IS IT REALLY GOOD TO BE EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT? A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Dr. Vibhuti Gupta

ABSTRACT

Emotional Intelligence, as a field of study, has both proponents as well as opponents. Some researchers strongly support it while others simply reject it. The researchers, who support Emotional Intelligence, argue that it is important to be emotionally intelligent because it has direct impact in both personal as well as professional life. However, researchers who do not support it have criticised it in terms of its role, scientific validity and validity of the measurement scales. The paper, based on review of literature, throws light on arguments, both for and against Emotional Intelligence, its importance in organizations like job performance, job satisfaction, interpersonal relationships, negotiation, organisational commitment, employee engagement, leadership, organisation citizenship behaviour etc., and its importance for managers.

INTRODUCTION

"There can be no knowledge without emotion. We may be aware of a truth, yet until we have felt its force, it is not ours. To the cognition of the brain must be added the experience of the soul." Arnold Bennett, British novelist (1867-1931)

Emotions are an inseparable part of our everyday life (Robbins). Being emotional or display of emotions in work settings is considered irrational, a sign of incompetence at times, or being unprofessional, though. Emotions are considered as antithesis of rationality by many (Robbins, 274). The fact that cannot be denied, however, is that people do carry their emotions with them throughout the day; they even carry their emotions with them at their workplaces. Fleming et al in their article in

Keywords:Emotional Intelligence, Interpersonal relationship, Employee Engagement, Job Satisfaction, Gender, Negotiation

Assistant Professor, IMS Unison University, Dehradun, E-mail: dr.vibhutil@gmail

Harvard Business Review, On the High Performance Organisation say that nothing human is ever simple. People may think that their behaviour is purely rational, but it rarely is. They conclude that after spending twenty years of research in neuroscience and behavioural economics, they established that people base their decisions on complicated mixture of emotion and reason. Indeed, their recent work suggests that emotions play a larger role than analysis (pp 117). Emotions, as described by Frijda are intense feelings that are directed at someone or something. We have often used or heard by someone the common phrase, you are just being emotional. But, we all understand and have experienced that when it comes to shaping our decisions and our actions, feelings count every bit as much-and often- more-than thought (Goleman, 1995, pp. 4). According to Charles Darwin in The Expression of Emotions in Man and Animals, emotions are useful because they motivate people to engage in actions that are important for survival. Many studies on emotions have been done in the past; be it emotional contagion; ie the process in which people's emotions are caused by emotions of others (P.B. Barker and A.A. Grandey) or emotional labour i.e display of organisationally desired emotions (Horschield) or emotional intelligence (Thorndike, Mayer ad Salovey, D Goleman, etc) etc.

Borrowing a fine thread from above that there have been multiple studies on emotions and various facets of emotions; we now devote this paper to emotional intelligence (EI) and does it hold any importance in personal or professional life being emotionally intelligent. Why so many studies are being carried out on EI, for or against, no matter; but serious research studies are being devoted to this single topic of study, including development of various measurement scales for EI.

Emotional Intelligence has gained immense popularity in the literature due to various reasons; most important amongst all being managing and enhancing effectiveness of people in organizations (Shailendra Singh, 2004). According to Goleman and his colleagues (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000) EI is "a convenient phrase with which it is easier to focus attention on human talent. Even though it is a simple phrase, it incorporates the complexity of a person's capability". Some studies have proved that EI contributes for 85 to 90 percent of outstanding performance in the top management, which results into increase in about 20 percent more profit for companies (Goleman, 1998; Kemper 1999; Watkin, 2000). Extensive research interest in emotions in recent years makes the idea of an emotion-related trait a timely and potentially important development. (Fulmer & Barry 2004). Emotional Intelligence, as a field of study, has both proponents as well as opponents. Some researchers strongly support it while others simply reject it on various grounds including scientific reasons. The important point worth mentioning is that through innumerable research studies on EI, it can be well established that the findings are more in confirmation than contradiction. Ciarrochi, Chan, and Caputi (2000) commented about EI literature, "while the definitions of EI are often varied for different researchers, they nevertheless tend to be complementary rather than contradictory" (p. 540).

According to some researchers, it is important to be emotionally intelligent because it has direct impact on job performance, job satisfaction, interpersonal relationships, negotiation, organisational commitment, employee engagement, leadership, organisation citizenship behaviour etc. Through various research studies and development of various EI measurement scales the proponents of EI have attempted to prove that there exists a distinction between traditional personality type traits, general mental ability and EI. Simply put, EI is the intelligent use of emotions. Though, there are arguments against the concept as well, however, researches are still ongoing at different levels to prove the importance and validity of the concept. But as Goleman puts it, intelligence can come to nothing when the emotions hold sway (p. 4).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Going through the literature, it was found that innumerable studies have been taken in the field of Emotional Intelligence. The studies, it was found, dealt with specific areas only like Employee Engagement and EI, Job Satisfaction and EI, Organisation Citizenship Behaviour and EI and many more. It was felt by the author that one study has to be devoted mentioning most of the best of the studies at one place in the interest of the academics as well as practitioners. Hence, the author attempted to mention majority of concepts related to EI at one place to benefit the readers which may include academics as well as practitioners. It is important to learn about emotions at work place and how to deal with them. It is, at the same time, equally important to understand self as well as others. Untamed emotions may become toxic and hamper the growth and productivity of the organizations. Toxic emotions at work may be detrimental to the overall well being of the employee, they may also contribute to strained relationship at work, employee disengagement and job dissatisfaction. Hence, it was considered imperative to discuss as many well established concepts of EI related to various workplace issues as possible on a single platform.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Emotional Intelligence is the ability of a person to be aware of oneself, others and manage the emotional cues. Earliest description of something like EI can be found in the social intelligence theory by Edward Lee Thorndike in 1920, who described "the ability to understand and manage men and women . . . to act wisely in human relations" (p.228). It was modified by Moss and Hunt in 1927 as, the "ability to get along with others" (p. 108). Vernon, 1933 further elaborated it as the "ability to get along with people in general; social technique or ease in society; knowledge of social matter; susceptibility to stimuli from other members of a group; as well as insight into the temporal moods or underlying personality traits of strangers" (p. 44). However, all through these years, EI was used occasionally only with no direct reference to the term EI. Gardner (1983) quoted EI as intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence while writing about multiple intelligence. In 1986, Wayne Payne used EI in his doctoral dissertation, but never got it published. In 1990, Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer, two psychologists from Yale University, published an article on EI in the Journal Imagination, Cognition and Personality and explained it as an individual's ability to understand and manage emotions in self and others. Since Salovey and Mayer, in their article, for the first time explained the concept in depth, they have been credited as the originator of this concept. They defined EI as "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). Taking cues from the article of Salovey and Mayer, Daniel Goleman in the year 1995 came up with his book, Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ. This book became a bestseller and hence made the concept a common topic of discussion amongst people at large. Goleman defines emotional intelligence as the "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope." Reuven Bar-On took idea from the bestseller book of Daniel Goleman and in the year 1997 developed a scale popularly known as EQ-i which defines EI as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's abilities to success in coping with environmental demands and pressures". Schutte et al through their paper in 2001 established relation between EI and interpersonal relationships through their seven studies laying emphasis on various aspects of relationships. They focused on empathetic perspective in study one, self monitoring in study two, in study three they focused on social skills, in study four, on

cooperative response for partners, in study five they studied about close and affectionate relationship, in study six, they attempted to study about marital satisfaction if the marital partner is high on EI scale and in study seven they attempted to learn about the EI preference of respondents for prospective partners. Wong and Law (2002) developed a 16-item scale; a self report measure of EI. This scale was based on the four-branch ability model of EI: perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, and regulating emotions. (Foo et al) that was proposed by Salovey and Mayer in 1990. Wong et al. in 2004, revised their Emotional Intelligence Scale.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This paper is based on exhaustive review of literature. Several research studies from various sources, including some of the bestsellers and Harvard Business Review publications have been referred to.

I. Emotional intelligence and its models

Over a period of time various models have been suggested by different researchers for EI. Models can be explained in two broad categories which are the ability approach and the mixed approach models. In ability approach model, developed by Mayer, Salovey et. al., EI is considered as a set of cognitive abilities. Daniel Goleman's model of EI is considered as the mixed approach model. It is a combination of personality traits as well as abilities (Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey, 2002; Tett, Fox, and Wang, 2005). The mixed model is so-called because they mix in well-studied but mostly un-correlated traits such as optimism, motivation, and well-being with aspects of ability EI (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

In this paper, five models of EI would be discussed:

- Four-dimensional model of Salovey and Mayer (1990)
- Five skills model of Daniel Goleman (1995)
- Ruven Bar-on Model (1997)
- Four-dimensional model of M. Davies, L. Stankov, & R. D. Robert. (1998)
- EI model of intrapersonal and interpersonal dimension by H. Weisinger's (1998)

The Four-dimensional model of Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer (1990)

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined EI as "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Mayer and Salovey, 1997, p. 10). Mayer, Salovey and Caruso define emotional intelligence (EI) as "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth." Taking the concept further, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) describe the four-branch model of EI i.e. perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, and regulating emotions as detailed below:

- The ability to perceive emotions which incorporates skills like understanding and interpreting the facial expressions of others.
- The ability to use emotions in thinking process. It is the ability to weigh conflicting emotions and decide the future behaviour.

- The ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge.
- The ability to regulate emotions in self and in others.

According to this model, EI is considered as an ability that can be measured. They developed a scale and named it the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). The MSCEIT measures the ability to perceive emotion by showing people faces and designs and asking them to identify emotions in them. The model does not focus on personality traits or dispositions except as an outcome of having the underlying skills (Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey, 2002). They later revised the MSCEIT and named it MSCEIT Version 2.0 (Mayer et al., 2002). The test contains 141 items, to be answered in about 35 minutes. The test consists of eight tasks, which are divided into four classes or branches of abilities including (a) perceiving emotion, (b) using emotion to facilitate thought, (c) understanding emotion, and (d) managing emotions. (Brackett et al. 2004). Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) distinguish emotional intelligence from social intelligence. According to them, emotional intelligence encompasses not only interpersonal reasoning but also intra-individual emotional perception and reasoning; because it "pertains primarily to the emotional (but not necessarily verbal) problems embedded in social relationships" (p. 272).

The MSCEIT is a widely used scale for EI test in individuals. The academic community heavily depends on the EI model by Mayer and Salovey. According to researchers "the Mayer and Salovey definition of emotional intelligence is the recognized standard for scholarly discourse" (Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Hartel, 2003, p. 196).

Five skills model of Daniel Goleman (1995)

Daniel Goleman defines emotional intelligence as "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope." His model is known as the mixed model. Goleman's model of El has five skill areas: Self-Awareness, Self-Regulation and Motivation relate to personal competence whereas Empathy and Social Skills relate to social competence. These five dimensions of El consist of 25 competencies (cited in Shailendra Singh, 2004, Goleman 1998, Goleman et al 2001). Goleman et al through their article in Harvard Business Review in 2001 linked EI with Primal Leadership: The Hidden Driver of Great Performance. These are elaborated below with the five skills model:

- 1. Self awareness: a. Emotional Self awareness, b. accurate self assessment, and c. self confidence. Self-awareness extends to a person's understanding of his or her values and goals. Someone who is highly self-aware knows where he is headed and why (Goleman, 1998). Regarding leaders in an article in Harvard Business Review on Primal Leadership (Goleman et al 2001), they say, resonant leaders use self-awareness to gauge their own moods accurately, and they intuitively know how they are affecting others. (pp 36).
- 2. Self regulation: a self control, b. trustworthiness, c. conscientiousness, d. adaptability, and e. innovation. Self regulation, which is like an ongoing inner conversation, is the component of emotional intelligence that frees us from being prisoners of our feelings (Goleman, 1998). Such people know how to channel and regulate bad feelings. Goleman further elaborates the signs of emotional self-regulation are easy to see; like a propensity for reflection and thoughtfulness; comfort with ambiguity and change; and integrity-an ability to say no to impulsive urges (Goleman 1998). Resonant leaders don't let their occasional bad moods seize the day; they use self-management to leave it outside the office or to explain its source to people in a reasonable manner, so they know where it's coming from and how long it might last. Resonant leaders often keenly understand how their words and actions

make others feel, and they are sensitive enough to change them when that impact is negative. (Goleman et al, 2001, pp 36).

- 3. Self motivation: a achievement drive, b. commitment, c. initiative, and d. optimism. Goleman asks, how can one identify people who are motivated by the drive to achieve rather than by external rewards? The first sign, he says is a passion for the work itself-such people seek out creative challenges, love to learn, and take great pride in a job well done. Such people with high motivation, according to Goleman, remain optimistic even when the score is against them. In such cases, self regulation combines with achievement motivation to overcome the frustration and depression that come after a setback or failure.
- 4. Empathy: a. understanding of others, b. developing others, c. service orientation, d. leveraging diversity and e. political awareness. Empathy according to Goleman means thoughtfully considering employees' feelings-along with other factors-in the process of making intelligent decisions.
- 5. Social skills: a. influence, b. communication, c. conflict management, d. leadership, e. change catalyst, f. building bonding, collaboration and cooperation, and h. team capabilities. Socially skilled people tend to have a wide circle of acquaintances, and they have a knack for finding common ground with people of all kinds-a knack for building rapport.

There are two measurement tools based on Goleman's model: the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) and the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI).

Ruven Bar-On Model 1997

Bar-On's model is considered to have a broader definition of emotional intelligence (FernandezBerrocal & Extremera, 2006). It includes emotional and social competencies that lead to adequately understanding and expressing one's self.

The competencies are categorized into five main dynamics:

- 1. Intrapersonal skills: i.e. the ability to understand and be aware of one's own emotions
- 2. Interpersonal skills: i.e. the ability to understand and be aware of others' emotions
- 3. Adaptability: i.e. the ability to being open and willing to change feelings
- 4. Stress management: i.e. the ability to be able to cope-up with stress
- 5. General mood: i.e. the ability to feel and express positive feelings (Bar-On, Tranel, Denburg, and Bechara (2003))

In the year 1997, Bar-On developed a scale popularly known as EQ-i which defines EI as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's abilities to success in coping with environmental demands and pressures". This EQ-I Scale has been widely used by researchers to measure EI.

EI model of intrapersonal and interpersonal dimension by H. Weisinger's (1998)

Weisinger's (1998) model is based on Salovey and Mayer's EI theory. Like Goleman's model, this model also divides into two parts, one that deals with intrapersonal dimensions like self-awareness, managing emotions, and self-motivation and the interpersonal dimension that deals with relating well with others and emotional mentoring

Intrapersonal dimensions of EI:

1. Self-awareness: i.e. monitoring and observing oneself, and influence the results of actions for greater effectiveness.

- 2. Managing emotions: i.e. to understand one's emotions and with the help of these emotions to deal with situations effectively.
- 3. Self-motivation: i.e. to recognize and use internal and external sources of motivation to deal with positive as well as negative situations.

Interpersonal dimensions of EI:

- 4. Relating well: i.e. to develop efficient communication skills that helps in building strong interpersonal relationships.
- 5. Emotional mentoring: i.e. to help others managing their own emotions, solve problems, and perform to the best of their abilities.

Four-dimensional model of M. Davies, L. Stankov, & R. D. Robert (1998)

This model is also similar to the earlier mentioned models. It too deals with the intrapersonal and interpersonal relationship dimensions. The four-dimensional definition of EI developed by Davies et al. (1998) are as follows:

- Appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself: The ability to understand and express one's own emotions.
- 2. Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others: The ability to perceive and understand the emotions of others. Those high in this ability tend to be more sensitive towards other's feelings.
- 3. Regulation of emotion in oneself: The ability of a person to regulate one's own emotions. People high on this dimension experience more rapid recovery from psychological distress.
- 4. Use of emotion to facilitate performance: The ability of a person to make use of his or her emotions. It enables a person to direct his or her emotions towards some constructive activities.

From the above mentioned five models of EI, it can be seen that all the models majorly deal with understanding and regulating emotions in self as well as others, motivation and empathy, though explained differently by different proponents.

II. Interpersonal relationship at workplace, its importance and role of Emotional Intelligence in maintaining good interpersonal relations at work.

Creating and sustaining good intrapersonal well being and interpersonal relationship at the workplace can be a challenge at times for the organisations. Research studies have proved that EI can be a useful tool in this direction. Research studies have also proved that people can be trained in the field of EI. A person who can understand his or her own emotions and regulate them according to the situation, can understand from the tone or facial expression of others about their emotions and regulate their emotions accordingly, are empathetic towards the feelings of others or can experience what the other person is going through, may remain motivated in good or bad situation and can relate well with others at the workplace, can become successful in forming good interpersonal relationships at the work place, as a result may gain more social support in the organisation. Contrary to it, research has proved, a person low on EI may face problems at intrapersonal as well as interpersonal relationships, both. People high on EI become able to manage and deal with difficult people, thereby create good

interpersonal relations at workplace. In the Research Driven Manager Series of Harvard Business Review, Dealing with Difficult People, Constantine von Hoffman, mentions that an emotionally intelligent manager might not try to change difficult employees' behavior directly; instead the manager would help employees understand the problems they are causing. (pg 40) This in turn may help create a ground for improved behavior and sound inter-personal relationship.

Edward Hallowell in Harvard Business Review describes "a human moment" at the time of dealing with any kind of distressing situation. According to him, "the human moment has two prerequisites, people's physical presence and their emotional and intellectual attention". (Hallowell, 1999, pp. 59). Such close interactions during distress act in a positive manner in building strong interpersonal relationships. Managers who understand the human moment, can intelligently deal with difficult situations as well as people.

In the seven studies; namely

- 1. Emotional Intelligence, Empathy and Self Monitoring,
- 2. Emotional Intelligence and Empathy Replicated,
- 3. Emotional Intelligence and Social Skills,
- 4. Emotional Intelligence and Cooperation,
- 5. Emotional Intelligence and relations with others,
- 6. Emotional Intelligence and Marital Satisfaction, and
- 7. Preference for Emotionally Intelligent Partners

by Schutte et al.; the authors found that Emotional Intelligence was connected to the interpersonal relations in the US population. According to Schutte et al., the qualities that are expected to create more successful interpersonal relationships are empathic perspective taking, self-monitoring, good social skills, cooperation and they were found to be related to EI. They found that higher EI scores were associated with better relationships as operationalised by higher scores for close and affectionate relationships and for marital satisfaction (Schutte et al 2001). They also found that respondents preferred high emotionally intelligent person as their prospective partner.

III. Relation between Emotional Intelligence, Interpersonal Relationship, Employee Engagement and Job Satisfaction.

Importance is being given to EI because of its vast applicability to several workplace issues like organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job performance, interpersonal relationship at work etc (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Sosik& Megerian, 1996: Wright & Staw, 1999) and a number of claims have been made about EI predicting success (Cooper, 1997). According to Goleman et al, "emotional intelligence is carried through an organization like electricity through wires" (Goleman et al. 2001). In a study, Learning Dimensions, Australia, in partnership with Swinburne University, used scientifically valid instruments to measure EI and a number of other factors that contributed to workplace performance. The findings show that people high in emotional intelligence have (Serge Sardo, 2004):

- lower absenteeism from work
- 2. better psychological health
- 3. higher commitment to the organisation

- 4. clearer role boundaries
- 5. higher levels of responsibility for the activities and work performance of direct reports
- 6. are generally more satisfied at work
- 7. more regularly seek support when coping with stressful situations at work.

Peter J Frost, in his book Toxic Emotions at Work and What you Can do About Them mentions a short story where a patient was severely ill and was being treated in the post operative ward in a hospital. The patient encountered near death experience in the morning. The nurse did all technical things that could have been done, like calling doctor, checking reports and medicines etc. However, what was remarkable was the extra care given by her to the patient; highly engaged employees walk an extra mile for their job which also leads to job satisfaction; she regularly checked in, spoke words of encouragement to the patient and sat beside him and tried to make him comfortable through-out the day. By the end of her shift, the patient appeared to be much better and relaxed. He was seen sitting comfortably and reading newspaper. Such instances at once explain the importance of being empathetic and motivated at the work place and how it could create strong interpersonal relation, in this case between the patient and nurse, how actively engaged she was with her job. (Frost, pg 17)

Emotional Intelligence and Employee engagement

Research studies on employee engagement have gained lot of attention, of late and have focused on the issue because of the business organizations which face economic challenges, and have to manage doing more with limited resources in an increasingly competitive environment (Albrecht, 2010). Several studies have found that it is difficult to actively engage the employees and there are various reasons for the same. Amongst others, EI is one important reason for employee engagement or disengagement. Employee engagement means an individual's involvement with his or her job and the enthusiasm with which they do their work. It would not be wrong to say that employee engagement is affected by the employee's feelings, ideas, and views about his or her job. Employee engagement leads to enthusiasm, passion for the work, and a sense of pride (Alvi et al., 2014). Employees who are actively engaged in their organizations are psychologically happy and emotionally attached to their job as well as the organization, and work with great enthusiasm (Anandhi & Perumal, 2013). According to De Clercq, Bouckenooghe, Raja, and Matsyborska (2014), employee engagement is a set of positive emotions that brings congruence and focus on goal alignment, resulting in the reduction of organizational nonconformity. It is believed that sufficient evidence now exists to suggest that employee engagement is a unique psychological state (Albrecht, 2010; Markos & Sridevi, 2010; Truss et al., 2014).

The manager's role is significant in creating a workplace environment in which the employee determines the degree to which they are personally committed to the daily work and organizational goals (Markos & Sridevi, 2010). If the interpersonal relationship amongst employees and managers is healthy, studies have proved that the employees are more productive, innovative, and collaborative. Empathy, motivation, self-awareness, and control are important emotional intelligence competencies when building strong collaborations (Goleman et al., 2002) and it is equally applicable in the work place. If the manager is empathetic towards his subordinates, understand their problems and hence take corrective actions, is motivated and self aware will avoid indulging in acts that are not appreciated by his team, can build strong social relationships and would be appreciated by his team. Research has proved that the leaders who connect with their teams emotionally are more successful and succeed creating an environment beneficial for the growth of the organisation. Surveys conducted by research organisations like Tower Watson and Gallup International have proved that the organisations which

have actively engaged employees generate more profit compared to those which have disengaged employees. In a study conducted on a tertiary care hospital setting, there existed a statistically significant correlation between the level of emotional intelligence of frontline managers and supervisors and their direct reports' degree of engagement within the workplace.

Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the consequence of an employee's discernment of how well their job affords those things that are regarded as significant (Nair, Gopal, & Babu, 2012). It is an emotional state that results from the consideration of one's job experience. Locke (1969, p. 314) defined job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as "complex emotional reactions to the job". There are several reasons why EI can be linked to job satisfaction. A leader who is high on EI, cultivates an organizational climate that stimulates job satisfaction (Albion et al., 2008; Al Hajj & Dagher, 2010; Prati et al., 2003). Individuals with high EI experience continuous positive moods and feelings that generate higher levels of satisfaction and well-being compared to individuals who experience such feelings and moods as disappointment, depression and anger, because they can reach a higher level of general satisfaction and fulfilment. (Abraham Carmeli, (2003)). A number of studies have observed weak to modest relationships between trait EI measures and job satisfaction. (Bar-On 1997, Carmeli, 2003).

In a study conducted on doctors to find the relation between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and patient satisfaction by Weng et. al. 2011, it was found that the doctors who were high on EI, experienced more job satisfaction, greater patient satisfaction whom these doctors attended to and the doctors themselves experienced less burn-out. Age did play an important role in this study. The more senior in age and experience a doctor was, the more emotionally intelligent s/he was and the less burn-out was experienced.

Yet another study of food service workers and their managers (Sy et al., 2006) observed a positive association between an ability based Wong Law Emotional Intelligence Scale: WLEIS (Wong & Law, 2002) and job satisfaction in employees and their managers.

The studies lead to the direction that EI has a positive effect on job satisfaction. People who are high on EI experience more job satisfaction. This may be due to their emotional awareness and regulatory processes in interpersonal relationships, which may help benefit people in their social relationships. However, being aware of one's own emotions can lead to managing negative emotions and stress, effectively.

IV. Role of Gender in Emotional Intelligence and Interpersonal Relations.

Emotional intelligence involves the capacity to carry out reasoning in regard to emotions, and the capacity of emotions to enhance reasoning (Brackett et al. 2004). Women are considered to be more emotional compared to men. But, are they emotionally intelligent too compared to men; is an area of research.

There appears to be non conformity in different research studies on this particular aspect. While few studies prove women to be more emotionally intelligent compared to their male counterparts, others prove just the opposite.

In a study by Katyal and Awasthi in Chandigarh in 2005; it was found that girls were more emotionally intelligent than boys. However, in a study by Summaiya et al in Pakistan in 2009, it was found that male were more emotionally intelligent than the females. In yet another study by Brackett et. al., women scored significantly higher in EI than men (Brackett et al. 2004). The study suggested that males with lower EI were found to have poor quality peer relations. This lead to the conclusion that individuals

with low EI may have trouble establishing meaningful social interactions. This study by Brackett et al was in conformity with an emerging pattern of correlations between lower EI and larger amounts of alcohol consumption, illegal drug use, and involvement in deviant behaviour (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Formica, 1998; Trinidad & Johnson, 2001). It suggests that males with high scores on alexithymia (self reported difficulty in identifying and expressing emotions) measures report increased alcohol consumption and drug use, and psychoactive substance dependence (Helmers & Mente, 1999; Kauhanen, Julkunen, & Salonen, 1992). Kafetsios, & Zampetakis found no statistically significant gender differences in EI and work affect but women scored higher than men on job satisfaction at a statistically significant level. In a study, women performed significantly better than men on all four scales of the MSCEIT. The finding was consistent with previous research on emotions and with research that has found gender differences on ability-based EI measures (Ciarrochi et al., 2000; A.L. Day, S.A. Carroll, 2004).

A large body of research shows women are better able to read unstated social information, including feelings from facial expressions and other nonverbal clues (Hall, 1978, 1984; Rosenthal, Hall, DiMatteo, Rogers, & Archer, 1979). Recent research has shown that areas of the brain devoted to emotional processing may be larger in women than men, which may also be related to the observed gender differences in EI (Gur, Gunning-Dixon, Bilker, & Gur, 2002). However, this is a matter of research to establish if there exists any gender difference for EI.

V. Role of Emotional Intelligence during Negotiations

EI is said to involve the ability to perceive and accurately express emotion, to use emotion to facilitate thought, to understand emotions, and to manage emotions for emotional growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Research studies have shown that individual differences do have an effect on negotiation outcomes. A good number of research studies have been carried to find the relation between emotional intelligence and negotiation outcomes. Researchers have highlighted the importance of intrapersonal and interpersonal abilities that are required in the challenging process of negotiations (Barry, & Friedman, 1998; De Dreu et al., 1999).

Human communication cannot take place in the absence of emotional expressions. A smart and emotionally intelligent negotiator may always read the cues from the tone and facial expression of the other party to take the negotiation to his/her desired direction through its various phases (initiation, influence, problem solving, conclusion) (Morris & Keltner, 2000). People who have the ability to practice self control, not lose temper during complex situations or negotiation, are in better position to take the process to the desired end without spoiling the atmosphere of negotiation. Individuals high on EI tend to have greater ability to understand that any negotiation may involve emotional dimension after a certain level; hence such high EI individuals deal with these situations strategically. They may also be better at "buffering," or compartmentalizing, the extreme emotional reactions of their partner (Thompson, Nadler, & Kim, 1999). They may also be more apt to use emotion management tactics (e.g., feigning or exaggerating happiness or anger as a ploy) to elicit some desired emotional response from an opponent (Barry, 1999). If an individual does not regulate his or her emotions, negotiations can sometimes degenerate so that both parties leave the negotiation dissatisfied with the outcomes (Adler, Rosen, & Silverstein, 1998; Kumar, 1997).

Study of Foo et al proved that it is important to understand the reciprocal effects of emotion. Their findings show that crucial outcomes can depend on the emotional intelligence of both sides of the social influence process. In the Harvard Business School Press publication on Negotiating Outcomes, it says when emotion takes control of a negotiation, the parties often stop focusing on logical control and rational solutions, and the dialogue falls apart (pp. 62). To overcome unchecked and irrational

emotions, it suggests a cooling off period, to determine what makes other party angry, to be responsive, to focus on issue, not on opposing negotiator and enlist an objective moderator. (pp. 62)

VI. Reasons for and against Emotional Intelligence and its role in Organizations

As discussed in the introductory paragraph, EI has both proponents as well as opponents. While there are proponents like Mayer and Salovey, Goleman, Ashkanasy et al, Bar-On, to name a few who stand in favour of EI and elaborate its importance and role in everyday life as well as work life. There are equally strong points raised against EI by authors like Landy, Locke and Conte to name a few, in terms of its role, scientific validity and validity of the measurement scales.

The immense popularity of Goleman's (1995) book on Emotional Intelligence invited lot of criticism from the academics. Further, the promotion of the models and scales for emotional intelligence developed by different authors, who claimed that emotional intelligence could guarantee success in almost any area of one's life (Mayer, 1999, Ashkanasy, 2003), invited severe criticisms. There have been multiple criticisms raised against the concept of EI. While some criticise it because most of its conclusions are based on data from proprietary databases, which are not available for scientific scrutiny (Landy, 2005); yet others have questioned the very basis of the construct because emotion and cognition are distinct, and whatever is being claimed as emotional intelligence is merely an assortment of habits, skills, and choices (Locke, 2005, cited in Ashkanasy, 2003). But the strongest criticism of these models has been their measurement. The measurement scales, developed by different authors, vary widely in their content as well as their measurement approach. While some use a self-report, others might propagate an informant approach, or an ability-based assessment. According to Landy, the construct of EI lacks scientific validity and it is more in line with the theory of social intelligence. According to Locke the theoretical construct of EI is defective. Conte has challenged the measurement scales that have been developed by various authors from time to time for EI.

It has, however, been established that emotions play a critical role in developing and maintaining social relationships (Ashkanasy, 2003, Lopes & Salovey, 2001). Harvard Business Press publication Managing Difficult Interactions, mentions about emotions during interactions. It says that dealing with difficult emotions and thoughts that trigger them are hard to bear..... With some self-empathy and reflection, you can experience and dissolve difficult feelings in relative short order (pp 33). Regarding workgroups, research by Jordan and Troth (2004) and Offermann, Bailey, Seal, and Sass (2004) has suggested that, while intellectual intelligence is the pre-eminent predictor of individual work performance, group performance is more a function of emotional than intellectual intelligence.

In Harvard Business Review, on Finding and Keeping the Best People, James Waldroop and Timothy Butler, argue that an astonishing number of people have difficulty getting outside their own frame of reference and seeing through another person's, i.e. they lack empathy......having a well developed sense of empathy is essential if one is to deal successfully with one's peers, subordinates, managers, customers and competitors (pp 159).

VII. Recommendations for improvement opportunities for managers so that they become responsive to the feelings of themselves as well as others and, understand their strengths and weaknesses, learn to manage negative emotions and develop their communication and relationship skills.

EI is all about understanding self and others and how to manage emotions of self as well as others. Understanding self and others may play a crucial role in developing intrapersonal well being and interpersonal relationships at work place. Starting from the reportedly first paper on EI by Mayer and Salovey in the year 1990, there is no looking back for the researchers on the said topic. It has gained

momentum due to its applicability at work settings. It is yet another important concept in the field of Organisation Behaviour where people can monitor and modify the behaviour of self as well as others. It is imperative to understand people and put them first, a quote worth taking from The Human Equation: Building Profits by Putting People First, Harvard Business School Press, "Capital and machines make it possible, People make it happen" (Pfeffer, pp. 305). If managers become responsive to the feelings of self as well as others, understand their strengths as well as weaknesses, understand the art of dealing with negative emotions, master the skill of communicating with others, superior or subordinate, how and when to use what communication style, would cumulatively lead to a new and enhanced kind of work environment and resultant enhanced interpersonal relationships at work. Example, a manager who is aware that there exists a negative situation which has to be dealt with would convince himself as well as others that there exists a toxic situation which cannot be changed. Would ask, "what constructive things we can do to change it?" They encourage people in bad situation to stay balanced, and to, "take care of yourself as well as the business" (Frost, pp 119), Research studies, though few, have proved that people can be trained in EI (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002, Ashkanasy et al., 2002, Goleman et al, 2001). People high on EI can contribute more to the organizations in terms of negotiation outcomes, networking inside as well as outside organization. A text from Harvard Business Review appears worth quoting here, "emotional intelligence isn't a luxury you can dispense with in tough times. It's a basic tool that, deployed with finesse, is the key to professional success."

DISCUSSION

Emotions are contagious! (Goleman); the statement holds true in organisations equally as in everyday life. Through multiple examples quoted in the study, it can be concluded that emotions do play an important role in organisations. To deal with them needs deep understanding of various aspects. Peter J Frost in his book Toxic Emotions at Work and What You Can do about Them discusses about long term effects of any emotional pain in the organisation. According to him, the emotional pain at the workplace is not toxic in itself, but how that pain is handled, determines whether its long term effects are positive or negative. (pp. 12) An emotionally intelligent manager will adopt a different methodology to deal with toxic emotions at work because s/he is aware of self as well as other's behaviours. Such handling of situations has long term implications in the organisations. If not handled intelligently, these emotions may bring its own tide of trouble like employee disengagement, job dissatisfaction, stress and burn-out which may lead to health issues, strained inter-personal relationships etc. Managers and leaders have to be emotionally intelligent to deal with any kind of organisational pain that may lead to toxicity, they have to be aware about self enough to manage their own mood and behaviour. As Goleman et al elaborate in The Primal Leadership: The Hidden Driver to Great Performance, a leader's emotional style also drives everyone else's moods and behaviorsthrough a neurological process called mood contagion. According to them, it's akin to "Smile and the whole world smiles with you." (Goleman et al, 2001, pp 31). An emotionally intelligent manager may take the situation as well as people into consideration, even when it has to do with an extreme negative situation and would accept it confidently. Bob deRodes, President and CEO of Delta Technology, Delta Airlines, says, "Strong leaders have to care about people, it has to be part of their DNA". Moreover, an emotionally intelligent manager may give new direction to a negotiation because of his/her understanding of the situation, other party's facial expression, tone and at the same time guarding his own emotions and facial expression.

It can safely be concluded that Emotional Intelligence has multiple dimensions and it does help being emotionally intelligent. EI might have been the most debated topic for academics, but it is worth

quoting Stephen P Robbins, "though it is too early to comment on the usefulness of the topic, but one thing is clear is that EI is there to stay".

LIMITATIONS

Most of the studies conducted on Emotional Intelligence focus on its impact on interpersonal relationship. However, less work has been done on the impact of Emotional Intelligence on Employee Engagement, Job Satisfaction and Negotiation. Gender specific studies also need attention.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Through literature review, it was found that impact of cultural difference on EI has not been undertaken as a study, so far the author can understand. Cultural dimension demands special attention, for example, Indians are known to be inherently emotional. This can be a potential area of research so as to establish if there exists any role of cultural difference on EI or EI is separate from the issue of cultural differences. Nomological networks of EI need to be established. Some standardized EI measurement scales need to be developed, the validity of which can be scientifically proven and which can be uniformly applied.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I take this opportunity to sincerely thank Prof Shailendra Singh, Professor (HRM), Indian Institute of Management, Lucknow for his constant guidance and invaluable insights on the subject.

REFERENCES

Abraham, Carmeli, (2003). The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes, behaviour and outcomes. Journal of Managerial Psychology, Vol. 18 (8), pp. 788-813.

Adler, R., Rosen, B., & Silverstein, E. (1998). Emotions in negotiation: How to manage fear and anger. Negotiation Journal, Vol. 14, pp. 161-179.

Ahmad, Summiya, Bangash, Hayat and Khan, Sheraz Ahmad. (2009). Emotional Intelligence and Gender Differences. Sarhad Journal of Agric. Vol.25 (1), pp. 127-130.

Al Hajj, R., & Dagher, G. (2010). An empirical investigation of the relation between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in the Lebanese service industry. The Business Review, Vol. 16(2), pp. 71-77.

Albion, M. J., Fogarty, G. J., Machin, M. A., & Patrick, J. (2008). Predicting absenteeism and turnover intentions in the health professions. Australian Health Review, Vol. 32(2), pp. 271-281.

Albrecht, S. L. (2010). Handbook of employee engagement: Perspectives, issues, research, and practice. Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Alvi, A. K., Haider, R., Haneef, M., & Ahmed, A. A. (2014). A critical review of model and theory of employee engagement. Science International, Vol. 26, pp. 821-824.

Anandhi, K., & Perumal, R. (2013). Job satisfaction in logistics sector: A review and research agenda. International Journal of Marketing and Technology, Vol. 3(5), pp. 114-126.

Ashforth, B. E. & Humphrey, R. H. (1995). Emotion in the workplace: A reappraisal. Human Relations, Vol. 48, pp. 97-125.

Ashkanasy, N. M. (2003). Emotions in organizations: A multilevel perspective. In F.Dansereau and F. J. Yammarino (Eds.), Research in multi-level issues, vol. 2:Multi-level issues in organizational behavior and strategy (pp. 9-54). Oxford, UK: Elsevier Science.

Ashkanasy, Neal M. and Daus, Catherine S. Rumors of the Death of Emotional Intelligence in Organizational Behavior are Vastly Exaggerate. Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 26(4), 441-452.

Averill, J. R., & Nunley, E. P. (1992). Voyages of the heart: Living an emotionally creative life. New York: Free Press.

Barker, P.B. and Grandey, A.A. (2006). Service with a Smile and Encounter Satisfaction: Emotional Contagion and Appraisal Mechanisms. Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 49 (6), pp.1229-1238.

Bar-On, R. (1997). Development of the Bar On EQ-i: A measure of emotional and social intelligence. Paper presented at the 105th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association in Chicago.

Bar-On, R. (1997). The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I): Technical Manual. Toronto: MultiHealth Systems.

Bar On, R., Tranel, D., Denburg, N. L., & Bechara, A. (2003). Exploring the neurological substrate of emotional and social intelligence. Brain, Vol. 126(8), pp. 1790-1800.

Barry, B. (1999). The tactical use of emotion in negotiation. In R. J. Bies, R. J. Lewicki, & B. H. Sheppard (Eds.), Research on negotiation in organizations (Vol. 7, pp. 93-121). Stanford, CT: JAI.

Barry, B., & Friedman, R. (1998). Bargainer characteristics in distributive and integrative negotiation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. Vol. 74, pp. 345-359.

Boyatzis, R., Goleman, D. and Rhee, K. (2000). Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: insights from the emotional competence inventory (ECI), in Bar-On, R. and Parker, J.D.A. (Eds), Handbook of Emotional Intelligence, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.

Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, Vol. 29, pp. 1147-1158.

Brackett, Marc A., Mayer, John D. and Warner, Rebecca M. (2004). Emotional intelligence and its relation to everyday behaviour. Personality and Individual Differences, Vol. 36, 1387-1402

Brody, L. R. (1985). Gender differences in emotional development: a review of theories and research. Journal of Personality, Vol. 53, pp. 102-149.

Chiva, Ricardo, and Alegre, Joaquin. (2008). Emotional intelligence and job satisfaction: the role of organizational learning capability. Personnel Review, Vol. 37 (6), pp. 680-701.

Ciarrochi, J. V., Chan, A. Y. C, & Caputi, P. (2000). A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. Personality and Individual Differences, Vol. 28, pp. 539-561.

Ciarrochi, J., Chan, A. Y. C., Caputi, P., and Roberts, R. (2001). Measuring emotional intelligence. In C. Ciarrochi, J. P. Forgas, & J. D. Mayer (Eds.), Emotional intelligence in everyday life: a scientific inquiry (pp. 25-45). Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

Conte, J.M. (2005). A review and critique of emotional intelligence measures. Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 26(4), pp. 433-440.

context of alexithymia. Behavioural Medicine, Vol. 18, pp. 121-126.

Cooper R.K.. (1997). Applying Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace. Training & Development, Vol. 51(12), pp. 31-38.

Cooper, R.K. & Sawaf, A. (1997). Executive EQ: Emotion Intelligence in Leadership and organisations. New York: Grosset/Putnam.

Davies, M., Stankov, L., & Roberts, R. D. (1998). Emotional intelligence: In search of an elusive construct. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol. 75(4), pp. 989-1015.

Day, Arla. L. & Carroll Sarah A. (2004). Using an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence to predict individual performance, group performance, and group citizenship behaviours. Personality and Individual Differences, Vol. 36, pp.1443-1458.

De Clercq, D., Bouckenooghe, D., Raja, U., & Matsyborska, G. (2014). Unpacking the goal congruence-organizational deviance relationship: The roles of work engagement and emotional intelligence. Journal of Business Ethics, Vol. 124(4), pp. 695-711.

De Dreu, C. K. W., Koole, S. L., & Oldersma, F. L. (1999). On the seizing and freezing of negotiator inferences: Need for cognitive closure moderates the use of heuristics in negotiation. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, Vol. 25, pp. 348-362.

Fernandez-Berrocal, P., & Extremera, N. (2006). Emotional intelligence: A theoretical and empirical review of its first 15 years of history. Psycothema, Vol. 18(1), pp. 7-12.

Fleming, John H, Coffman, Curt & Harter, James K. (2006). On the High Performance Organisation. Boston, Harvard Business Review, pp. 117.

Foo, H. A., Elfenbein, Tan, H. H. and Aik, V. C. (2004). Emotional Intelligence and Negotitaion: The Tension between Creating and Claiming Value. The International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 15 (4), pp. 411-429.

Formica, S. (1998). Describing the socio-emotional life space. Unpublished senior honor's thesis, University of New Hampshire.

Frijda, N.H. (1993). "Moods, Emotion Episodes and Emotions," in M. Lewis and J.M. Haviland (eds.), Handbook of Emotions (New York: Guilford Press, 1993), pp.381-403.

Fulmer, Ingrid Smithey & Barry, Bruce. (2004). The Smart Negotiator: Cognitive Ability and Emotional Intelligence in Negotiation. The International Journal of Conflict Management Vol. 15 (3), pp. 245-272.

Gardner, H. (1983). Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1998). Are there additional intelligences? The case for naturalist, spiritual, and existential intelligences. In J. Kane (Ed.), Education, information, and transformation (pp. 111-132). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ. New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (1998). What makes a leader? Harvard Business Review, Vol. 77, pp. 93-102.

Goleman, D. (1998). Working with emotional intelligence. New York: Bantam.

Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. Harvard Business Review, Vol. 75 (2).

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, Richard and McKee, Annie. (2001). Primal Leadership: The Hidden Driver of Great Performance. Harvard Business Review, pp 32-41.

Gur, R., Gunning-Dixon, F., Bilker, W. B., & Gur, R. E. (2002). Sex differences in temporo-limbic and frontal brain volumes of healthy adults. Cerebral Cortex, Vol. 12, pp. 998-1003.

Hall, J. A. (1978). Gender effects in decoding nonverbal cues. Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 85, pp. 845-857.

Hall, J. A. (1984). Nonverbal sex differences: communication accuracy and expressive style. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Hallowell, Edward M. (1999). The Human Moment at Work. Harvard Business Review, pp. 59.

Harvard Business Review (2003). Breakthrough ideas for tomorrow's business agenda.

Helmers, K. F., & Mente, A. (1999). Alexithymia and health behaviours in healthy male volunteers. Journal of

Hochschild, A. R. (1983). The managed heart: Commercialization of human feelings. Berkeley: University of California press.

Hoffman, Constantine von. (2005). Dealing with Difficult People. Harvard Business Review, pp. 40.

Jadhav, Shutika and Mulla, Zubin R. (2010). Do emotionally intelligent people do well in all jobs? Exploring the moderating role of inter-personal interaction. VISION:The Journal of Business Perspective, Vol. 14(4). pp. 247-254.

Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. C. (2004). Managing emotions during team problem solving: Emotional intelligence and conflict resolution. Human Performance, Vol. 17, pp. 195-218.

Jordan, P. J., Ashkanasy, N, M., & Hartel, C. E. (2003). The case for emotional intelligence in organizational research. Academy of Management Review, Vol. 28, pp. 195-197.

Kafetsios, K, & Zampetakis, L.A. (2008). Emotional intelligence and job satisfaction: Testing the mediatory role of positive and negative affect at work. Personality and Individual Differences, Vol. 44, pp. 712-722.

Katyal, S. and Awasthi, E. (2005). Gender Differences in Emotional Intelligence Among Adolescents of Chandigarh. Journal of Human Ecology, Vol. 17(2), pp. 153-155.

Kauhanen, J., Julkunen, J., & Salonen, J. (1992). Coping with inner feelings and stress: heavy alcohol use in the

Kemper, C.L. (1999). EQ versus IQ (Emotional intelligence, Intelligence Quotient. Communication World, Vol., 16, pp.15-19.

Kumar, R. (1997). The role of affect in negotiations: An integrative overview. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science. Vol. 33, pp. 84-100.

Landy, FJ. (2005). Some historical and scientific issues related to research on emotional intelligence. Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 26(4), pp. 411-424.

Law, Kenneth S., Wong, Chi-Sum and Song Lynda J. (2004). The Construct and Criterion Validity of Emotional Intelligence and Its Potential Utility for Management Studies. Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 89 (3), pp. 483-496.

Locke, E.A. (1969), "What is job satisfaction?", Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, Vol. 4, pp. 309-36.

Locke, E.A. (2005). Why emotional intelligence is an invalid concept. Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 26(4), pp. 425-431.

Lopes, P., & Salovey, P. (2001). Emotional intelligence and social-emotional learning: Assessing emotional intelligence and developing skills and flexibility. The CEIC Review, Vol. 10, pp.12-19.

Markos, S., & Sridevi, M. S. (2010, December). Employee engagement: The key to improving performance. International Journal of Business and Management, Vol. 5 (12), pp. 89-96.

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1993). The intelligence of emotional intelligence. Intelligence, Vol. 17, pp. 433-442.

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey, & D. Sluyter (Eds.), Emotional development and emotional intelligence: educational implications. New York: Basic Books.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. Intelligence, Vol. 27, pp. 267-298.

Mayer, J. D., DiPaolo, M., & Salovey, P. (1990). Perceiving affective content in ambiguous visual stimuli: a component of emotional intelligence. Journal of Personality Assessment, Vol. 54, pp. 772-781.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2002). Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), Version 2.0. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000). Models of emotional intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.), Handbook of intelligence (pp. 396-420). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R., & Sitarenios, G. (2003). Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT 2.0. Emotion, 3.

Morris, M. W., &Keltner, D. (2000). How emotions work: The social functions of emotional expression in negotiations. In B. M. Staw (Ed.), Research in Organizational Behavior, Vol. 22, pp. 1-50.

Moss, F. A., & Hunt, T. (1927). Are you socially intelligent? Scientific American, Vol. 137, pp. 108-110

Myers. Laura L., Tucker, Mary L. (2005). Increasing Awareness of Emotional Intelligence in a Business Curriculum. Business Communication Quarterly, Vol. 68 (1), pp. 44-51.

Nair, D., Gopal, R., & Babu, C. (2012). Impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction at Globus India Ltd. Drishtikon: A Management Journal, Vol. 3(2), pp. 229.

Offermann, L. R., Bailey, J. R., Vasilopoulos, N. L., Seal, C., & Sass, M. (2004). The relative contribution of emotional competence and cognitive ability to individual and team performance. Human Performance, Vol. 17, pp. 219-243.

On Finding and Keeping the Best People. (2001). Boston, Harvard Business Review, pp. 159.

On Negotiating Outcomes. (2007). Pocket Boston, Mentor Series of Harvard Business School Press Publication, pp. 62.

Payne, W. L. (1986). A study of emotion. Developing emotional intelligence: Selfintegration; relating to fear, pain, and desire. Dissertation Abstracts International, 47, 203A.

Petrides, K. V. & Furnham, Adrian. (2006). The Role of Trait Emotional Intelligence in a Gender-Specific Model of Organizational Variables. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, Vol. 36 (2), pp. 552-569.

Pfeffer, Jeffrey. (1998). The Human Equation: Building Profits by Putting People First. Boston, Harvard Business School Press, pp. 305.

Psychosomatic Research, Vol. 47, pp. 635-645.

Robbins, Stephens P. Judge, Timothy A. (2013). Organisational Behaviour, (15 ed), Pearson.

Rosenthal, R., Hall, J. A., Di Matteo, M. R., Rogers, P. L., & Archer, D. (1979). Sensitivity to nonverbal communication: the PONS test. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Sadri, Golnaz. (2012). Emotional intelligence and Leadership Development. Public Personnel Management, Vol. 41 (3), pp. 535-54.

Sardo, Serge (2004). Learning to display Emotional Intelligence Spring. Business Strategy Review, Vol. 15 (1), pp. 14-17.

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. Personality and Individual Differences, Vol. 25, pp. 167-177.

Singh, Shailendra. (2004). Development of a Measure of Emotional Intelligence. National Academy of Psychology, Vol. 49 (2-3), pp. 136-141.

Sosik, J. J., & Megerian, L. E. (1999). Understanding leader emotional intelligence and performance: The role of self-other agreement on transformational leadership perceptions. Group and Organization Management, Vol. 24(3), pp. 367-390.

Sy T, Tram S, O'Hara LA. (2006). Relation of employee and manager emotional intelligence to job satisfaction and performance. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, Vol. 68, pp. 461-73.

Tett, R.P., Fox, K.E., and Wang, A. (2005). Development and Validation of a Self-report Measure of Emotional Intelligence as a Multidimensional Trait Domain,. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, vol. 31, pp.859-888.

Thompson, L, L., Nadler, J., & Kim, P. H. (1999). Some like it hot: The case for the emotional negotiator. In L. L. Thompson, J. M. Levine, & D. M. Messick (Eds.), Shared cognition in organizations: The management of knowledge (pp. 139-161). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Thorndike, E. L. (1920). Intelligence and its uses. Harper's Magazine, Vol. 14, pp.: 227-235.

Trinidad, D. R., & Johnson, C. A. (2001). The association between emotional intelligence and early adolescent tobacco and alcohol use. Personality and Individual Differences, Vol. 32, pp. 95-105.

Truss, C., Delbridge, R., Alfes, K., Shantz, A., & Soane, E. (2014). Employee engagement I theory and practice. New York, NY: Routledge.

Vernon, P. E. (1933). Some characteristics of the good judge of personality. Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 4, pp. 42-57.

Watkin, C. (2000). Developing emotional intelligence. International Journal of Selection and Assessment, Vol. 2, pp. 89-92.

Weisinger, H. (1998). Emotional intelligence at work: The untapped edge for success. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Weng, Hui-Ching, Hung, Chao-Ming, Liu, Yi-Tien, Cheng, Yu-Jen, Yen, Cheng-Yo, Chang, ChiChang & Huang, Chih-Kun. (2011). Associations between emotional intelligence and doctor burnout, job satisfaction and patient Satisfaction. Medical Education, Vol. 45, pp. 835-842.

Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. The Leadership Quarterly, Vol. 13, pp. 243-274.

Wong, C. S., Law, K. S., & Wong, P. M. (2004). Development and validation of a forced choice emotional intelligence for Chinese respondents in Hong Kong. Asia Pacific Journal of Management, Vol. 21(4), pp. 535-559.

Wright, T.A. & Staw, B.M. (1999). Affect and favourable outcomes: Two longitudinal tests of the happy-productive worker thesis. Journal of Organizational Behaviour, Vol. 20, pp. 1-23.