was defined as a phenomenon that occurs between interdependent parties when they experience negative emotional reactions to perceived disagreements and interference concerning the parties' goals. Given the lack of reliable and validated measures of interpersonal conflict, items were developed to assess each of the four definitional properties: interdependence, disagreement and interference. Twenty items, adapted from previous measures (Kilmann and Thomas 1977; Rahim 1983), were used to assess the extent to which students employed five styles (problem-solving, asserting, avoiding, compromising, and accommodating). For each style, two items inquired respondent's own behaviors, and two items asked about the behaviors of the other party(ies). Conceptually, these indices measure the overall usage of each style by everyone involved, and not only the respondent's own usage of the style. As such, relationships between interpersonal conflicts (reflecting the interdependence, disagreement, interference, and negative emotions of all participants in the project) and conflict management styles (again reflecting the behavioral styles of all project participants) can be investigated. This questionnaire measures five different styles of conflict management: asserting, accommodating, compromising, problem-solving, and

avoiding. These styles are seen as general strategies or behavioral orientations that individuals adopt for managing and resolving conflicts.

Asserting style (also described as competing, controlling, distributive or contending style) occurs as individuals strive to win. In this style one party make gains at the cost of the gains of other party. Conflict, therefore, is considered a win- lose situation. Like asserting, **accommodating style** (also described as obliging style, non confrontation, yielding, or lose-win style) also occurs when individuals sacrifice their own needs and desires in order to satisfy the needs of other parties. This occurs as individuals oblige or yield to others' positions, or cooperate in an attempt to resolve conflicts. **Compromising** is a third style (also described as mixed motive in game theory) frequently splits the difference or involves give and take behaviors where each party wins some and loses some. **Problem-solving style** (also described integrating style, collaborative, cooperation, solution-oriented and win-win or positive sum style) occurs when individuals in conflict try to fully satisfy the concerns of all parties. Here, actions are aimed at the achievement of goals and objectives of all parties. Hence, it results as a win-win solution. Finally, **avoiding style** (inaction, withdrawal, or ignoring style) occurs when individuals are indifferent to the concerns of either party and refuse to act or participate in conflict. Here, one withdraws, physically or psychologically, abdicating all responsibility for the solution. The style items assessed these behaviors on 7-point scales ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always).

Leadership styles were assessed by using *The Teal Trust Leadership Style Indicator* (2001). It comprises of 30 items assesses six styles of leadership viz. Pioneering, Strategic, Management/Administrative, Team leadership, Pastoral and Encouraging.

Pioneer leaders are those who are willing to push themselves, and take appropriate risks in striving to move forwards to discover and reach long term goals. Pioneering leaders are passionate about the vision, and are wholly committed to it. Pioneering leaders are at their strongest in the early stages of a vision or project. However as time passes they may lose interest in the implementation of a vision, eager to be looking ahead to the next challenge. Strategic Leaders can break down visions and large aims into manageable chunks that are vital

for the project. Strategic leaders have the insight and focus to work out ways of achieving the vision, the "how", and are able to persuade the rest of the group to accept this plan. Strategic leaders can bring common sense to a difficult task - able to help people see how the seemingly impossible can be achieved. However, like pioneers, they can be less engaged with the implementation of a task, preferring to leave this to others. Any vision or change will require people able to plan and problem solve, delegate and organize. Without this gift, the best plans may well not get implemented. Managers are often underappreciated, having a leadership style which is less "up-front" than some of the other styles. However, much of the work simply would not get done without Management/Administration leaders. They are able to organize, and follow through on all the necessary tasks and activities to ensure that the project is completed on time. They may struggle to relate to the visionary pioneers - dreaming of achieving the impossible is not their home ground. Team Leadership includes leadership in a group context, whether the leader has a formal leadership role in a group or not. The key strengths of team leaders are a desire to work with others, and an ability to trust them. Team leaders need great humility and servanthood - their sole aim is that the team achieves its goals. What they as individuals achieve is secondary. Team leaders are invaluable - if the church is truly to function as a body, team leaders are needed to ensure harmony and effectiveness in the way the team works. **Pastoral leaders** are real "people people", who have an important role in supporting the pioneers, strategists, team leaders and the rest of the organization, particularly when times are hard. Vision and moving into vision seem less important to pastoral leaders. Pastoral leadership is often unseen, and often unappreciated publically, yet hugely important. Those who are pastoral leaders can sometimes be threatened by the pioneers and strategists - and at times are irritated by the attention to detail shown by the managers. Yet their contribution to a team is invaluable - take time for a moment to think of a pastoral leader - and you will probably find that they command huge respect and support. **Encouraging leaders** are able to motivate teams and individuals. They have great discernment into people's gifts, their feelings and what motivates them, able to release them into fulfilling their goals. Encouraging leaders have the knack of knowing when a quiet word can spur people on, when to challenge and when to support, when to coach and when to give space. Occasionally they may irritate people by

appearing less "involved" than other leadership styles - sometimes people want more than just encouragement

Data Collection

The study was limited to 1125 managers working at different levels of organizational hierarchy. All the participants were contacted and requested to fill their responses in the questionnaire provided to them by the research scholar. The purpose of the study was explained to them and they were encouraged to give frank and honest responses to all questions. Amongst all the responses gathered 981 were usable for the purposes of the study. Snow

Data Analysis

For the purpose of data analysis SPSS software is used. The following statistical were used:

1. Descriptive statistics
2. Cronbach Alpha, to check the reliability
3. P-P plot to check the normality of the data
4. Pearson product-moment Correlation
5. Linear regression

Level of significance to accept the results is 0.05 or higher than 0.05

Main Findings

1. Emotional intelligence is positively correlated with pioneering, strategic, management, and team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership. Even the subscales self-awareness, self management, social awareness and social skills are positively correlated with pioneering, strategic, management, team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership.

2. Self awareness is significantly correlated with asserting and compromising styles of conflict management, and there is no relationship between problem solving, avoiding and accommodating styles of conflict management. Self management is significantly and positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no significant relationship with avoiding styles of conflict management. Social awareness is positively and significantly correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no relationship with avoiding style of conflict management. Social skills are positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management.

3. Strategic leadership style is positively correlated with problem solving and asserting styles of conflict management it is negatively correlated with avoiding style of conflict management. It has no relationship with compromising and accommodating style of conflict management. Management style of leadership has positive correlation with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no relationship with avoiding style of conflict management. Team leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It is negatively correlated with avoiding style of conflict management. Pastoral leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no correlation with avoiding style of conflict management Encouraging leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management. It has no correlation with avoiding style of conflict management.

4. Self-awareness, social-awareness and self management are significant predictors of pioneering style of leadership. Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of strategic style of leadership. Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of management style of leadership. Self-management and social skills are significant predictors of team leadership. Social-awareness and social skills are

significant predictors of pastoral style of leadership. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of encouraging style of leadership.

5. Social-awareness is significant predictor of problem solving style of conflict management. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of asserting style of conflict management. EI cannot predict about compromising style of conflict management. Social-awareness is a significant predictor of avoiding style of conflict management. Social-awareness is significant predictors of accommodating style of conflict management.

Managerial implications

Today, diversification is the face of Indian industry. The demographics of Indian workforce is changing more and younger workforce from different regions and cultures is coming together to work together. This change in workforce is changing the work culture of organizations and posing a challenge of leading this diverse workforce to the leaders. In such a scenario emotional intelligence can be of great help to the leaders. Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) reported that executives having better understanding of their own feelings and that of their subordinates are more likely to achieve business outcomes and are considered effective leaders by their subordinates and direct manager. Diggins (2004) emphasized that good managers need emotional intelligence (EI) to make decisions that based on a combination of self-management and relationship skills and an awareness of how their behavior affects others in the organization. He argued that emotional intelligence plays a greater role than "traditional" intelligence in determining leaders' and organizations' success. According to Brown and Brooks (2002, p. 327) "an understanding of emotion, both our own and those of other people, plays an important part in organizational life". In this context, Mayer et al. (2004) stated that superiors need to manage the mood of their organizations and that a mysterious blend of psychological abilities known as emotional intelligence is what leaders need to accomplish that goal. Kellet, Humphery and Sleeth (2002) report that perceiving other's feelings and empathizing with them may establish an effective bond that is beneficial for leadership. Leaders' use of emotions can enhance cognitive processes and decision making (George, 2000). The investigator also emphasizes that for effective leadership the EI skills of leaders should be honed through proper training.

Further, the results reflect that emotional intelligence has positive relationship with collaborative styles of conflict management. It means that people with high EI levels opt for collaborative styles to handle conflicts which results in positive outcomes. Scholars have noted that EI plays an important role in resolving conflict functionally (Borisoff and Victor, 1998; Jordan and Troth, 2002, 2004). Jordan and Troth (2004, p. 196) argued that "the ability to be aware of and manage emotions is also thought to facilitate functional than dysfunctional, conflict resolution and consequently contribute to better team performance".

The privatization of the workplace has lead to increasing organizational change and organizational contextual volatility, which, in turn, has produced increasing differences and conflicts (Dana and Dana, 2003; Sommer, 2003) as cited in (Yu, Sardessai, Lu and Zhao (2006). Furthermore, Indian organizations are involved in mergers and acquisitions taking place at global level will result in workforce diversity and cultural differences that is another major reason of conflicts among employees. Therefore, the findings of this study have some importance to Indian organizations in leadership and managing conflicts.

The results showed significant influence of EI on strategic, management, team, pastoral and encouraging styles of leadership. EI has no significant relationship with pioneering style of leadership. Social awareness or empathy refers to the awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns. According to Goleman (1995), empathy involves understanding others, developing others, and having a service orientation. It implies that the more an individual understands others/colleagues, the more likely he or she will use the team and encouraging styles of leadership.

The problem-solving style is generally perceived to be a more appropriate, more effective, and more competent style in managing conflict. Individuals who experience honest self-awareness also recognize their strengths, weaknesses, needs, and drives. Additionally, these people know how their feelings affect themselves, other people, and their job performance (Goleman, 1999). Self-regulation is an important component of social development and it contributes to the quality of interpersonal relationships (Saarni, 1999). Empathy involves understanding others, developing others, and having a service orientation (Goleman, 1995). Self-

regulation and empathy can be developed (Davis, 1983; Kestenbaum et al., 1989). If managers want to be effective at managing conflict, then it becomes necessary for them to adopt and develop an integrative style. Salopek (1998) noted in an interview with Goleman that emotional intelligence abilities are learned and tend to improve as one ages and matures. Therefore, organizations will have to consciously and continuously strive to inculcate self-regulation and empathy among their managers through an effective programme of training and development.

To reduce the conflict, organizations must increase the levels of EI for their employees' which will help them to manage these conflicts properly and reduce its negative impact on their life and work.

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Appendix I

Survey Questionnaire

Instructions

1. This inventory is to test your level of emotional intelligence. Style of handling interpersonal conflicts and leadership style.
2. The information provided by you will be used for research purposes
3. Your responses will be kept secret.
4. Answer the questions without any reservation.
5. There is no right or wrong response for these statements it only tests your level on basis of certain parameters.
6. Answer all the questions.
7. Encircle the number which defines you best 1-never, 2-rarely, 3-ocassionaly, 4-sometimes, 5-often, 6-most of the times and 7- always

Age **Gender** Male/ Female

Designation **Experience** **years**

	EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE	
	SELF-AWARENESS	
1	Expresses own feelings.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2	Recognize the situations that arouse emotions.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3	Knows how feelings impact own performance.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4	Acknowledges own strengths and areas of weakness.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5	Is not defensive in receiving new information or perspectives about oneself.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	Has sense of humor about oneself.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7	Compensates for own stated limitations by working with others with the necessary strengths.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8	Seeks out opportunities to broaden one's repertoire of capabilities.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9	Makes career choices to leverage opportunities to learn new things or broaden one's experiences.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10	Feels confident to work without the need for direct supervision.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11	Believes oneself to be among the most capable for a job and likely to succeed.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12	Is decisive.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13	Presents self in an assured, forceful, impressive, and unhesitating manner.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14	Speaks out for a course of action one believes in even when others disagree.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15	Assumes significant personal or professional risk to accomplish important goals (e.g., challenging powerful others with an unpopular point of view).	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	SELF- MANAGEMENT	
16	Resists the impulse to act immediately.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17	Stays composed and positive, even in trying moments.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18	Calms others in stressful situations	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19	Behaves consistently with own stated values and beliefs.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20	Publicly admits to mistakes even when it is not easy to do.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21	Confronts unethical actions in others.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22	Is organized and careful in own work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23	Show attention to detail (e.g. double-checks information for accuracy).	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24	Strives to keep promises and commitments.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25	Builds trust through reliability - can be counted on.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26	Willingly changes ideas or perceptions based on new information or contrary evidence.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27	Applies standard procedures flexibly (e.g., alters normal procedures to fit a specific situation).	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28	Is comfortable with ambiguity	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
29	Smoothly juggles multiple demands.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
30	Adapts by changing overall strategy, goals, or projects to fit the situation.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
31	Sets own standards and uses them to judge self-performance.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
32	Expresses dissatisfaction with the status quo and seek ways to improve performance.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
33	Sets measurable and challenging goals for oneself and others.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
34	Makes decisions, sets priorities, and chooses goals on the basis of	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

	calculated costs and benefits.	
35	Anticipates obstacles to a goal in order to overcome them.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
36	Takes calculated risks to reach a goal.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
37	Finds and acts upon present opportunities rather than simply waiting to study options	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
38	Goes beyond what is required or expected.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
39	Cuts through red tape and bends the rules when necessary to get the job done.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
40	Seeks information in unusual ways or from sources not typically used.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
41	Initiates action to create possibilities for the future.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	SOCIAL- AWARENESS	
42	Pays attention and listens.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
43	Asks questions to understand another person.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
44	Accurately reads people's moods, feelings, or nonverbal cues.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
45	Respects, treats with courtesy, and relates well to people of diverse backgrounds.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
46	Demonstrates an ability to see things from someone else's perspective.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
47	Responds to stereotyping by stating and appreciating person's uniqueness.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
48	Understands the underlying causes for someone's feelings, behavior, or concerns.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
49	Accurately reads key relationships social networks in groups, organizations, or the larger world.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
50	Understands the organization's values and culture (e.g., unspoken rules and expectations).	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
51	Understands political forces at work in the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
52	Understands the history and reasons for continuing organizational issues.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
53	Maintains clear communication of mutual expectations with customers or clients.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
54	Monitors customer or client satisfaction.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
55	Takes personal responsibility for resolving customer or client problems undefensively.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
56	Acts as a trusted advisor to a customer or client over time.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

	SOCIAL- SKILLS	
57	Expresses positive expectations about others' potential.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
58	Gives directions or demonstrations to develop someone.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
59	Gives timely, constructive feedback in behavioral rather than personal terms.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
60	Recognizes specific strengths or development.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
61	Provides long-term mentoring or coaching in the context of a continuing friendship.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
62	Expresses concern with own image and reputation, or his/her organization's.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
63	Uses factual arguments to persuade and influence others (e.g., appeals to reason or data).	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
64	Convinces by appealing to people's self-interest.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
65	Takes symbolic actions to have a specific impact on the audience	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
66	Develops broad, behind-the-scenes support to increase persuasive impact.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
67	Uses engaging style in writing or presenting to an audience.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
68	Fine-tunes delivery in accord with audience's mood and emotional reaction.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
69	States a need for change.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
70	Expresses an explicit vision for change to those affected.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
71	Takes a strong, public stand to advocate change despite opposition.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
72	Establishes and maintains close relationships among work associates.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
73	Continuously broadens and maintains a wide network of relationships.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
74	Uses strong mutual relationships toward work goals.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
75	Shares information (e.g., keeps others informed) to foster collaboration.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
76	Expresses positive expectations, or respect for others work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
77	Values, solicits, and uses others' input.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
78	Identifies and encourages opportunities for collaboration across and within groups.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
79	Actively promotes a friendly climate, good morale, and cooperation.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
80	Promotes group reputation with outsiders.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	LEADERSHIP STYLE	

1	I spend quality time thinking about future possibilities.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2	Others see me as an energetic person.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3	I am nearly always clear on the long term direction we should take.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4	I have the faith to aim for things others think are impossible.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5	I try to avoid taking risks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	I tend to overcome barriers to reach goals.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7	I'm good at finding practical solutions to problems.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8	I have a clear focus on what we need to do as an organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9	I'm able to break down projects into the steps that need to be achieved.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10	I would rather focus on what we need to do, than on how we should do it.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11	I see myself as well organized.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12	I delegate well to others in the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13	I can assess what resources are required to complete a project.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14	I am often able to help the organization work more efficiently.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15	I'm often behind schedule because I have so much to do.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16	I believe I can recognize gifts and potential in people.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17	I place a high degree of trust in others in my organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18	I enjoy reconciling different points of view.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19	When I join a group, others tend to look to me for a lead.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20	I prefer to work alone than to work in teams.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21	I see myself as much more of a people person than a task person.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22	Others have commented positively on my listening skills	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23	I seem to build fruitful long-term relationships easily.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24	I pray regularly for those around me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25	Having a number of activities underway gives me real satisfaction.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26	Others have said how much they appreciated my encouragement.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27	I'm particularly good at sensing how people are feeling.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28	I go out of my way to give people feedback on their work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
29	I seem to have the knack of finding the right words to motivate people.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
30	I'm at my best spearheading a particular task.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLE	
	PROBLEM-SOLVING	
1	When you disagreed with the boss\peers, did you suggest that you work together to create solutions?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2	When you disagreed with the boss\peers, did you try to bring both parties' concerns out into the open so that you could find a joint solution?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3	When boss\peers disagreed with you, did they suggest that you work together to create solutions?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4	When the boss\peers disagreed with you, did they try to bring both parties' concerns out into the open so that you could find a joint solution?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	ASSERTING	
5	In situations where you disagreed with the boss\peers, did you insist that your position be accepted?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	In situations where you disagreed with the boss\peers, did you stand firm in expressing your viewpoints?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7	In situations where the boss\peers disagreed with you, did they insist that their position be accepted?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8	In situations where the boss\peers disagreed with you, did they stand firm in expressing their viewpoints?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	AVOIDING	
9	Did you avoid discussions with the boss\peers when confrontations were likely to occur?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10	When you disagreed with the boss\peers, did you keep your opinions to yourself?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11	Did the boss\peers avoid discussions with you when confrontations were likely to occur?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12	When the boss\peers disagreed with you, did they keep their opinions to themselves?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	COMPROMISING	
13	When you disagreed with the boss\peers, did you offer trade-offs to reach a middle-ground solution?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14	When you disagreed with the boss\peers, did you compromise to reach an acceptable solution?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15	When the boss\peers disagreed with you, did they offer trade-offs to reach a middle-ground solution?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16	When the boss\peers disagreed with you, did they compromise to reach an acceptable solution?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	ACCOMMODATING	
17	When you disagreed with the boss\peers, did you go along with their wishes?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18	When you disagreed with the boss\peers, did you give in to their suggestions?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19	When the boss\peers disagreed with you, did they go along with your wishes?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20	When the boss\peers disagreed with you, did they give in to your suggestions?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix ii

Publication

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