Tanu Sharma
Anil Sehrawat

Emotional Intelligence, Leadership and Conflict Management

Tanu Sharma
Anil Sehrawat

Emotional Intelligence, Leadership and Conflict Management

To

Amay

the Great

Preface

Leadership is one of the most extensively researched topics for centuries and still is of interest to researchers. A new dimension was added to leadership research when Goleman's book *Emotional Intelligence* attracted their attention towards this concept.

In these two decades the relationship between emotional intelligence and different leadership theories and behavior is explored. But most of studies focused on two types transformational and transactional of leadership. On the basis of findings tall claims about the role of emotional intelligence in effectiveness of leaders, leader-follower relationship, etc. were made. Contrary to these claims many researchers have refuted these claims by citing lack of reliable empirical base.

In recent years emotional intelligence and leadership has attracted the attention of Indian researchers and some studies are produced but still a comprehensive empirical base is required. Why another attempts if work has already been done in this area. The answer is the studies carried out in India are either industry specific or have a small sample size. In the present study an attempt has been made to collect the data from diverse fields and from a fairly large sample size. Another reason is that data about emotional intelligence, leadership and conflict management is collected from the same sample set. Moreover, leadership styles other than transformational and transactional are considered.

The purpose of the study is to explore the relationship of emotional intelligence with age, gender, leadership and conflict management styles. The relationship of leadership and conflict management is also explored. The findings established a positive relationship of emotional intelligence with leadership and collaborative conflict management styles. Age and gender has no relationship with age and gender.

We are thankful for to all those without whose support this study would not have seen the light of the day. We are grateful to our parents and friends especially Priyam and Ravi for being always there beyond the times of clock; to Sukram and Shashank for being always there to share our burden and happiness. In the end our sincere thanks to all participant for providing the data and to authors, who directly and indirectly inspired this work.

Tanu Sharma
Anil Sehrawat

Contents

List of Tables

vii

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

Emotional intelligence (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 and Salovey, 1997). Salovey and Mayer (1990) categorized emotional intelligence in five domains: self-awareness, managing emotions, self motivation, empathy, and relationships' handling. Goleman (1995) later developed his four dimensions of emotional intelligence to include knowing and managing emotions of oneself, self- motivation, empathy toward others, and social deftness.

Goleman (1998b) suggests that many of the qualities possessed by individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence seem to parallel those qualities characteristic of effective leaders. Further, he argues emotional intelligence to be the single most important factor in effective leadership. Bass (1990) in a meta-analysis of the traits of leadership found many traits are complementary to components of emotional intelligence. The common factors are social and interpersonal skills, technical skills, administrative skills, leadership effectiveness and achievement, friendliness, social nearness, supporting group task, and task motivation and its application. He also found that the best leaders were proficient in both task-orientation and interpersonal skills.

Researchers have emphasized the importance of leaders' being able to manage groups effectively. 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 based on a combination of self-management and relationship skills and an awareness of how their behavior affects others in the organization. He maintained 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.

1.2 Aims

The purpose of this study is to explore the emotional intelligence levels among managers working at different levels of organizational hierarchy. In this pursuit, it is 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 is designed to be correlational. It was a relationship study designed to analyze the strength of relationship between variables (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). 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).

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.).

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).

In the present study three variables namely emotional intelligence, leadership and conflict management are considered to explore their relationship with each other. Each of these variables is supposed to be related to others. The objectives of the study are following:

1. To explore the relationship of emotional intelligence and age and gender.
2. To explore the relationship of emotional intelligence and leadership.
3. To explore the relationship of emotional intelligence and conflict management.
4. To explore the relationship of leadership and conflict management.

1.3 Material

1.3.1 Sample

A total of 981 managers working at different levels of organizational hierarchy made the sample of the study. The organizations were chosen based upon their location and sector. The subjects were the willing participants drawn from a mix of socio-economic backgrounds in the 28-45 years age range.

1.3.2 Data Collection

The study is limited to India subcontinent. 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.

1.3.3 Instrumentation

Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) (Boyatzis et al., 1999) is used in this study to assess the emotional intelligence level of respondents. 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. ECI is divided into the following four sub-skills, as defined in Goleman's (2001) emotional intelligence model: *Self-awareness, Self-management, Social awareness, and Relationship management.*An average for each cluster was found by summing responses (1-7) to the corresponding questions that pertain to a cluster.

The Teal Trust leadership style indicator is used to measure leadership styles of the respondents. In this questionnaire, 30 items were used to assess six different styles of leadership: pioneering, strategic, management/ administration, team, pastoral and encouraging. For each style, five items inquired respondent's own behaviors. Conceptually, these indices measure

the overall usage of each style by respondent. The style items assessed these behaviors on 7-point scales ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always).

A questionnaire adapted by Barki and Hartwick (2001) is used to measure Interpersonal Conflict and Conflict Management Styles. In this questionnaire, 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. The style items assessed these behaviors on 7-point scales ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always).

1.4 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

1.5 Outline of the study

Chapter 2 presents the concept of emotional intelligence and its different models.

Chapter 3 presents the different theories of leadership and their relationships with emotional intelligence and the results of this study.

Chapter 4 presents the concept of conflict management, different styles of conflict management and their relationship with emotional intelligence. The results of this study are also presented.

Chapter 5 presents the relationship between leadership and conflict management and the results of this study.

Chapter 6 presents the conclusions derived from this study and they are discussed in the light of existing knowledge. The future directions for research in this area are also suggested.

CHAPTER 2

Models of Emotional Intelligence

2.1 History of Emotional Intelligence

Research evidences suggest that intelligence alone will not explain our achievement at work or life and that emotion plays a key role in organizational success. Many have noted the distinction between academic intelligence and social intelligence (Neisser, 1976). While the standard intelligence quotient (IQ), tends to be static, emotional intelligence can be learned (Salopek, 1998). Goleman (1995) credited Edward Thorndike with the initial study of emotional intelligence. Thorndike (1920) researched dimensions of emotional intelligence as a form of "social intelligence". He classified intelligence into three dimensions: abstract intelligence refers to managing and understanding ideas; mechanical intelligence includes managing and understanding concrete objects; and social intelligence refers to managing and understanding people. According to Thorndike (1920) social intelligence is the ability to perceive one's own and other's behaviours and motives in order to successfully make use of that information in social situations. Howard Gardner (1983) expanded the knowledge of interpersonal and intrapersonal skills in the mid-1980s. Cantor and Kihlstrom (1987) define social intelligence as possessing knowledge of social norms, and having the ability to get along well with others. Mayer and Salovey (1993) refer to social intelligence as adapting to social situations and using social knowledge to act accordingly. Salovey and Mayer (1990) coined the term "emotional intelligence" in the early 1990s. Finally, Daniel Goleman's book *Emotional Intelligence* published in 1995 made the topic very popular and attracted the attention of researcher.

Researchers have attempted to correlate emotion with intelligence (Goleman, 1995). Thorndike was one of the first theorists attempted to define the aspect of social intelligence that are known as emotional intelligence at present. Social intelligence can be explained as the ability to understand others and act appropriately in human relations (Goleman, 1995). According to Marlowe (1986) social intelligence is 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 et al., 1986; Wentzel, 1991). Walker and Foley (1973) identified cognitive skills in drawing accurate

conclusions from social interactions and the effectiveness of social behavior based on two elements of social intelligence. Thorndike (1920) began investigating social intelligence as one component of intelligence measured by the IQ score but finally distinguished social intelligence from other forms of intelligence. He defined social intelligence as the capability to understand people and to act wisely in human relations. Sternberg (1985) agreed with Thorndike's findings and state that social intelligence is not only distinct from academic abilities but is also an integral part of what makes people do well in their life. Sternberg (1996) argued that traditional IQ tests assess only the analytical aspect of intelligence. He widened the sphere of intelligence and reinvents it in terms of what it takes to lead a successful life Goleman (1995).

Gardner (1983) in his theory on multiple intelligences argued that conventional IQ tests measure linguistic, logical-mathematical, and sometimes spatial intelligences. He distinguishes people on the basis of seven different forms of intelligence. According to him linguistic intelligence is the ability to understand words and how these are combined to form language. Logical-mathematical intelligence refers to the ability to see patterns, order, and logical chains of reasoning. The musical intelligence refers to individuals' ablility to discern pitch, melody, tone, rhythm, and other qualities of musical symbolism. Spatial intelligence is the ability to accurately perceive and think in terms of the visual qualities of the world and its dimensions (Gardner and Hatch, 1989). The bodily-kinesthetic intelligence describes the ability to control one's bodily motions and the capacity to handle objects skilfully. Intrapersonal intelligence refers to the ability to access and understand the components of one' own inner self including feelings, reactions, and aspirations. Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals including the ability to interpret their moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions. Gardner (1983) emphasized that intelligences of people are expected to mature as they mature physiologically. Finally, he highlighted the importance of the interaction between the person and the culture in shaping human behavior.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence initially as the ability to monitor feelings and emotions of self and others, to differentiate between them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. Many agree that the ability skills component of emotional intelligence coincides with the social intelligence (Hunt, 1928; Guilford, 1967; Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Sternberg and Smith, 1985). Salovey and Mayer (1990) initially considered emotional intelligence as a subset of social intelligence in its capacity to

monitor and evaluate others' feelings and emotions and to use that knowledge to guide thinking and actions. Later, they found that a set of conceptually related mental processes involving emotional information exists. The processes include appraising and expressing emotions in the self and others, regulating self emotions and of others, and using emotion in adaptive ways (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Mayer and Salovey (1993) formulated a four dimensions model of emotional intelligence, which includes the perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion; emotional support for thinking; understanding and analyzing emotions and applying emotional knowledge; and reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Mayer and Salovey (1993) reported that the manner in which they defined emotional intelligence -- "as involving a series of mental abilities -- [that] qualifies it as a form of intelligence" (p. 435). They argued that because emotional intelligence requires processing emotions, it "may have better discriminant validity from general intelligence than social intelligence" (Mayer and Salovey, p. 435). Therefore, emotional intelligence can be a more valid measure as a specific type of intelligence than social intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1993).

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) in their book *Executive EQ*, developed a model of emotional intelligence which includes four components: emotional literacy refers to the knowledge of one's own emotions and how they function; emotional fitness includes emotional hardiness and flexibility; emotional depth is described as emotional intensity and potential for growth; and emotional alchemy is the ability to use emotion to spark creativity.

Goleman (1995) popularized the idea that success in life does not depend solely on a high IQ score being "emotionally intelligent" is equally important. He outlined four dimensions of emotional intelligence: knowing and managing one's emotions, self-motivation, empathy toward others, and social deftness. Knowing and managing one's emotions refers to observing oneself and the emotions felt as well as appropriate handling of feelings. Self-motivation is described as the channelling of emotions in the pursuit of a goal, delaying gratification, and stifling impulses. Empathy is the admiration of the differences in people and the sensitivity to others' feelings and concerns. Social deftness is the ability to manage emotions in others. Salovey and Mayer, (1990) described empathy as the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them one's self. Rogers (1951) considered

empathy a priceless gift and a prerequisite for helping others to grow.

Goleman in his second book *Working with Emotional Intelligence* translated his earlier findings into a formula for success at work (Salopek, 1998). Goleman in this book systematically explored the empirical data and suggested the importance of the skills individuals needed to be successful at work. Goleman (1998b) combined these capabilities into three categories: cognitive abilities, technical skills, and competencies demonstrating emotional intelligence. According to Goleman, emotional intelligence-based competencies, which include self-confidence, empathy, influence, and constant improvement, the need to get results, and teamwork as a set of human capabilities that are based more on the working of a different part of the brain than pure cognitive ability or technical skill (Salopek, 1998). Goleman stated in the interview with Salopek that "these are the abilities that every organization needs to develop in people" (Salopek, 1998, p.27). According to Goleman (1998b) emotional competencies are learned abilities and are not static and are most important at the highest levels of responsibility in an organization.

2.2 Emotions and Intelligence

Goleman (1995) stated that academic intelligence has little to do with emotional life of individuals. People with high IQ scores can have poor social lives and that too prone to unbridled passions and impulses. He further stated that IQ contributes approximately 20% to the life successes and 80 % is contributed by emotional intelligence abilities - motivating oneself, persistence, controlling impulse, delaying gratification, regulating one's moods, and empathizing with others. Goleman (1998b) reported emotional intelligence proved to be twice as important as technical skills and IQ in his study of an organization's most outstanding leaders.

What is the relationship between emotion and intelligence? Earlier emotions and intelligence were considered two contradictory concepts. Emotions are often referred as disorganized interruptions of mental activity (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). People who expressed emotions were viewed negatively (Grandey, 2000; Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 1990; Mayer et al., 2000c). These people were considered mentally ill and often suggested therapy to suppress their emotions (Mayer et al., 2000c). In early 1960 some researchers accepted that emotions may guide one's thinking and actions and may direct one's attention towards solving problems (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2000c). Goleman (1995) stated that the concepts of

"emotion" and "intelligence" are congruous and act in harmony with one another. Mandler (1984) suggested that instead of interfering with rational thought, intense emotional situations actually stimulate intelligence by helping individuals prioritize thought processes. Mayer and Salovey (1993) asserted that emotions link logical thought processes rather than disrupting them.

"Emotion and intellect combine to form emotional intelligence" (King, 1999, p. 17). One's moods do not make one smarter, but they may affect one's thinking (King, 1999). When one understands one's own emotions correctly, interprets the emotions of others accurately, or uses this information to enhance one's thinking in such situation one will be more intelligent (King, 1999).

2.3 Emotional Intelligence Criteria

Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) argued that emotional intelligence must meet three established criteria: (a) conceptual, (b) correlational, and (c) developmental to qualify as intelligence. King (1999) stated that the abilities which define emotional intelligence comprise the conceptual criterion. These abilities distinguish performance from personality traits and talents (Mayer and Salovey, 1993, 1997; Scarr, 1989). According to King (1999), Mayer and Salovey developed a four branch model for emotional intelligence. The model is comprised of four branches ranging from basic psychological processes to higher integrated processes (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). At the lowest level, Perceiving Emotions refers to perceptions of emotions within oneself and others. At this level an individual begins to understand how others may feel in a particular situation and appreciate different points of view. At the second level, Assimilating Emotions, one understands how others may feel in a particular situation and see different points of view. The third level, Understanding Emotions, includes understanding and labeling of emotions. At this level an individual recognizes the variations of each emotion. The highest level, Managing Emotions, involves the ability to recognize and appreciate both pleasant and unpleasant feelings in self and others. Here, one judges emotion honestly and uses this information to grow intellectually.

According to Mayer et al. (2000) the second criterion that enables emotional intelligence to qualify as intelligence is that it must be correlational. Correlational means that EI should be correlated with other intelligences (Mayer and Salovey, 1993). In their first study, Mayer and Salovey predicted scores for emotional intelligence that would distinguish it from other intelligences. The results indicated that the test is reliable regardless of the

scoring method. The tests proved to be positively correlated with one another.

The third criterion is that the construct of intelligence should be developmental (King, 1999). The second study by Mayer and Salovey (1997) showed that emotional intelligence met the developmental criterion with growth from adolescence to early adulthood. As predicted in the study, the adults scored higher than the adolescents (King, 1999).

Based on the results of the two studies of Mayer and Salovey (1993, 1997), emotional intelligence may qualify as a type of intelligence. The results showed that (a) emotional intelligence is a set of abilities (conceptual); (b) emotional intelligence correlates with other intelligences (correlational); and (c) it shows growth from adolescence to early adulthood (developmental).

2.4 Models of emotional intelligence

There are two competing models of EI: The ability-based model, which is endorsed by Mayer and his colleagues (Mayer et al. , 1990; Mayer and Salovey, 1997b) and the trait-based (or "mixed") model, which is endorsed by researchers such as Goleman (1995; 1998c) and Bar-On (1997).

2.4.1 Ability-based model

Salovey and Mayer (1990) on the basis of their examination of emotions literature developed their concept of EI. Initially, they 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). They identified three components of EI: an ability to appraise and regulate one's own emotions, an ability to appraise others' emotions, and an ability to use emotions to solve problems. The first component is based on Ekman's work on display of emotions. Ekman and his colleagues (Ekman, 1993; Ekman and Friesen, 1975) argued that there are a number of basic emotions that are universal across all cultures, and that are reflected in the same facial expressions. The second component involves research on emotional knowledge. The third component includes research that looks at how emotions facilitate expression and communication.

The ability perspective considers, EI as a group of abilities that are distinct from the traditional dimensions of intelligence and that facilitate the perception, expression, assimilation, understanding, and regulating emotions, so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer and Salovey, 1997b). Mayer and Salovey (1997b) expanded their 1990 definition of EI by creating a four-branch model of EI comprising 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. These four branches of emotional intelligence and abilities related to them are presented in Table 1.

Table 2.1: Mayer & Salovey's (1997) Ability-Based Model of Emotional Intelligence

Branch	Ability
Branch 1 Perceiving, appraising and expressing emotions	• Perceive and express own feelings and emotions • Perceive and express emotions in other people. • Accurate expression of emotions and communication of needs associated with feelings. • Discriminate among different emotional expressions.
Branch 2 Using emotions to facilitate thought	• Emotion direct attention and prioritize thinking. • Moods alter one's perception and may result in the understanding of different point of view. • Emotional states encourage problem-solving approaches.
Branch 3 Understanding and reasoning with emotions	• Label emotions and recognize relationships among different emotions and their meanings • Understand the meanings of emotions and the information they convey regarding relationships • Interpret complex feelings and understand combinations of different feelings (e.g., experiencing joy and fear simultaneously) • Understand transitions among emotions
Branch 4 Managing / regulating emotions	• Openness to pleasant and unpleasant feelings • Reflectively engage or detach from emotions depending on whether they can be used for intellectual or emotional growth • Manage emotions in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing positive emotions

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 (1995) defined EI as non-cognitive in nature, and included personal traits such as empathy, optimism, adaptability, warmth, and motivation. Bar-On (1997) defined EI as a set of non-cognitive abilities, competencies, and skills that affect the way in which individuals cope with environmental demands.

2.4.2 Trait-based model or 'mixed-model'

Mixed models of emotional intelligence are a combination of mental abilities and personality traits (Mayer et al., 2000c), and are considered different from ability-based models. Goleman's (1995) model of emotional intelligence comprises five dimensions: knowing and managing one's emotions, motivation, recognizing emotions in others, and handling relationships. Emotional intelligence, according to Goleman (1995), includes zeal, persistence, self-control, and motivation. In his book *Primal Leadership*, Goleman (2002) favours four dimensions: Self-awareness is the ability to observing oneself and the emotions felt as well as appropriate handling of feelings; self-management refers to the channelling of emotions in the pursuit of a goal, delaying gratification, and stifling impulses; social awareness is the ability to recognize emotions in others and the appreciation of the differences in people and the sensitivity to others' feelings and concerns; and relationship management is the ability to manage emotions in others to build relationship with other. The competencies related to these dimension are presented in table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Goleman's (2002) Model of Emotional Intelligence

Dimension	Competencies
Self-awareness	• Emotional self-awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self confidence
self-management	• Emotional self-control • Transparency • Adaptability • Achievement orientation • Initiative • Optimism

	• Conscientiousness
Social-awareness	• Empathy • Organizational awareness • Service orientation
Relationship management	• Inspirational leadership • Influence • Developing others • Change catalyst • Conflict management • Building bonds • Teamwork and collaboration • Communication

There has also been support for Bar-On's (1997) model of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2000; Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000). Bar-On (1997) defined emotional intelligence as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (Bar-On, 1997, p. 14). Bar-On (1997) identified five major areas that may contribute to success in life including intrapersonal functioning, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management, and general mood. Intrapersonal functioning refers to the ability to be aware of and understand one's emotions, feelings and ideas (Bar-On, 1997; Bar- On, 2000). Being aware of and understanding others' emotions and feelings is characteristic of an individual with strong interpersonal skills (Bar-On, 1997; Bar-On, 2000). Adaptability refers to the ability to be flexible and alter one's feelings with changing situations (Bar-On, 1997; Bar-On, 2000. An individual engages in stress management when he /she is able to cope with stress and control emotions (Bar-On, 1997; Bar-On, 2000). General mood refers to the ability to feel and express positive emotions and remain optimistic (Bar-On, 1997; Bar- On, 2000). These five broad aspects of emotional intelligence consist of more specific characteristics that are presented in Table 2.3.

Table2. 3: Bar-On's (1997) Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Factors	Definiton
Intrapersonal functioning	Aware of and understand one's emotions, feelings, and ideas • **Emotional self-awareness** – recognizing and understanding one's emotions

	• **Assertiveness** – express feelings, beliefs, and thoughts openly • **Self-regard** – awareness of and respect for oneself • **Self-actualization** – realization of one's potential & to engage in activities that one enjoys • **Independence** – self-direction and self-control in thinking and actions
Interpersonal skills	Aware of and understand others' emotions and feelings • **Empathy** – awareness of and appreciation for the feelings of others • **Interpersonal relationships** – establishing mutually satisfying relationships that demonstrate closeness • **Social responsibility** – demonstrating that one is a cooperative member of a group who contributes in a constructive manner to the well-being of the group
Adaptability	Be flexible and alter one's feelings with changing situations • **Problem solving** – identifying and generating solutions for personal and social problems • **Reality testing** – assessing correspondence between one's perception and reality • **Flexibility** – adjusting one's feelings, thoughts, and behaviours to changing situations
Stress management	Cope with stress and control emotions • **Stress tolerance** – withstanding adverse events and stressful situations • **Impulse control** – resisting or delaying impulse and controlling one's emotions
General mood	Feel and express positive emotions and remain optimistic • **Happiness** – feeling satisfied with one's life and express positive emotions • **Optimism** – look on the bright side of life and maintain a positive attitude in the face of adversity

Despite the popularity of the mixed-moel view of EI, It has been criticised a lot by 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. They argue that these mixed-

model measures of "EI" are really measuring a construct or constructs other than EI. Another criticism of the trait- based measures of EI is that they tend to be highly correlated with personality measures (Davies et al., 1998; Newsome et al., 2000). One limitation of these EI measures is they lack discriminant validity from a well-established construct of personality. Another limitation of Mixed-model measures of EI is that they tend to be uncorrelated with cognitive ability, which Mayer and his colleagues claim is necessary for any intelligence.

The mixed-model measures are related to job performance or academic performance (Newsome et al., 2000). Certain trait-based measures of EI may be related to life outcomes like life satisfaction, relationship quality, and ability to manage moods (Bar-On 1997; Ciarrochi et al., 2000) and work outcomes such as career commitment (Carson and Carson, 1998).

Researchers suggest that emotionally intelligent people behave in rational and emotionally balanced ways because they possess certain attributes called EI competencies (Mayer et al., 2004; Salovey et al., 1999). These competencies can be categorized into two broad categories: (a) personal competence includes understanding and managing one's self; and (b) social competence includes knowing and dealing with 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 perceive one's own internal mental moods and processes and regulate the mental processes 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 further divided into two sub-competencies: self-awareness and self-regulation. Self-awareness is the ability of an individual to sense the internal emotions and feelings. Self-aware individuals are able to read their feelings and link them with what they think and act. It is also known as "emotional literacy" (Mayer and Salovey, 1993; McGarvey, 1997).

Self-regulation is the ability of an individual to use self-awareness to manage one's own emotions. The self-awareness is used to regulate the rational and emotional mental processes in balanced ways to provide an emotional support for the rational mind to make logically correct and socially acceptable decisions and judgments (Martinez, 1997; Tischler et al., 2002).

Research suggests that people possessing personal competence manage their impulsive feelings and disturbing emotions in a better way and stay

composed and positive even during trying moments (Martinez, 1997; Mayer and Salovey, 1995). Such people can think clearly, remain focused under pressures and take sound decisions despite demands, shifting priorities, and uncertainties in their life (Slaski and Cartwright, 2002)..

Personal competence may appear similar to self-monitoring - a concept in psychology proposed by Snyder (1974). Self-monitoring is a process people use to regulate their own behaviour in a manner to appear and perceived good by others. Self-monitoring theory distinguishes between high self-monitors, who monitor their behaviour to fit different situations, and low self-monitors, who are more consistent cross-situationally (Snyder, 1974). However, self-monitoring takes care of one's behaviour and appearance in public/social situations, it does not fully enable people to handle and regulate their deeper disturbing internal feelings and emotions but EI can help in this. Therefore, EI should be viewed differently from self-monitoring.

Social competence is the ability of a person to look 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 behavioural outcomes both for oneself 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. The person enters into an"emotional dialogue" with the interacting partner (Salovey et al., 1999) and empathizes with or "feels like" the other person. Empathy bonds people even far deeper and stronger than shared values, ideologies, and beliefs (Kellett et al., 2002). Goleman (1998c) asserts that empathy includes many interpersonal aptitudes like teamwork, persuasion and leadership.

Social influence refers to the ability of an individual to influence and bring positive changes and outcomes in others by using interpersonal skills. The term social skills is used at the place of social influence in EI literature and the classic EI models. The prominent interpersonal skills: assertiveness, communication, and empowering leadership are to be developed in individuals to produce desirable effects and impacts on their social environment. Assertiveness enables a person in establishing a mutually respectful and win-win relationship with others. Communication skills help the person to listen carefully to others, and to negotiate successfully to have desirable outcomes in social transactions. Empowering leadership equips the

person with the abilities of leading and motivating others in situations that involve leadership and group management. These core social influence skills are interdependent and should be used in a synchronized manner to be productive and effective in the social environment.

Social influence 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 four competencies work together and in unison to make a person emotionally intelligent. Absence of one or more of these competencies reduces the EI competence of the person. The first three EI competencies: self-awareness, self-regulation, and social-awareness are basically functions of the rational-emotional mind of the person and can be enhanced through rigorous training and practice in EI techniques but the fourth competency; social-influence is highly interpersonal in nature. Therefore, the success of social-influence is dependent on the attitudes and attributes of the other people involved in social interactions. To conclude, development of social influence skills is more difficult than the acquisition of other three competencies of emotional intelligence.

CHAPTER 3

Emotional Intelligence Gender and Age

3.1 Introduction

Emotional intelligence compitencies can be developed over time through self-assessment, reflection and experience (Goleman, 1998). He further argues that level of emotional intelligence is not fixed genetically and does not only develops in early years of childhood but it seems to be learned and continues to develop as we learn from our experiences as we progress in our life. Research has reflected that level of emotional intelligence continues to improve as people become adept at handling their emotions and impulses, at motivating themselves, and at developing their empathy and social adroitness. Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) asserted that emotional intelligence should increase with age and experience if it has to be considered as a standard intelligence. But no significant or authoritative research is available in existing literature that supports the positive relationship between EI and age.

3.2 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) in her investigation found that 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 indicated that females score higher than males on tests of EI (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer & Geher, 1996). Gender differences in emotional intelligence and empathy are confirmed by Hoffman, 1977; Hojat et al., 2001, van Rooy et al., 2005. Women display more complexity and articulate their emotional experience more than men, even after controlling verbal intelligence (Barrett, Lane, Sechrest, & Schwartz, 2000). Lopes, Salovey, and Straus (2003) suggest higher emotional intelligence 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, when women do not use their emotional abilities and act as autocratic leaders rather than as democratic leaders they are more likely to be perceived negatively in the leadership role when compared to men (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992). Women more often underestimate their emotional intelligence level, whereas men overestimate (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

Research suggests that 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. Bretherton, Fritz, Zahn-Waxler and Ridgeway (1986) suggest that 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).

3.3 Results

The first objective is to explore the relationship between the emotional intelligence and age. The results are present in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Correlations between emotional intelligence and age

Predictors → Predicates↓	Age
Emotional Intelligence	-0.059
Self-awareness	-0.112
Self-management	0.004
Social Awareness	-0.051
Social Skills	-0.043

The Pearson correlation coefficients presented in table 3.1 show that there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and age. The dependent variable Y (Emotional Intelligence) and its components Y_1 (self-awareness), Y_2 (self-Management), Y_3 (social awareness) and Y_4 (social skills) are not related to explanatory variable X (age).

The second objective was to see the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y (Emotional Intelligence) on/with explanatory variable X (age) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y (emotional intelligence) is:

Y (emotional intelligence) = $\beta_0 + \beta X$ (age)

Results of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y (emotional intelligence) are given in table 3.2 below:

Table 3.2: The model for dependency for dependent variable Y (emotional intelligence)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.059[a]	0.003	0.000	51.296

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age

Table 3.2 shows that the value of R in model is (R = .421) in which the explanatory variable X (age) is included. The results of ANOVA for the models used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 3.3.

Table 3.3: ANOVA for the model for dependant variable Y (emotional intelligence)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	2206.917	1	2206.917	0.839	0.361[a]
Residual	642027.591	244	2631.261		
Total	644234.508	245			

Table 3.3 shows that the model in table 3.2 is not significant. It means that Age cannot predict the level of emotional intelligence of an individual.

The third objective was to explore the influence of gender on emotional intelligence level of an individual. 't' ratios were calculated to compare emotional intelligence level of male and female participants. The results are presented in table 3.4.

Table 3.4:'t' ratios of men and women on emotional intelligence, self-awareness, self-management, social skills

Variables	Male		Female		't' ratio
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Self-awareness	71.12	15.824	74.41	11.341	-1.790*
Self-management	127.68	16.193	126.59	21.223	0.456
Social Awareness	80.72	9.774	80.56	13.212	0.109
Social Skills	124.47	20.262	126.67	22.141	-0.804
Emotional Intelligence	403.99	45.765	408.23	58.558	-0.637

* Significant at .01 levels

Table 3.4 reflects that there is no significant difference in the level of emotional intelligence of males and females. However, females score better on emotional intelligence. There is significant difference in the self-awareness level of males and females; females have better self-awareness.

3.4 Findings

1. There is no relationship between emotional intelligence and age.
2. Age cannot predict the level of emotional intelligence of an individual.
3. Gender has no influence on the level of emotional intelligence of an individual.

CHAPTER 4

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

4.1 Introduction

The linkage between the emotional and workplace performance is an important aspect of research in worker productivity and effectiveness. Considerable research in the area of emotional intelligence has focused on leadership. Even in the Ohio State leadership studies it has been emphasized that the leaders who are able to establish mutual trust, respect and rapport with group members are more effective (Fleishman &Harris, 1962). The effectiveness of a leader depends upon the leader's ability to solve the problems which can arise in the group or organizations (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacob & Fleishman, 2000).

The skills usually possessed by emotionally intelligent people, like flexibility, conflict management, persuasion and social reasoning, become increasingly important with advancing levels in leadership hierarchy (Mandell and Pherwani, 2003). EI is more important than intellect and other management competencies in the advancement of managers (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003). EI is an increasingly indicative reason for stellar performance as rank rises in an organization, but as opposed to cognitive or technical abilities (Goleman et al., 2002). These studies support 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).

4.2 Models of Leadership

Leadership has captivated people and they want to know more and mor eabout how to become effective leaders. This curiosity of people resulted into a number of books written on the topic. Many believe that leadership is way to improve how they present themselves to others. Organizations want individuals with leadership abilities because they are considered special assets to their organizations. Leaders are important for any organization but they are more important for a business company. Mayer (1997) emphasized

the importance of sound leadership across all levels of an organization, and noted "a proficient relationship between the leader and the led."

Leaders are accepted and followed in organizations not nominated, elected or selcted or appointed. Leadership is sought after social skill. A leader has certain attitudes and behaviour towards others and a way of conducting oneself that enables him to influence others to follow him willingly for a common goal. Some times followers get attracted to a leader who represents their values and aspirations and start following him willingly. Mahatma Gandhi and Nelson Mandela are examples of such a leader. There is always an element of uncertainity or confusion about a goal or its achievement when people work together in a group. This element of uncertainity encourages group members to choose a leader who can reduce uncertainity or cnfusion among group members and is able to keep members focused on a common goal. In organizations a leader, manager or a supervisor keeps the followers focused on the objectives and goals of the organization.

An individual can become a leader by displaying certain attitudes and behaviour towards others. If these attitudes and behaviour are not possessed by an individual these can be learnt through practice. A person who displays leadership directs people or get work done through others to achieve a goal. People are engaged in productive work, educated or trained to achieve a particular goal by this person.

Leadership theories focus either on identification of traits and behaviour of successful leaders, examining the situations (societal, environmental or societal, etc.) that foster on inhibit leadership or the relationship between the leaders and followers. It is the relationship between emotional intelligence and trait or behaviour theories of leadership is explored when the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership is examined.

4.2.1 Trait and behaviour based model of leadership

This model of leadership emphasizes that certain traits and behaviour are important to be a successful leader. Intelligence, self-confidence, need for achievement, motivation to lead, emotional stability, honesty and integrity are some traits identified as being necessary for successful leadership performance (Greenberg et al., 2000; Johns & Saks, 2001).

Mayer (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 underlined the individual nature of

subordinates, stressing the importance of individual consideration and motivation. He alleged that it is the goal of the leader to encourage the subordinate's search for individual growth. According to Mayer (1997) 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.).

Charismatic and transformational leader characteristics are also examined by researchers within the trait literature. 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 concept of transformational leadership has evolved from the charismatic leadership literature. Transformational leaders are defined as leaders that inspire followers to transcend their own self- interests for the good of an overall vision. According to Bass (1985) transformational leaders are charismatic leaders who influence followers and whose followers benefit from this influence. He further says that all transformational leaders must be charismatic, although all charismatic leaders may not be necessarily transformational.

Inspirational leadership, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation are three key components of charismatic and transformational leadership. Inspirational leadership involves arousal of motivation among followers through instilling pride, role modeling, and encouraging followers, and stimulating enthusiasm and self-confidence and influencing them to succeed. Individual consideration involves considering followers not only at a group level, but also treating followers differently and 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).

Researchers associate charismatic leadership 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).The main distinction between the charismatic and transformational leadership literature is that the charismatic literature focuses on the characteristics and behaviors of the leader, whereas the transformational literature examines the impact of the leader's characteristics on the followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1994).

However, Bass (1985) argues that while defining a leader as charismatic or transformational depends not only on the leader, but also on the characteristics of the followers and the environment. He, further, stated that charisma was defined solely in terms of how followers perceive it. Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) argued that it is important to look at both the leader characteristics and the leader-follower interaction simultaneously. That is, how do transformational leaders develop a relationship with their followers? Emotional intelligence may influence this relationship as well as how this interaction is defined.

4.2.2 Contingency-based Model

Contingency or situational theories of leadership are based on the principle that successful leadership depends on environmental factors (Johns & Saks, 2001). According to Bass (1985) certain situations may foster the emergence of a leader. This emergence depends on factors within the organization and industry, and well as on the more general historical, economic, and social circumstances. Transformational leaders may emerge as a reflection of social values during tough 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) underlined several conditions: during an acute crisis or when the organizational culture is being attacked; when a general "malaise" exists; when subordinates are disillusioned in which a transformational leader may emerge.

Leader's behaviors (directive, supportive, participative, and achievement oriented) stated in House's Path-Goal Theory are most effective in certain situations (House, 1971; House, 1996; Johns & Saks, 2001). Popper, Landau, and Gluskinso (1992) maintained that leadership must be examined

in the context of the organization's culture and socio-technical issues.

4.2.3 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 integrate both situation and follower characteristics. In Fiedler's Contingency Theory (Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler, 1978; Fiedler & Chemers, 1974), the orientation of leadership style (task vs. relationship oriented) used is dependent on the favorability of the situation.

The influence of leaders on their followers is influenced by the characteristics of these followers (Lord, Brown, & Frieberg, 1999). Transformational leaders must exhibit intellectual stimulation and the leader must appear as having high intellect. They must be able to relate to their followers and must be able to 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).

Leader-Member Exchange theory focuses on the dyadic relationship between the leader and follower (Northouse, 1997). Leaders must focus on the dyadic relationship between leader and followers 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 leaders and followers and their relationship, it is equally important to look at the influence of the environment on these types of leaders.

4.3 Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Leadership can be defined as a process of influencing other people's orientation towards the achievement of goals (Greenberg et al., 2000; Johns and 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.

In an attempt to investigate "trait theory" of leadership, Bird (1940) noted that one characteristic that appeared repeatedly in studies of leaders was intelligence. Leaders were found to be more intelligent than their followers. According to Bird (1940) intelligence is only a contributing factor to

leadership, and does not solely account for successful leadership. Similarly, Bass (1960) found that leaders usually have higher intelligence scores than followers, but not significantly very high.

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 and Oats, 1998). Emotional intelligence may offer some insights into effective 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 interpersonal skills are important in leadership. He defined interpersonal competence as "involving empathy, insight, heightened awareness, and the ability to give and receive feedback" (Bass, 1990, p. 10).

Interpersonal skills enable a person 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, 1999). 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 can be learned by any worker at any career stage (Goleman, 1998).

Callahan (1990) mentioned high interpersonal skills as one of the behaviors on his checklist of eight effective principal behaviors. Cherniss (1998) noted that leaders have always needed people skills, but today they need them more than ever. Wright and Taylor (1994) 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 essential components of emotional intelligence and leadership.

Empathy comprises 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). Abraham (1999) argued that empathy permits emotionally intelligent managers to place themselves in the position of the employees to understand the distress they are undergoing and experience themselves these feelings, and accordingly modify their communication. Empathy enables the leader to be sensitive to what is being said, analyse its impact on the receiver, and avoid hurt and humiliation (Levinson, 1992). Goleman (1998a) found that trainers who are warm, genuine, and empathic are best able to engage learners in the change process. Greenleaf (1977) asserted that the leader who displays empathy, understanding, and acceptance of the followers easily earns followers' trust. Abraham (1999) suggested that empathic employees/followers are able to view weaknesses in their performance from the organization's point of view, perceiving them as detrimental to organizational success. Finally, Daniel (1998) advocated that social intelligence, including a well-developed sense of empathy is essential for effective leadership. King (1999) stated that leadership implies a working relationship with other people who follow and are influenced by the leader.

Communicating effectively is often mentioned by researchers as an integral link to interpersonal skills and effective leadership (Kanter, 1983). Covey (1990) advocated that understanding others is fundamental to interpersonal relations. Rost (1991) stated that honest communication is one of the attributes a great leader possesses. It includes the ability to deliver criticism intelligently so that valuable information can be shared with the employees to enhance their performance (Abraham, 1999).

The third component of interpersonal skills involves the ability to work and function within a team (McDowelle and Bell, 1997). Interpersonal skills of a leader help in empowering others and building strong relationships with others (Kouzes and 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 members of optimum performing groups were able to build consensus, empathized with other group members, avoid conflicts, and promote cooperation. Daniel (1998) noted that the abilities like trustworthiness, adaptability, and collaboration are necessary for success in study of over 121 companies worldwide. Nelton (1996) found that managers understand the importance of EQ skills for teaming in the modern day work world. William and Sternberg (1988) found that dysfunctional interaction among the group decreases the group's ability to solve problems and act creatively.

The ability to build working relationships with many people and function as mediator, negotiator, and networker is necessary to succeed for the leader (Cherniss, 1998). Leader must be able to sense and understand the viewpoints of everyone involved. A leader with a team spirit can motivate people to agree on a new marketing strategy or generate enthusiasm about a new product (Goleman, 1998b).

While the term interpersonal skills describe interactions among people, intrapersonal skills refer to the feelings and actions within an individual (Gardner, 1983). McGarvey (1997) argued that emotional control is a key skill for successful leaders. Kelly and Moon (1998) defined intrapersonal skills as the ability to take constructive action with respect to both people and tasks. These abilities help an individual in developing self- awareness, capitalizing on personal strengths, minimizing personal weaknesses, make effective life decisions, and set and achieve goals (Kelly and Moon, 1998). Bocchino (1999) described intrapersonal intelligence as the sense of self-awareness that enables us to assume the third person, to observe ourselves, our emotions and behaviours, and to be aware of the insights we receive as a result of that observation.

An insightful leader exhibits intrapersonal aspects of emotional intelligence. Among them are included self-awareness, self-regulation, and the motivation to succeed. Goleman (1998a) suggested that the higher one goes up in the leadership hierarchy, the more important 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 achievement of goals. Goleman (1998b) reported that effective leaders have motivation. He also noted that highly motivated people remain optimistic even in testing times.

Self-awareness is one's understanding of one's own emotions (Goleman, 1998b). Individuals who experience honest self-awareness are able to recognize their strengths, weaknesses, needs, and drives. They know how their feelings affect themselves, other people, and their job performance.

People with a high degree of self-regulation reflect an inclination towards thoughtfulness, integrity, comfort with uncertainty, and an ability to control impulsive urges (Goleman, 1998b). Goleman (1998c) advocates self-regulation as an important attribute of leaders.

Finally, self-awareness and self-regulation enable an individual to experience

positive affect within themselves and others, and contribute to their well-being. Thus, "the emotionally intelligent person is often a pleasure to be around and leaves others feeling better" (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 201).

4.4 Comparison of Emotional Intelligence abilities to leadership traits

Several traits and behaviours like emotional stability, self-confidence, adaptability, and tenacity associated with effective leaders overlap with the trait-based view of EI. Managing own emotions which includes perceiving one's own emotions and others' emotions is an integral part of impression management. Theoretically, people who are high on impression management must also be adept at managing their own emotions and must also be able to correctly perceive their own emotions and others' 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) claimed that charismatic leaders are engaging in impression management. Charismatic leaders create, communicate, and instill commitment toward a common vision. 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 leaders must be supportive, considerate, empathetic, caring, and must give personalized attention to their individual followers. This 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 suggested that leaders must display developmentally-oriented behaviours (e.g., encourages delegation), conduct individual counselling, 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 modelling appropriate emotional responses. The emotional perception ability of leaders is critical to the counselling and mentoring role.

Researchers have indicated that transformational or charismatic leaders "emotionally engage their followers" and "display emotions" to motivate followers to adopt the goals and values of the organization (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Bass, 1998; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Conger and Kanungo,

1998; Shamir et al., 1993).

Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to be aware of their own emotions and moods (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Leaders who are able 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 can use self-expression to communicate accurately the goals of the organization and earn the respect of followers (Shamir et al., 1993). Leaders with high level of self-awareness may be more effective at inspiring followers (Atwater and Yammarino, 1997; Bass and Yammarino, 1989; Fleenor and McCauley, 1996; Sosik and Dworakivsky, 1998). Leaders possessing high levels of self-perception have been more effective leaders (Roush and Atwater, 1992).

Individuals having the ability to express emotions accurately may be more likely to communicate in an emotionally expressive manner (Mayer et al., 2000c). Megerian and Sosik (1996) suggested that organizational vision communicated in an emotionally expressive manner, rather than a technical manner, may be more appealing to followers.

Individuals with high emotional understanding possess the ability to anticipate how others will respond in different situations (Mayer et al., 2000b). Perceiving followers' emotions and understanding why followers feel different emotions in different situations may help the leader in successfully conveying a sense of the organization's vision to followers (George, 2000).

Effective leaders may use their emotions to promote positive emotions among their followers (George, 2000). Individuals with enhanced emotional integration skills are able to use emotions to promote critical thinking (Mayer et al., 2000d). Leaders possessing 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 and Sosik, 1996).

Emotionally intelligent individuals possess the ability to be empathetic with others and to manage interpersonal relationships (Mayer et al., 2000c). Transformational leaders understand and interact with their followers, and can accurately recognize their followers' needs by being empathetic (Bass, 1990). Bass (1998) suggested that leaders with high levels of individualized consideration tend to have positive relationships with co-workers, subordinates, and clients, and were interested in helping others and encouraging others to discuss their problems.

Leaders with heightened emotional understanding possess the ability to understand followers' emotions and to interact with followers in order to achieve their desired goals (Barling et al., 2000; George, 2000). Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to be aware of their emotions and what impact their emotions will have on others (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). The ability of leaders to understand the impact of their behaviour on the emotions of their followers, and the ability to understand that certain situations may elicit particular emotional responses, helps in situations where the leaders were providing feedback to followers. When leaders possess the ability to understand the emotions of their followers, they may carefully provide criticism (Megerian and 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). Effective leadership involves problem solving, understanding people and social systems (Marshall-Meis et al., 2000; Zaccaro et al., 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).

Emotionally intelligent people tend to manage their own emotions and emotions of others by regulating the expression of negative emotions and enhancing the expression of positive emotions (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Leaders possessing the ability to manage their emotions are able to exercise self-control in problem situations thus earning the respect and trust of followers (Barling et al., 2000; Megerian and Sosik, 1996). Leaders able to manage their emotions possess the ability to adapt their behaviour to match their followers' emotional needs to gain respect of their followers (George, 2000). High emotional management leaders may promote a sense of enthusiasm and optimism in a stressful situation (Goleman, 1995; Megerian and Sosik, 1996). Leaders who possess the ability to regulate emotions and express positive moods tend to engage in creative and innovative thinking and encourage this type of thinking among their followers (Isen, Daubman, and Nowicki, 1987). Self-aware leaders tend to possess high levels of interpersonal control (Sosik and Megerian, 1999) and may be more empathetic toward followers' needs (Mayer and Geher, 1996; Sosik and Megerian, 1999).

4.5 Mixed-model Emotional Intelligence 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.

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 1989; Spangenberg et al., 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).

Current research has indicated a positive relation between EI and leadership (Kerr et al., 2006; Leban and Zulauf, 2004; Rosete and Ciarrochi, 2005; Wong and Law, 2002; George, 2000; Sehrawat and Sharma, 2014a; Singh, 2007). Positive relationship Between EI and transformational leadership is reported (Downey et al. 2006; Mandell and Pherwani, 2003; Palmer et al., 2001; Sivanathan and Fekken, 2002; Gardner and Stough, 2002; Duckett and MacFarlane, 2003) and other reported no relationship (Brown et al., 2006; Weinberger's (2002).

Beniss (1989) an eminent organisational psychologist believes that EI is more powerful than IQ in determining who emerges as a leader. Similarly, Gill (2002) emphasizes that managers need planning, organising, and controlling skills while leaders need EI and behavioural skills. Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) also emphasize that ET is twice as important as IQ and technical skills…The higher up the organisation one goes, the more important ET becomes.

The relevance of EI is articulated by leading academicians, practitioners and leaders themselves abroad and in India. The present study extends an empirical base EI and leadership in Indian context. It is also contended that in this part of the world that academic inquiry into the field of EI and leadership is relatively very new and thus the present study will certainly throw valuable insight into the dynamics of these organisationally important variables.4.6

Results

First of all, the reliability of the data was tested by computing Cronbach's Alpha Model. The variable wise reliability coefficients are emotional intelligence α= .823 and leadership α= .762. 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
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

The second objective of present investigation was to explore the relationship between the emotional intelligence and leadership styles. The Karl Pearson's correlation coefficients were computed to explore the relationships among the variables. 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	0.564**	0.451**	0.487**	0.536**	0.419**	0.447**
Self Awareness	0.522**	0.418**	0.436**	0.389**	0.347**	0.303**
Self Management	0.501**	0.337**	0.414**	0.426**	0.313**	0.336**
Social Awareness	0.485**	0.455**	0.408**	0.423**	0.379**	0.369**
Social Skills	0.424**	0.358**	0.396**	0.520**	0.377**	0.452**

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.

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 4.3 below:

Table 4.3: Successive models for dependent variable Y_1 (Pioneering Leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.522[a]	0.273	0.270	3.57986
2	0.575[b]	0.330	0.325	3.44224
3	0.587[c]	0.344	0.336	3.41295

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

Table 4.3 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 4.4.

Table 4.4: 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 4.4 shows that all the three models obtained in table 4.3 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 4.5 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.5: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_1 (Pioneering Leadership)

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	10.155	1.627	6.242	.000
	Self-awareness	0.211	0.022	9.569	.000
2	(Constant)	6.160	1.792	3.438	.001
	Self-awareness	0.148	0.025	5.890	.000
	Social awareness	0.106	0.023	4.572	.000
3	(Constant)	5.412	1.807	2.995	.003
	Self-awareness	0.116	0.029	4.023	.000
	Social awareness	0.082	0.025	3.260	.001
	Self-management	0.040	0.017	2.278	.024

Table 4.5 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* (pioneering leadership) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (social skills) + β_3 X_3 (social awareness) + β_2 X_2(self- management)

= 5.412 + .116 X_1 (social skills) + .082 X_3 (socialawareness) + .040 X_2(self-management)

Example of prediction: 12th 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 pioneering leadership) = 5.412+ .116 × 52 + .082 × 85 + .040 x 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 (strategic leadership) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (self-awareness) + β_2 X_2 (self-management) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + β_4 X_4 (social skills)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_2 (strategic leadership) are given in Table 4.6 below:

Table 4.6: Successive models for dependent variable Y_2 (strategic leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.455[a]	0.207	0.204	3.08739
2	0.499[b]	0.249	0.242	3.01099

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

Table 4.6 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 4.7.

Table 4.7: 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 4.7 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 4.8 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.8: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_2 (strategic leadership)

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	13.566	1.425	9.520	.000
	social awareness	0.140	0.017	7.976	.000
2	(Constant)	10.898	1.567	6.953	.000
	social awareness	0.099	0.020	4.882	.000
	self-awareness	0.081	0.022	3.680	.000

Table4.8 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) = β_0 + β_3 X_3 (social awareness) + β_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) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (self-awareness) + β_2 X_2 (self-management) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + β_4 X_4 (social skills)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_3 (management leadership) are given in table 4.9 below:

Table 4.9: Successive models for dependent variable Y_3 (management leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.436[a]	0.190	0.187	3.65089
2	0.481[b]	0.232	0.226	3.56251

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

Table 4.9 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 4.10.

Table 4.10: 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 4.10 shows that both the models obtained in Table 4.9 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 4.11 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.11: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_3 (management leadership)

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	12.758	1.659	7.689	.000
	self-awareness	0.170	0.022	7.563	.000
2	(Constant)	9.465	1.855	5.104	.000
	self-awareness	0.119	0.026	4.545	.000
	social awareness	0.087	0.024	3.641	.000

Table 4.11 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) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (self- awareness) + β_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) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (self-awareness) + β_2 X_2 (self-management) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + β_4 X_4 (social skills)

Results of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_1 are given in table 4.12 below:

Table 4.12: Successive models for dependent variable Y_4 (team leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.520[a]	0.271	0.268	3.66346
2	0.539[b]	0.290	0.285	3.62107

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

Table 4.12 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 4.13.

Table 4.13: 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 4.13 shows that both the models obtained in Table 4.12 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 4.14 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.14: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_4 (team leadership)

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	11.832	1.415	8.364	.000
	social skills	0.106	0.011	9.519	.000
2	(Constant)	9.327	1.699	5.490	.000
	social skills	0.084	0.014	6.099	.000
	self-management	0.041	0.016	2.597	.010

Table 4.14 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) = β_0 + β_4 X_4 (social skills) + β_2 X_2 (self-management)

$\qquad\qquad$ = 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) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (self-awareness) + β_2 X_2 (self-management) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + β_4 X_4 (social skills)

Results of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_1 are given in table 4.15 below:

Table 4.15: Successive models for dependent variable Y_5 (pastoral leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.379[a]	0.143	0.140	3.05854
2	0.421[b]	0.178	0.171	3.00330

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

Table 4.15 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 4.16.

Table 4.16: ANOVA of successive models for dependent variable Y_5 (pastoral leadership)

Models		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 4.16 shows that both the models obtained in Table 4.15 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 4.17 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.17: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_5 (pastoral leadership)

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	14.513	1.412	10.281	.000
	social awareness	0.111	0.017	6.393	.000
2	(Constant)	13.281	1.440	9.226	.000
	social awareness	0.069	0.021	3.235	.001
	social skills	0.036	0.012	3.171	.002

Table 4.17 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) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (self-awareness) + β_2 X_2 (self-management) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + β_4 X_4 (social skills)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership) are given in Table 4.18 below:

Table 4.18: Successive models for dependent variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.452[a]	0.204	0.201	3.15942
2	0.467[b]	0.218	0.212	3.13753

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

Table 4.18 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 4.19.

Table 4.19: 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 4.19 shows that both the models obtained in Table 4.18 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 4.20 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 4.20: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_6 (encouraging leadership)

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	13.897	1.220	11.390	.000
	social skills	0.076	0.010	7.906	.000
2	(Constant)	12.025	1.504	7.996	.000
	social skills	0.061	0.012	5.037	.000
	social awareness	0.047	0.022	2.101	.037

Table 4.20 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) = β_0 + β_4 X_4 (social skills) + β_3 X_3 (social awareness)

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

4.7 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. Self-awareness, social-awareness and self management are significant predictors of pioneering style of leadership.
4. Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of strategic style of leadership.
5. Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of management style of leadership.

6. Self-management and social skills are significant predictors of team leadership.
7. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of pastoral style of leadership.
8. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of encouraging style of leadership.

CHAPTER 5

Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management

5.1 Introduction

Conflict may be described as a disagreement or opposition between two or more parties. This disagreement may be because of incompatible goals, attitudes emotions, or behavior. Managers spend their 21% time or one day per week in dealing with conflict (Thomas and Schmidt 1976). A critical indicator of a manager's ability to manage conflict is emotional intelligence. People who lack emotional intelligence especially empathy are more likely to be causes of conflict than managers of conflict (Goleman 1995; Stuller 1998).

5.2 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)."

Conflict literature has been reviewed to provide a context and a general framework of interpersonal conflict (Pondy 1967; Pruitt and Rubin 1986; Putnam and Poole 1987; Thomas 1976, 1992b; Wall and Callister 1995). On

the basis of review it can be argued that the interpersonal conflict literature shares a general structure and 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 affect the causes (p. 516).

The level of existing interpersonal conflict depends partly on the contextual antecedents and partly on the conflict management styles employed by the individuals in the group or team. Similarly, the conflict management styles individuals employ depend partly on the contextual antecedents and partly on the level of interpersonal conflict exist. Individuals select different conflict management styles depending on the level of interpersonal conflict perceived. As stated above conflict is seen as a process that means interpersonal conflict and management styles affect each other. Finally, the interpersonal conflict and style of conflict management affect individuals, teams, projects, and outcomes in organizations.

5.3 Definitions and Properties of Interpersonal Conflict

The term conflict has been used in many different ways reflecting the different levels at which varied conflicts exist (Deutsch 1990; Thomas 1992a). Thomas (1992a) underlined two broad uses of the term. The first refers to incompatible response tendencies within an individual, like behavioural 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.

In this study the focus is on the second use, and in particular, on interpersonal conflict that has been defined in many different ways (Thomas 1992a; Wall and Callister 1995). These conflicts may be 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).

A synthesis of the numerous conceptualizations and definitions of conflict, Putnam and Poole (1987) and Thomas (1992a, 1992b) noted three general themes or properties: interdependence, disagreement, and interference. Interdependence exists when the attainment of goals of each party depends, at least in part, on the actions of the other party. Without Interdependence, the actions of each party do not affect the outcomes of the other party. Therefore, interdependence is a key structural pre-condition of any conflict situation, and provides an interpersonal context to any conflict that may arise. However, many individuals or groups are in interdependent relation- ships with others, but do not experience conflict. Thus, interdependence is a necessary condition for conflicts to occur but not sufficient. Second property disagreement exists when parties involved think that a difference of values, opinions, needs, interests, objectives or goals exists. Such disagreements signify the key cognitive component of interpersonal conflict. However, only disagreement is not sufficient for conflict to emerge. For example, if areas of disagreement are irrelevant or unimportant the disagreeing parties will not experience conflict. The last Interference exists when one party interferes with or opposes the other party's attainment of its interests, objectives, or goals. Thus, interference represents the central behavioural characteristic of any conflict. Many researchers argue that the core process of interpersonal conflict is the behaviour where one or more parties oppose the attainment of interests or goals of their counterpart (Wall and Callister 1995). Researchers have also noted the importance of incorporating negative emotion of feelings like jealousy, anger, anxiety, or frustration into conceptualizations of conflict (Amason 1996; Jehn 1995; Pinkley 1990; Pondy 1967; Thomas 1992a, 1992b). These emotions are believed to emerge when there are major disagreements, or when parties interfere with the attainment of each others' important goals. Therefore, a fourth property, negative emotion, can also be added.

A good definition of interpersonal conflict should incorporate all of these 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), behavioural (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).

5.4 The Assessment of Interpersonal Conflict and Conflict Management Styles

Existing research on assessing interpersonal conflict can be classified into two groups. First group assessed styles of conflict management (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 (Amason 1996; Barki and Hartwick 1994b; Brown and Day 1981; Etgar 1979; Habib 1987; Jehn 1995; Robey et al. 1989). These studies are not sufficient to understand the concept of interpersonal conflict. At least two limitations of these studies are identified. Many researchers assessed interpersonal conflict with a small number of items, typically using items that looked only at perceptions of overall conflict (Barki and Hartwick 1994b; Robey et al. 1989). These assessments are useful but do not provide an in-depth look at the foundations of the construct. On the other hand, studies assessing conflict in greater depth have not captured all of its definitional properties. Some studies assessed disagreement and negative emotion (Amason 1996; Jehn 1995), most assessed only disagreement (Brown and Day 1981; Habib 1987), and few have assessed interference (Etgar 1979). Conflict researchers ascribe the central role to interference (Wall and Callister 1995), neglecting its assessment seems to be a serious limitation. The present study views interdependence, disagreement, interference, and negative emotion as dimensional indicators of interpersonal conflict.

Researchers Within the conflict domain have identified a number of conflict management styles and their role in satisfactory management and resolution

of conflicts has been identified (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, five different styles of conflict management: asserting, accommodating, compromising, problem-solving, and avoiding are classified. These styles are seen as general strategies or behavioral orientations that individuals adopt for managing and resolving conflicts.

Literature in this field reflects 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 these three, problem solving style is generally perceived as the most appropriate, most effective, and highly competent style in managing conflicts (Gross and Guerrero, 2000; Papa and Canary, 1995). 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) suggested that a confrontation style dealing with intergroup conflict was used to a significantly greater degree in higher than lower performing organizations.

5.5 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; Sharma and Sehrawat, 2014). 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" (May and Andrade, 2003, 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.

5.6 Results

First of all, by computing Cronbach's Alpha Model tested the reliability of the data. The variable wise reliability coefficients are emotional intelligence α= .823 and conflict management α= .673.The descriptive statistics of the data are given in table 5.1.

Table 5.1: 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
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

The third objective of the study is to explore the relationship between the emotional intelligence and conflict management styles. The Karl Pearson's correlation coefficients were computed to explore the relationships among the variables. The correlation results are presented in table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Correlation between emotional intelligence and styles of conflict management

Variables	Problem Solving	Asserting	Avoiding	Compromising	Accommodating
Emotional Intelligence	0.331**	0.399**	-0.060	0.274**	0.260**
Self Awareness	0.245**	0.304**	0.022	0.199**	0.177**
Self Management	0.294**	0.305**	-0.041	0.233**	0.250**
Social Awareness	0.375**	0.407**	-0.060	0.257**	0.263**
Social Skills	0.232**	0.341**	-0.068	0.231**	0.190**

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

The analysis of table 5.2 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 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.

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:

$$Y_7 \text{ (problem solving)} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 \text{ (self-awareness)} + \beta_2 X_2 \text{ (self-management)} + \beta_3 X_3 \text{ (social awareness)} + \beta_4 X_4 \text{ (social skills)}$$

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_7 (problem solving) are given in table 5.3 below:

Table 5.3: Model for dependent variable Y_7 (problem solving)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.375[a]	0.140	0.137	3.87348

a Predictors: (Constant), social awareness

Table 5.3 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 5.4.

Table 5.4: 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 5.4 shows that the model obtained in table 5.3 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 5.5 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 5.5: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of model for dependent variable Y_7 (problem solving)

Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	9.259	1.788	5.179	.000
	Social awareness	0.139	0.022	6.310	.000

Table 5.5 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)

$$= 9.259+ .139 X_3 \text{ (social awareness)}$$

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)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_8 (asserting) are given in table 5.6 below:

Table 5.6: Successive models for dependent variable Y_8 (asserting)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.407[a]	0.166	0.163	4.06173
2	0.424[b]	0.180	0.173	4.03617

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

Table 5.6 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 5.7.

Table 5.7: 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 5.7 shows that both the models obtained in table 5.6 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 5.8 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 5.8: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_8 (asserting)

Models	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	5.994	1.875	3.197	.002
	Social awareness	0.160	0.023	6.970	.000
2	(Constant)	4.937	1.935	2.552	.011
	Social awareness	0.125	0.029	4.333	.000
	Social skills	0.031	0.015	2.025	.044

Table 5.8 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^*(asserting) $= \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness)$+ \beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

$\qquad\qquad = 4.937 + .125 X_3$ (social awareness) $+ .031 X_4$ (social skills)

Avoiding

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_9 (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_9 (avoiding) $= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (self-awareness) $+ \beta_2 X_2$ (self-management) $+ \beta_3 X_3$

$\qquad\qquad$ (social awareness) $+ \beta_4 X_4$ (social skills)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_9 (compromising) are given in table 5.9 below:

Table 5.9: Model for dependent variable Y_9 (avoiding)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.257	0.066	0.062	4.12876

a Predictors: (Constant), social awareness

Table 5.9 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 5.10.

Table 5.10: ANOVA of model for dependent variable Y_9 (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 5.10 shows that the model obtained in table 5.9 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 5.11 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 5.11: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_9 (avoiding)

Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	10.750	1.906	5.641	.000
	Social awareness	0.097	0.023	4.163	.000

Table 5.11 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:

Y_9 *(avoiding) = β_0 + β_3 X_3 (social awareness)

$= 10.750 + .097\ X_3$ (social awareness)

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_{10} (compromising) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (self-awareness) + β_2 X_2 (self-management) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + β_4 X_4 (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_{10} (compromising).

Accommodating

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_{10} (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) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (self-awareness) + β_2 X_2 (self-management) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (social awareness) + β_4 X_4 (social skills)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_{11} (accommodating) are given in table 5.12 below:

Table 5.12: Model for dependent variable Y_{11} (accommodating)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.263[a]	0.069	0.065	3.93948

a Predictors: (Constant), social awareness

Table 5.12 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 5.13.

Table 5.13: 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 5.13 shows that the model obtained in table 5.12 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_{10} (accommodating). Table 5.14 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the successive models.

Table 5.14: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_{11} (accommodating)

Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	9.826	1.818	5.404	.000
	social awareness	0.095	0.022	4.253	.000

Table 5.14 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)

$$= 9.826 + .095 X_3 \text{ (social awareness)}$$

5.7 Findings

1. 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.
2. 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.
3. 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.
4. Social skills are positively correlated with problem solving, asserting, compromising and accommodating styles of conflict management.
5. Social-awareness is significant predictor of problem solving style of conflict management.
6. Social-awareness and social skills are significant predictors of asserting style of conflict management
7. Emotional Intelligence cannot predict about compromising style of conflict management.
8. Social-awareness is a significant predictor of avoiding style of conflict management.
9. Social-awareness is significant predictors of accommodating style of conflict management.

CHAPTER 6

Leadership and Conflict Management

6.1 Introduction

Conflict is inherent to human beings. In social or professional life conflict occurs when an individual or a group feels negatively affected by another individual or group (Wall & Callister 1995). Marquis and Huston (1996) define conflict as the internal discord that results from differences in ideas, values or feelings between two or more people (p. 333). Fisher (2000) defines destructive conflict as a social situation in which there are perceived incompatibilities in goals or values between two (or more) parties, attempts by the parties to control one another, and antagonistic feelings towards each other (p. 168). Whenever there are significant differences between individuals or groups, there is a potential for destructive conflict between individuals or groups. Conflict resolution is prescribed not simply as a mechanism for dealing with difficult differences within an existing social system, but also as an approach that can facilitate constructive social change towards a responsive and equitable system (Fisher 2000, p. 176).

Conflicts in organizations may occur between two individuals, within a group and work team, or between groups or teams (De Dreu & Van de Vliert 1997). Conflicts in organizations seem to be associated with organizational goals, values, and norms or related to structural aspects of organizations such as decentralization, heterogeneity or ambiguity of tasks (Van de Vliert 1998). Power differentials, competition for scarce resources, tendencies to differentiate rather than converge, negative interdependence between work units, ambiguous responsibility or jurisdiction, and a denial of one's self-image or characteristic identifications are other possible organizational characteristics related to conflicts in groups and organizations. Conflicts in groups and organizations are generally avoided and suppressed because of a fear of negative consequences, and people seek to preserve consistency, stability and harmony within the organization (De Dreu & Van de Vliert 1997, Nadler & Tushman 1999).

Conflict management has emerged as a major research field in organizational behaviour. Conflict in groups and organizations has been argued to have a positive effect on group identity, development and function by researchers

(Jones 1993, De Dreu 1997). Leadership style and choice of conflict management style may have a strong influence on the outcomes of a conflict. The present study aimed at exploring relationship between Indian manager's leadership and conflict management style. The ability to manage internal conflict creatively in the organization is becoming a necessity. Organizations need to develop the processes, cultures and behaviours capable of accommodating and resolving conflicts in ways that benefit the consumers and employees (Nadler & Tushman 1999).

6.2 Leadership and Conflict Management

The effective management and success of an organization depends on the integration of employees who may vary in scale and influence, who may have diverse cultural backgrounds, and who may be dominated by professionals coming from different disciplines based upon conflicting paradigms (Bryant 2003). Culture and leadership interplay constantly. The existence of personal and emotional tensions among the workers is one dimension of organizational culture. Mergers and acquisitions at global level, growing number of MNC's have increased the pace of organizational change and cultural diversity. According to Downing (1997) organizational change is frequently associated with emotional conflict or interpretative conflict. How leaders respond to problems, resolve conflicts and crises, reward and punish followers is important for an organization's culture. Leaders who are considerate to organizational renewal foster organizational cultures that are conductive to innovation and creativity, problem solving, risk taking and experimentation. How leaders perceive power tend to influence their conflict resolution strategies and enhancing effective team work. Leader's orientation towards employee relationship has a positive correlation with trust and a negative correlation with conflicts (Bass & Avolio 1994, Ekvall 1996).

The role of leader in intergroup conflict is very important. The leader influences and directs individuals and groups, and requires many qualities and skills for effective handling and resolution of conflicts. An effective leader has the ability to motivate the conflicting groups work together towards their shared goals. He encourages mutual support, defuses tensions, harmonizes misunderstanding and deals with disruptive or aggressive behaviour effectively (O'Hearn Woodlti 1987, Fisher 2000). Multiculturalism influences communications and affect interactions and performance in today's work environment (Martin et al. 1994). The changing and turbulent work environment in which managers perform demand from them skills and

abilities to manage conflicts in a way that have constructive outcomes. In such a situation awareness of the style leaders use to handle conflicts would be helpful (Rahim, 2001, 1985, 1986; Sehrawat and Sharma, 2014b).

Conflict management refers to the measures used by either or both parties to cope with a conflicting situation. Adler and Towne (1990) proposed three possible approaches to deal with a conflict: (1) accepting the status quo (i.e. living with the problem); (2) using force and mandating change; (3) reaching an agreement through negotiation. Three types of outcomes: Win–Lose approach, where one party gains at the cost of other; Lose–Lose approach, where both the parties lose and Win–Win approach, in this situation both the parties gain result from these approaches to conflict management.

Conflict management research primarily focuses on the conflict situation and the person–situation interaction (Knapp et al. 1988). However, the conflict behaviour is determined by both situational and dispositional influences (Sandy et al. 2000). Similar approaches to measuring individual modes of managing interpersonal conflict have been developed by others (Blake & Mouton 1964, Rahim 1983). The theoretical framework of this study is based up on the work of Thomas and Kilmann (1974) and Rahim (1983). Traditionally, five different styles of conflict management: asserting, accommodating, compromising, problem-solving, and avoiding are classified. These styles are seen as general strategies or behavioral orientations that individuals adopt for managing and resolving conflicts.

Asserting style occurs when individuals strive to win. In this style of conflict management one party gains and the other party incurs loss. Conflict, therefore, is considered a win- lose situation. Like asserting, accommodating style occurs when one party sacrifices its own needs and desires in order to satisfy the needs of the other party. This occurs as individuals oblige or yield to others' positions, or cooperate in an attempt to resolve conflicts. Compromising style frequently splits the difference or involves give and take behaviours where each party wins some and loses some. Problem-solving style occurs when individuals involved in conflict try to fully satisfy the concerns of all parties. In this style, actions are aimed at the achievement of goals and objectives of all parties. Hence, it results as a win-win solution. At last, avoiding style occurs when individuals are indifferent to the concerns of other party and refuse to act or participate in conflict. Here, one party withdraws, physically or psychologically, abdicating all responsibility for the

solution. Successful conflict resolution removes frustration and leads to higher effectiveness, trust and openness (Van de Vliert 1998).

6.3 Results

First of all, the reliability of the data was tested by computing Cronbach's Alpha Model. The variable wise reliability coefficients are leadership α = .762 and conflict management α = .673.The descriptive statistics of the data are given in table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Descriptive Statistics of the Data N=981

Variable	Range of scores	Min score	Max score	Mean score	Std. Dev.
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

The fourth objective of the present was to explore the relationship between the leadership and conflict management. The Karl Pearson's correlation coefficients were computed to explore the relationships among the variables. The results are presented in table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Correlation between leadership styles and conflict management styles

Variables	Problem Solving	Asserting	Avoiding	Compromising	Accommodating
Pioneering	0.140*	0.210**	-0.119	0.143**	-0.069
Strategic	0.221**	0.155*	-0.157*	0.028	0.081
Management	0.293**	0.218**	-0.013	0.261**	0.225**
Team	0.149*	0.200**	-0.161*	0.162*	0.206**
Pastoral	0.181**	0.192**	-0.023	0.132*	0.139*
Encouraging	0.222**	0.236**	0.042	0.151*	0.138*

- p< 0.05 ** p < 0.01

The analysis of table 6.2 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.

Problem Solving

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_1 (problem solving) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (pioneering leadership), X_2 (strategic leadership), X_3 (management leadership), X_4 (team leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) and X_6 (encouraging leadership) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership) is:

Y_1 (problem solving) $= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (pioneering leadership) $+ \beta_2 X_2$ (strategic leadership) $+ \beta_3 X_3$ (management leadership) $+ \beta_4 X_4$ (team leadership) $+ \beta_5 X_5$ (pastoral leadership) $+ \beta_6 X_6$ (encouraging leadership)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership) are given in table 6.3 below:

Table 6.3: Successive models for dependent variable Y_1 (problem solving)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.351[a]	0.123	0.101	3.953

a Predictors: (Constant), encouraging leadership, pioneering leadersip, management leadership, pastoral leadership, team leadership, strategic leadership

Table 6.3 shows that the value of R is .351 in the model in which the explanatory variables X_6 (encouraging leadership), X_1(pioneering leadersip), X_3(management leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) X_4 (team leadership) X_2 (strategic leadership) are included. The results of ANOVA for the model used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 6.4.

Table 6.4: ANOVA of model for dependent variable Y_1 (problem solving)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	523.487	6	87.248	5.583	.000[a]
Residual	3734.839	975	15.627		
Total	4258.325	981			

a Predictors: (Constant), encouraging leadership, pioneering leadersip, management leadership, pastoral leadership, team leadership, strategic leadership

Table 6.4 shows that the model obtained in table 6.3 is highly significant. This table also reflects that model, where the explanatory variables X_6 (encouraging leadership), X_1(pioneering leadersip), X_3(management leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership), X_4 (team leadership), and X_2 (strategic leadership) are included, is appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_1 (problem solving). Table 6.5 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the model.

Table 6.5: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_1 (problem solving)

Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	sig
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	2.827	0.005	2.827	.005
	Pioneering Leadership	-0.384	0.701	-0.384	.701
	Strategic Leadership	1.062	0.289	1.062	.289
	Management Leadership	3.151	0.002	3.151	.002
	Team Leadership	-0.564	0.573	-0.564	.573
	Pastoral Leadership	1.041	0.299	1.041	.299
	Encouraging Leadership	2.305	0.022	2.305	.022

Table 6.5 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^* (problem solving) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (pioneering leadership) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (strategic leadership) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (management leadership) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (team leadership) + $\beta_5 X_5$ (pastoral leadership) + $\beta_6 X_6$ (encouraging leadership)

= 2.827 + -.384 X_1 (pioneering leadership) + 1.062 X_2 (strategic leadership) + 3.151 X_3 (management leadership) + -.564 X_4 (team leadership) + 1.041 X_5 (pastoral leadership) + 2.305 X_6 (encouraging leadership)

Asserting

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_2 (asserting) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (pioneering leadership), X_2 (strategic leadership), X_3 (management leadership), X_4 (team leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) and X_6 (encouraging leadership) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership) is:

Y_2 (asserting) = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1$ (pioneering leadership) + $\beta_2 X_2$ (strategic leadership) + $\beta_3 X_3$ (management leadership) + $\beta_4 X_4$ (team leadership) + $\beta_5 X_5$ (pastoral leadership) + $\beta_6 X_6$ (encouraging leadership)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_2 (asserting) are given in table 6.6 below:

Table 6.6: Successive models for dependent variable Y_2 (asserting)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.313[a]	0.098	0.075	4.268

a Predictors: (Constant), encouraging leadership, pioneering leadersip, management leadership, pastoral leadership, team leadership, strategic leadership

Table 6.6 shows that the value of R is .313 in the model in which the explanatory variables X_6 (encouraging leadership), X_1(pioneering leadersip), X_3(management leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) X_4 (team leadership) X_2 (strategic leadership) are included. The results of ANOVA for the model used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 6.7.

Table 6.7: ANOVA of model for dependent variable Y_2 (asserting)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	472.883	6	78.814	4.326	.000[a]
Residual	4354.076	975	18.218		
Total	4826.959	981			

Table 6.7 shows that the model obtained in table 6.6 is highly significant. This table also reflects that model, where the explanatory variables X_6 (encouraging leadership), X_1(pioneering leadersip), X_3(management leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) X_4 (team leadership) X_2 (strategic leadership) are included, is appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_1 (problem solving). Table 6.8 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the model.

Table 6.8: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_2 (asserting)

Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	sig
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	6.075	2.771	2.193	.029
	Pioneering Leadership	-0.002	0.021	-0.100	.921
	Strategic Leadership	-0.007	0.095	-0.078	.938
	Management Leadership	0.151	0.079	1.916	.057
	Team Leadership	0.070	0.077	0.912	.363
	Pastoral Leadership	0.110	0.092	1.205	.230
	Encouraging Leadership	0.211	0.084	2.523	.012

Table 6.8 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_2^* (asserting) $= \beta_0 + \beta_1\, X_1$ (pioneering leadership) $+ \beta_2\, X_2$ (strategic leadership) $+ \beta_3\, X_3$ (management leadership) $+ \beta_4\, X_4$ (team leadership) $+ \beta_5\, X_5$ (pastoral leadership) $+ \beta_6\, X_6$ (encouraging leadership)

$= 6.075 + -.002\, X_1$ (pioneering leadership) $+ -.007\, X_2$ (strategic leadership) $+ .151\, X_3$ (management leadership) $+ .070\, X_4$ (team leadership) $+ .110\, X_5$ (pastoral leadership) $+ .211\, X_6$ (encouraging leadership)

Avoiding

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_3 (avoiding) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (pioneering leadership), X_2 (strategic leadership), X_3 (management leadership), X_4 (team leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) and X_6 (encouraging leadership) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership) is:

Y_3 (avoiding) $= \beta_0 + \beta_1\, X_1$ (pioneering leadership) $+ \beta_2\, X_2$ (strategic leadership) $+ \beta_3\, X_3$ (management leadership) $+ \beta_4\, X_4$ (team leadership) $+ \beta_5\, X_5$ (pastoral leadership) $+ \beta_6\, X_6$ (encouraging leadership)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_3 (avoiding) are given in table 6.9 below:

Table 6.9: Successive models for dependent variable Y_3 (avoiding)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.239[a]	.057	.033	5.338

a Predictors: (Constant), encouraging leadership, pioneering leadersip, management leadership, pastoral leadership, team leadership, strategic leadership

Table 6.9 shows that the value of R is .239 in the model in which the explanatory variables X_6 (encouraging leadership), X_1(pioneering leadersip), X_3(management leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) X_4 (team leadership) X_2 (strategic leadership) are included. The results of ANOVA for the model used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 6.10.

Table 6.10: ANOVA of model for dependent variable Y_3 (avoiding)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	412.574	6	68.762	2.413	.028[a]
Residual	6809.934	975	28.493		
Total	7222.508	981			

Table 6.10 shows that the model obtained in table 6.9 is highly significant. This table also reflects that model, where the explanatory variables X_6 (encouraging leadership), X_1 (pioneering leadersip), X_3 (management leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) X_4 (team leadership) X_2 (strategic leadership) are included, is appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_1 (problem solving). Table 6.11 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the model.

Table 6.11: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_3 (avoiding)

Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	17.630	3.465	5.088	.000
	Pioneering Leadership	0.000	0.026	-0.012	.990
	Strategic Leadership	-0.263	0.119	-2.214	.028
	Management Leadership	0.133	0.099	1.351	.178
	Team Leadership	-0.216	0.096	-2.254	.025
	Pastoral Leadership	0.027	0.115	0.237	.813
	Encouraging Leadership	0.186	0.105	1.780	.076

Table 6.11 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_3* (avoiding) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (pioneering leadership) + β_2 X_2 (strategic leadership) + β_3 X_3 (management leadership) + β_4 X_4 (team leadership) + β_5 X_5 (pastoral leadership) + β_6 X_6 (encouraging leadership)

= 17.630 + .000 X_1 (pioneering leadership) + -.263 X_2 (strategic leadership) + .133 X_3 (management leadership) + -.216 X_4 (team leadership) + .027 X_5 (pastoral leadership) + .186 X_6 (encouraging leadership)

Compromising

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_4 (compromising) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (pioneering leadership), X_2 (strategic leadership), X_3 (management leadership), X_4 (team leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) and X_6 (encouraging leadership) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership) is:

Y_4 (compromising) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (pioneering leadership) + β_2 X_2 (strategic leadership) + β_3 X_3 (management leadership) + β_4 X_4 (team leadership) + β_5 X_5 (pastoral leadership) + β_6 X_6 (encouraging leadership)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_4 (compromising) are given in table 6.12 below:

Table 6.12: Successive models for dependent variable Y_4 (compromising)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.321[a]	0.103	0.080	4.089

a Predictors: (Constant), encouraging leadership, pioneering leadersip, management leadership, pastoral leadership, team leadership, strategic leadership

Table 6.12 shows that the value of R is .321 in the model in which the explanatory variables X_6 (encouraging leadership), X_1(pioneering leadersip), X_3(management leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) X_4 (team leadership) X_2 (strategic leadership) are included. The results of ANOVA for the model used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 6.13.

Table 6.13: ANOVA of model for dependent variable Y_4 (compromising)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	457.895	6	76.316	4.563	.000[a]
Residual	3996.858	975	16.723		
Total	4454.752	981			

Table 6.13 shows that the model obtained in table 6.12 is highly significant. This table also reflects that model, where the explanatory variables X_6 (encouraging leadership), X_1(pioneering leadersip), X_3(management

leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) X_4 (team leadership) X_2 (strategic leadership) are included, is appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_1 (problem solving). Table 6.14 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the model.

Table 6.14: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_4 (compromising)

Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	10.351	2.655	3.899	.000
	Pioneering Leadership	0.002	0.020	0.112	.911
	Strategic Leadership	-0.219	0.091	-2.405	.017
	Management Leadership	0.293	0.076	3.880	.000
	Team Leadership	0.087	0.073	1.184	.238
	Pastoral Leadership	0.035	0.088	0.399	.690
	Encouraging Leadership	0.138	0.080	1.720	.087

Table 6.14 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_4* (compromising) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (pioneering leadership) + β_2 X_2 (strategic leadership) + β_3 X_3 (management leadership) + β_4 X_4 (team leadership) + β_5 X_5 (pastoral leadership) + β_6 X_6 (encouraging leadership)

= 10.351 + .002 X_1 (pioneering leadership) + -.219 X_2 (strategic leadership) + .293 X_3 (management leadership) + .087 X_4 (team leadership) + .035 X_5 (pastoral leadership) + .138 X_6 (encouraging leadership)

Accommodating

The model for the dependency/linear relationship of variable Y_5 (accommodating) on/with explanatory variables X_1 (pioneering leadership), X_2

(strategic leadership), X_3 (management leadership), X_4 (team leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) and X_6 (encouraging leadership) and to establish prediction equation for dependent variable Y_1 (pioneering leadership) is:

Y_5 (accommodating) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (pioneering leadership) + β_2 X_2 (strategic leadership) + β_3 X_3 (management leadership) + β_4 X_4 (team leadership) + β_5 X_5 (pastoral leadership) + β_6 X_6 (encouraging leadership)

Result of stepwise multiple linear regressions for dependent variable Y_5 (accommodating) are given in table 6.15 below:

Table 6.15: Model for dependent variable Y_5 (accommodating)

Successive Models	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.284[a]	0.080	0.057	3.956

a Predictors: (Constant), encouraging leadership, pioneering leadersip, management leadership, pastoral leadership, team leadership, strategic leadership

Table 6.15 shows that the value of R is .321 in the model in which the explanatory variables X_6 (encouraging leadership), X_1(pioneering leadersip), X_3(management leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) X_4 (team leadership) X_2 (strategic leadership) are included. The results of ANOVA for the model used in the stepwise multiple linear regressions are presented in table 6.16.

Table 6.16: ANOVA of model for dependent variable Y_5 (accommodating)

	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	327.370	6	54.562	3.487	.003[a]
	Residual	3740.065	975	15.649		
	Total	4067.435	981			

Table 6.16 shows that the model obtained in table 6.15 is highly significant. This table also reflects that model, where the explanatory variables X_6 (encouraging leadership), X_1(pioneering leadersip), X_3(management leadership), X_5 (pastoral leadership) X_4 (team leadership) X_2 (strategic leadership) are included, is appropriate for explaining the dependent variable Y_1 (problem solving). Table 6.17 presents the results of significance of regression coefficients used in the model.

Table 6.17: Significance of regression coefficients of explanatory variables of successive models for dependent variable Y_5 (accommodating)

Model	Explanatory Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig
		β	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	9.352	2.568	3.642	.000
	Pioneering Leadership	-0.011	0.019	-0.554	.580
	Strategic Leadership	-0.116	0.088	-1.319	.189
	Management Leadership	0.194	0.073	2.658	.008
	Team Leadership	0.136	0.071	1.923	.056
	Pastoral Leadership	0.039	0.085	0.455	.649
	Encouraging Leadership	0.088	0.078	1.134	.258

Table 6.17 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_4^* (accommodating) = β_0 + β_1 X_1 (pioneering leadership) + β_2 X_2 (strategic leadership) + β_3 X_3 (management leadership) + β_4 X_4 (team leadership) + β_5 X_5 (pastoral leadership) + β_6 X_6 (encouraging leadership)

= 9.352 + -.011 X_1 (pioneering leadership) + -.116 X_2 (strategic leadership) + .194 X_3 (management leadership) + .136 X_4 (team leadership) + .039 X_5 (pastoral leadership) + .088 X_6 (encouraging leadership)

6.4 Findings

1. Pioneering style of leadership is positively correlated with problem solving, asserting and compromising styles of conflict management. It has no relationship with avoiding and accommodating style of conflict management.
2. 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.

3. 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.
4. 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
5. 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
6. 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.
7. Pioneering leadership, strategic leadership, management leadership, team leadership, pastoral leadership and encouraging leadership are significant predictors of problem solving style of conflict management.
8. Pioneering leadership, strategic leadership, management leadership, team leadership, pastoral leadership and encouraging leadership are significant predictors of asserting style of conflict management.
9. Pioneering leadership, strategic leadership, management leadership, team leadership, pastoral leadership and encouraging leadership are significant predictors of avoiding style of conflict management.
10.   Pioneering leadership, strategic leadership, management leadership, team leadership, pastoral leadership and encouraging leadership are significant predictors of compromising style of conflict management.
11.   Pioneering leadership, strategic leadership, management leadership, team leadership, pastoral leadership and encouraging leadership are significant predictors of accommodating style of conflict management.

CHAPTER 7

Conclusions

7.1 Introduction

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.

7.2 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 (Sehrawat and Sharma, 2014a). Furthermore, Self-awareness and social-awareness are significant predictors of strategic and 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 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's 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; (Rahim, 2001, 1985, 1986). 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 et. al. (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; Sehrawat and Sharma, 2014b). 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 (Sharma and Sehrawat, 2014). 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).

7.3 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). 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' who will help them to manage these conflicts properly and reduce its negative impact on their life and work.

7.4 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 point of time, 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-labeling 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, labeling 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 (George, 2000; 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 et. al. (2002) and Gil-Olarte et. al. (2006) urge educators to validate emotional literacy programmes. 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.

References

Abraham, R. (1999). Emotional intelligence in organizations: a conceptualization. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*, Vol. 125 No. 2, pp. 209-24.

Adler R.B. & Towne N. (1990). *Looking Out Looking In, Interpersonal Communication*. Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Forth Worth.

Allen, L. (2003). The relationship between the emotional intelligence competencies of principals in the Kanawha County School System in West Virginia and their teachers' perceptions of school climate. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia.

Amason, A. (1996). Distinguishing effects of functional and dysfunctional conflict on strategic decision making: Resolving a paradox for top management teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 123-148.

Arvey, R. D., Renz, G. L., & Watson, T. W. (1998). Emotionality and job performance: Implications for personnel selection. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, 16, 103-147.

Ashforth, B. & Humphrey, R. (1995). Emotion in the workplace: a reappraisal. *Human Relations*, 48, 97-125.

Ashforth, B.E. and Humphrey, R.H. (1995). Emotion in the work place: a reappraisal. *Human Relations*, Vol. 48, pp. 97-125.

Atwater, L. E. & Yammarino, F. J. (1997). Self-other rating agreement: A review and model. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 15, 121-174.

Avolio, B.J., Waldman, D.A., & Einstein, W. O. (1988). Transformational leadership in a management game simulation. *Group & Organization Studies*, 13(1), 59-80.

Bachman, J, Stein, S, Campbell, K, & Sitarenious,G, (2000), Emotional intelligence in the collection of debt. International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 8, 176

Bagshaw, M. (198). Conflict Management and Mediation: Key Leadership Skills for the Millennium. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 30(6): 206-208.

Barki, H. and Hartwick, J. (1994a). Measuring User Participation, User Involvement, and User Attitude. *MIS Quarterly*, 18 (1), 59-82.

Barki, H. and Hartwick, J. (1994b). User Participation, Conflict, and Conflict Resolution: The Mediating Roles of Influence. *Information Systems Research*, 5 (4), 422-438.

Barki, H. and Hartwick, J. (2001). Interpersonal conflict and its management in information system development. *MIS Quarterly*, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 195-228.

Barling, J. Slater, F. & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *The Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 21, 157-161.

Barling, J., Weber, T., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 827–832.

Bar-On, R. (1997). *Bar-On emotional quotient inventory: Technical manual.* Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.

Bar-On, R. (2000). Emotional and social intelligence: Insights from the Emotional Quotient Inventory. In R. Bar-On and J. Parker (Eds.), *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Development, Assessment, and Application at Home, School, and in the Workplace*. (p. 363-388). San Francisco, California: Jossey Bass Inc.

Bar-On, R., & Handley, R. (1999). *Optimizing people*. New Braunfels, TX: PRO-Philes Press.

Bar-On, R., Parker, J.D. (2000). *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Development, Assessment, and Application at Home, School and in the Workplace*, Jossey-Bass, San Franscisco,CA.

Bar-On, R., Parker, J.D. (2000). *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Development, Assessment, and Application at Home, School and in the Workplace*, Jossey-Bass, San Franscisco, CA.

Barrett, G. V., Miguel, R. F., Tan, J. A., & Hurd, J. M. (2001, April). Emotional intelligence: The Madison Avenue approach to science and professional practice. In R. C. Page (Chair), Emotional intelligence: Applications and issues for organizations. Symposium conducted at the 16th annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, San Diego, CA. .

Barrett, L.F., Lane, R.D., Sechrest, L., & Schwartz, G. E. (2000). Sex differences in emotional awareness. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26(9), 1027-1035.

Bass. B. M. (1960). *Leadership, psychology, and organizational behavior*. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18, 19-31.

Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industry, military and educational impact*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bass, B. M. & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bass, B. M. And Yammarino, F. J. (1989). *Transformational Leaders Know Themselves Better* (ONR tech. Rep. No. 1). Binghamton: State University of New York, Center for Leadership Studies.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership: A response to critiques. In M. M. Chemers & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions* (pp. 49–80). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Bennis, W. G. (1989). *Why Leaders can't lead*: The unconscious conspiracy continues. San Franscisco. Jossey-Bass.

Bird, C. (1940). *Social psychology*. New York: Appleton-Century.

Blake, R. R. and Mouton, J. S. (1964). *The Managerial Grid*, Houston, Gulf, TX.

Bocchino, R. (1999). Emotional literacy: To be a different kind of smart. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Borisoff, D. & Victor, D. (1998). *Conflict Management: A Communication Skills Approach*. NJ: Allyn & Bacon.

Boyatzis, R., Goleman, D., & Hay McBer. (1999). *Emotional competency inventory*. Boston: HayGroup.

Brackett, M.A. & Salovey, P. (2006). Measuring emotional intelligence with the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). Psicothema, 18 (Suppl. 1), 34-41.

Brackett, M.A., Mayer, J.D., & Warner, R.M. (2004). Emotional intelligence and its relationship to everyday behaviour. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36, 1387-1402.

Bretherton, I., Fritz, J., Zahn-Waxler, C., & Ridgeway, D. (1986). Learning to talk about emotion: A functionalist perspective. *Child Development*, 57, 529–548.

Brown, F.W., Bryant, S.E., & Reilly, M.D. (2006). Does emotional intelligence—as measured by the EQI—influence transformational leadership and/or desirable outcomes? Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 27, 330-351.

Brown, J. and Day, R. (1981). Measures of Manifest Conflict in Distribution Channels. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18, 263-274.

Brown, R. & Brooks, I. (2002). Emotion at work: identifying the emotional climate of night nursing. *Journal of Management in Medicine*, Vol. 16 No. 5, pp. 327-44.

Bryant J. (2003). *The Six Dilemmas of Collaboration*. John Wiley & Sons Ltd, Chichester.

Burke, R. J. (1970). Methods of resolving superior-subordinate conflict: The constructive use of subordinate differences and disagreements. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, Vol. 5, pp. 393-411.

Callahan, L. (1990). A comparison of principal leadership behaviors among effective and ineffective schools in the Diocese of Covington, Kentucky. (Doctoral dissertation, Fordham University, 1990). Dissertation Abstracts International, 52, 2763A.

Cantor, N. & Kihlstrom, J. F. (1987). *Personality and social intelligence*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Carson, K. D., & Carson P. P. (1998). Career commitment, competencies, and citizenship. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 6, 195-208.

Caruso, D. R., Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (2002). Emotional Intelligence and Emotional Leadership. In F. J. Pirozzolo (Ed.), *Multiple Intelligences and Leadership*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Publishers.

Cherniss, C. (1998). Social and emotional learning for leaders. *Educational Leadership*, 55, 26-28.

Cherniss, C. (2001). Emotional intelligence and organizational effectiveness. In C. Cherniss and D. Goleman (Eds), *The Emotionally Intelligent Workplace* (pp. 3-12). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Cho, Y. H., & Park, H. H. (1998). Conflict Management in Korea: The Wisdom of Dynamic Collectivism. In K. Leung & D. Tjosvold (Eds.), *Conflict Management in the Asia Pacific: Assumptions and Approaches in Diverse Cultures* (pp.15-48). Singapore: John Wiley & Sons.

Ciarrochi, J. V., Chan, A. Y., & Caputi, P. (2000). A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. *Personality and Individual*

Differences, 28, 539-561.

Conger, J. A. & Kanungo, R. N. (1998). *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cooper, R. K., & Sawaf, A. (1997). *Executive EQ: Emotional intelligence in leadership and organizations*. New York: Grosset/Putnam.

Covey, S. (1990). *The seven habits of highly effective people*. NY: Simon & Schuster.

Daniel, A. G. (1998). A high emotional IQ. Fortune 293.

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

Davis, M.H. (1983). Measuring individual differences in empathy: evidence for a multidimensional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 44, pp.113–126.

De Dreu C.K.W. (1997). Productive conflict: the importance of conflict management and conflict issue. In C.K.W. De Dreu & E. Van de Vliert (eds.), *Using Conflict in Organizations*, pp.9–22. Sage Publications, London.

De Dreu C.K.W. & Van de Vliert E. (1997). Using conflict in organizations. In C.K.W. De Dreu & E. Van de Vliert (eds.), *Using Conflict in organizations*, pp. 1–7. Sage Publications, London.

Declerck, C. H., & Bogaert, S. (2008). Social value orientation: Related to empathy and the ability to read the mind in the eyes. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 148, 711-726.

Deutsch, M. (1990). Sixty years of conflict. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 1 No. 3, pp.237-263.

Diggins, C. (2004). Emotional intelligence: the key to effective performance . . . and to staying ahead of the pack at times of organizational change. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, 12 (1), 33-35.

Donohue, K. S. & Wong L. (1994). Understanding and applying transformational leadership. *Military Review*, 74:24–31.

Downey, L. A., Papageorgiou, V., & Stough, C. (2006). Examining the relationship between leadership, emotional intelligence and intuition in senior female managers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 27, 250-264.

Downing, S. J. (1997). Learning the plot: emotional momentum in search of dramatic logic. *Management Learning*, Vol. 28 No. 1, pp.27–44.

Duckett, H. & MacFarlane, E. (2003). Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in retailing. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 24, 309-317.

Dulewicz, V. & Higgs, M. (2000). Emotional intelligence: A review and validation study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15, 341-372.

Eagly, A.H., Makhijani, M.G., & Klonsky, B.G. (1992). Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 111, 3-22.

Ekman, P. (1993). Facial expression and emotion. *American Psychologist*, 48(4), 384-392.

Ekman, P. & Friesen, W. V. (1975). *Unmasking the face: A guide to recognizing emotions from facial clues*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Ekvall G. (1996). Organizational climate for creativity and innovation. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5 (1), 105–123.

Etgar, M. (1979). Sources and Types of Intrachannel Conflicts. *Journal of Retailing*, 55 (1), 61-78.

Feist, G.J. & Barron, F. (1996). Emotional intelligence and academic intelligence in career and life success. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Society, San Francisco, CA.

Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York :Mcgraw-Hill.

Fiedler, F. E. (1978). The contingency model and the dynamics of the leadership process. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 12, 59-112.

Fiedler, F. E. & Chemers, M. M. (1974). *Leadership and Effective Management*, Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Co.

Fisher, R. J. (2000). Intergroup conflict. In M. Deutsch & P.T. Coleman (eds.)*The Handbook of Conflict Resolution*, pp. 166–185. Jossey-Bass Publishers, San-Francisco, CA.

Fleenor, J. W. & McCauley, C. D. (1996). Self-other rating agreement and leader effectiveness. Leadership Quarterly, 7, 487-507.

Fleishman, E., & Harris, E. (1962). Patterns of leadership behavior related to employee grievances and turnover. *Personnel Psychology*, 15, 43-56.

Franz, C.R., & Robey, D. (1984). An Investigation of User-led System Design: Rational and Political Perspectives. *Communication of the ACM*, 27 (12), 1202-1209.

Fuller, J. B., Patterson, C. E. P., Hester, K., & Stringer, D. Y. (1996). A quantitative review of research on charismatic leadership. *Psychological Reports*, 78, 271 – 287.

Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., & Gall, J. P. (1996). *Educational research* (6th ed.), New York: Longman.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Intelligence Reframed*. New York: Bantam Books.

Gardner, H., & Hatch, T. (1989). Multiple intelligences go to school. *Educational Researcher*, 18 (8), 4-10.

Gardner, L. and Stough, C. (2002). Examining the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence in senior level managers. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 23 (2), pp. 68-78.

George, J. M. (2000). Emotions and leadership: The role of emotional intelligence. *Human Relations,* 53, 1027-1055.

Gill, R. (2002). Towards an integrative theory of leadership. Paper presented to the European Institute for Advanced Studies in Management workshop on Leadership Research, Oxford, UK, December 16-17.

Glasser, J. (1981). Organizational Aspects of System Failure: A Case Study at the L.A. Police Department. *ICIS Proceedings*, 233-245.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence*, Bantam Books, New York.

Goleman, D. (1998a). Guidelines for best practice. *Training & Development*, 52, 28-29.

Goleman, D. (1998b). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review*, 1, 93.

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

Goleman, D. (1999). What makes a leader? Harvard Business Review, Vol. 76 (6), pp.93–102.

Goleman, D. (2001). *The Emotionally Intelligent Workplace*, Jossey-Bass.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership: Realizing the power of emotional intelligence*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Graen, G.B. & Wakabayashi, M. (1994). Cross-cultural leadership-making: Bridging American and Japanese diversity for team advantage. In H.C. Triandis and L.M. Hough (eds.) *Handbook of Industrial and*

91

Organizational Psychology, New York: Consulting Press, 4, pp 415-446.

Grandey, A. A. (2000). Emotional regulation in the workplace: A new way to conceptualize emotional labour. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 95-110.

Greenberg, J., Baron, R. A., Sales, C.A., & Owen, F. A. (2000). *Behavior in organizations* (Second Canadian Edition). Don Mills, ON: Pearson Education Canada Inc.

Greenhalgh, L. (1987). Interpersonal Conflicts in Organizations. In C.L. Cooper & I.T. Robertson (eds.), *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, John Wiley & Sons, , 229-271.

Greenleaf, R. (1977). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness*. New York: Paulist Press.

Gross, M. A. and Guerrero, L. K. (2000). Managing conflict appropriately and effectively: an application of the competence model to Rahim's organizational conflict styles. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 11 No. 3, pp.200–226.

Guilford, J. (1967). *The nature of intelligence*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

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*, 12, 998-1003.

Habib, G.M. (1987). Measures of Manifest Conflict in International Joint Ventures. *Academy of Management Journal*, 30 (4), 1987, 808-816.

Hartup, W. W., & Stevens, N. (1997). Friendships and adaptation in the life course. *Psychological Bulletin*, 121, 355–370.

Hater, J. J. & Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73, 695-702.

Hedlund, J. & Sternberg, R. J. (2000). Too many intelligences? Integrating social, emotional, and practical intelligence. In R. Bar-On and J. Parker (Eds), *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Development, Assessment, and Application at Home, School, and in the Workplace*. (p. 320-342). San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Higgs, M.J. (2002). Leadership: The long line: a view on how can we make sense of leadership in the 21st century. Henley Working paper 02/07, Henely Management College.

Hirscheim, R. & Newman, M. (1991). Symbolism and Information Systems Development: Myth, Metaphor and Magic. *Information Systems Research*, 2 (1), 29-62.

Hocker, J.L. & Wilmot, W.W. (1985). *Interpersonal Conflict*, (2nd ed.), W. C. Brown, Dubuque: IA.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*. London, UK:McGraw-Hill.

Hoffman, M. L. (1977). Sex differences in empathy and related behaviors. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84, 712–722.

Hojat, M., Mangione, S., Nasca, T. J., Cohen, M. J. M., Gonella, J. S., Erdmann, J. B., et al. (2001). The Jefferson scale of physician empathy: development and preliminary psychometric data. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 61, 349–365.

House, R. J. (1996). Path-goal theory of leadership: Lessons, legacy, and a reformulated theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), 323-352.

House, R.J. (1971). A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 16,* 321-339.

Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated-business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 891–902.

Howell, J. M., & Hall-Merenda, K. E. (1999). The ties that bind: The impact of leader–member exchange, transformational and transactional leadership, and distance on predicting follower performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 680–694.

Hoyle, J. & Oates, A. (1998). Principal's interpersonal sensitivity toward teachers, central office personnel, parents, business leaders, and community members. In R. Muth and M. Martin (Eds.), *Toward the year 2000: Leadership for quality schools*. The sixth Yearbook of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (pg. 148-154). The National Council of Professors of Educational Administration.

Hunt, T. (1928). The measurement of social intelligence. Journal of Applied Psychology, 12, 317-334.

Isen, A. M., Daubman, K. A., & Nowicki, G. P. (1987). Positive affect facilitates creative problem solving. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52, 1122-1131.

Jamieson, D. W. and Thomas, K. W. (1974) Power and conflict in the student-teacher relationship. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 10, 321-336.

Jehn, K. (1995). A multimethod examination of the benefits and detriments of intragroup conflict. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 40, 256-282.

Johns, G., & Saks, A.M. (2001). *Organizational behaviour: Understanding and managing life at work* (5th ed.). Toronto: Addison Wesley Longman.

Jones K. (1993). Confrontation: methods and skills. *Nursing Management* 24 (5), 68–70.

Jordan, P. J., Ashkansy, N. M., Hartel, C. E. & Hooper, G.S. (2001, April). Workgroup emotional intelligence: Scale development and relationship to team process effectiveness and goal focus. Paper presented at the 16th Annual Conference of the society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, San Diego, CA.

Jordan, P. J. and Troth, A. C. (2002). Emotional intelligence and conflict resolution: implications for human resource development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, Vol. 4 No. 1, pp.62–79.

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

Judge, T. A. & Bono, J. E. (2000). Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 751-765.

Kamdar, D., McAllister, D. J.and Turban, D. B. (2006). All in day's work: How follower individual differences and justice perceptions predict OCB role definitions and behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psycholog,* 91, 841-855.

Kanter, R. M. (1983). *The Change Master*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Kellett, J. B., Humphrey R. H., and Sleeth R. G. (2002). Empathy and Complex Task Performance: Two Routes to Leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(5) 523-544.

Kelly, K. & Moon (1998). Personal and social talents. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 79 (10), 743-746.

Kelly, R. & Caplan, J. (1993 July-August). How Bell Labs creates star performers. *Harvard Business Review*, 100-103.

Kerr, R., Garvin, J., Heaton, N., & Boyle, E. (2006). Emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 27, 265-279.

Kestenbaum, R., Farber, E. A., & Sroufe, L. A. (1989). Individual differences in empathy among preschoolers: Relation to attachment history. *New Directions for Child Development*, Vol. 44, pp. 51 - 65.

Killman, R. H. and Thomas, K. W. (1977). Developing a forced choice measure of conflict handling behavior: The MODE instrument. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 37, 309-335.

King, D. H. (1999). Measurement of differences in emotional intelligence of preservice educational leadership students and practicing administrators as measured by the multifactor emotional intelligence scale. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, East Carolina University, Jacksonville.

Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1996). Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership componentson performance and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 36–51.

Knapp M.L., Putnan L.L. & Davis L.J. (1988). Measuring interpersonal conflict in organizations: where do we go from here? *Management Communication Quarterly,* 1, 414–429.

Kobe, L. M., Reiter-Palmon, R., & Rickers, J. D. (2001). Self-reported leadership experiences in relation to inventoried social and emotional intelligence. *Current Psychology: Developmental, Learning, Personality, Social*, 20, 154-163.

Kolb, J. A. (1998). The relationship between self-monitoring and leadership in student project groups. *Journal of Business Communication*, 35, 264-282.

Koonce, R. (1996). Emotional intelligence, a new secret of success? *Training and Development Journal*, 50 (2), 19-20.

Kouzes, J. & Posner, B. (1987). *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lawrence, P. R. & Lorsch, J. W. (1967). Differentiation and integration in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 12, 1-47.

Leban, W., & Zulauf, C. (2004). Linking emotional intelligence abilities and transformational leadership styles. *The Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25, 554-564.

Levinson, H. (1992). *Feedback to subordinates. Addendum to the Levinson letter*. Waltham, MA: Levinson Institute.

Lewis, M. (2000). Exploring paradox: Toward a more comprehensive guide. *Academy of Management Review,* 25, 760–776.

Livingstone, H. A. & Day. A. L. (2002). Examining the construct and criterion-

related validity of emotional intelligence measures. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 65 (5), 857-873.

Lopes, P.N., Brackett, M. A. , Nezlek, J.B., Schutz, A., Sellin,I. & Salovey, P. (2004). Emotional intelligence and social interaction. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 30, 1018-1034.

Lopes, P.N., Salovey, P., & Straus, R. (2003). Emotional intelligence, personality, and the perceived quality of social relations. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35, 641-658.

Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., & Freiberg, S. J. (1999). Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in the leader–follower relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 78, 167–203.

Lord, R. G., De Vader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relationship between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performances*, 23, 181-200.

Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), 385-415.

Mandell, B., & Pherwani, S. (2003). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style: A gender comparison. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 17, 387-402.

Mandler, G. (1984). *Mind and body: Psychology of emotions and stress*. New York: Norton.

Marlowe Jr., H. A. (1986). Social intelligence: Evidence for multidimensionality and construct independence. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78, 52-58.

Marshall-Meis, J. C., Fleishman, E. A., Martin, J. A., Zaccaro, S. J., Baughman, W. A., & McGee, M. L. (2000). Development and evaluation of cognitive and metacognitive measures for predicting leadership potential. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 135-153.

Martin K., Wimberley D. & O'Keefe K. (1994). Resolving conflict in a multicultural nursing department. *Nursing Management*, 25 (1), 49–51.

Martinez, M. (1997). The smarts that count. HR Magazine, 42 (11), 72-80.

May, J. & Andrade, J. (2003). *Instant Notes in Cognitive Psychology*. BIOS:Oxford, UK.

Mayer, J. D. & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In Salovey,

P. and Sluyter, D. (Eds), *Emotional Development, Emotional Literacy, and Emotional Intelligence*, Basic Books, New York, NY.

Mayer, J. D. & Geher, G. (1996). Emotional intelligence and the identification of emotion. *Intelligence*, 22, 89-113.

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

Mayer, J. D. & Salovey, P. (1995). Emotional intelligence and the construction and regulation of feelings. *Applied and Preventive Psychology*, 4, 197-208.

Mayer, J.D., & Salovey, P. (1997a). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27 (4), 267-298.

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997b). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & J. D. Mayer (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence* (pp. 3–31). New York: Basic Books.

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

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. R. (2000). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27, 267-298.

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

Mayer, J. D., & Geher, G. (1996). Emotional intelligence and the identification of emotion. *Intelligence*, 22 (2), 89-113.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000a). Emotional intelligence as zeitgeist, as personality, and as a mental ability. In R. Bar-On and J. Parker (Eds), *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Development, Assessment, and Application at Home, School, and in the Workplace*. (pp. 92-117). San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000b). *Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test: Research Version* 1.1 Manual 3rd Edition. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.

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

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000d). Selecting a measure of emotional intelligence: The case for ability scales. In R. Bar-On and J. Parker (Eds), *The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Development, Assessment, and Application at Home, School, and in the Workplace*. (pp. 320-342). San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Mayer, J.D., Goleman, D., Barrett, C. & Gutstein, S. (2004). Leading by feel. Harvard Business Review, 82 (1), p. 27.

Mayer, J.D., Roberts, R.D. and Barsade, S.G. (2008). Human abilities: Emotional intelligence. *Annual Review of Psychology,* 59, 507-536.

Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P. and Caruso, D.R. (1997). *The emotional IQ test*, Virtual Knowledge, Needham, MA.

Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P. and Caruso, D.R. (2000). Competing models of emotional intelligence. In R. Sternberg (Ed.) *Handbook of Intelligence*, Cambridge, New York, pp.396–420.

McDowelle, J. & Bell, E. (1998). Emotional intelligence and educational leadership. In R. Muth & M. Martin (Eds.) *Toward the year 2000: Leadership for quality schools - The sixth year book of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration* (pp. 190-196), The National Council of Professors of Educational Administration. Lancaster, PA: Technomic.

McGarvey, R. (1997). Final score: get more from employees by upping your EQ. *Entrepreneur,* 25 (7), 78-81.

McGarvey, R. (1997, July). Final score. Entrepreneur, 25, 78-80.

Megerian, L. E. & Sosik, J. J. (1996). An affair of the heart: Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3, 31-48.

Morris, J. A. & Feldman, D. C. (1996). The dimensions, antecedents, and consequences of emotional labor. *Academy of Management Review*, 21, 986-1010.

Mumford, M. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Harding, F. D., Jacobs, T. O., & Fleishman, E. A. (2000). Leadership skills for a changing world: Solving complex social problems. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 11−35.

Nadler D.A. & Tushman M.L. (1999). The organization of the future: strategic imperative and core competencies for the 21st century. *Organizational Dynamics* 28 (1), 16–45.

Neely-Martinez, M. (1997). The smart that count. H R Magazine, November, 71-80.

Neisser, U. (1976). *Cognition and reality*. San Francisco: Freeman.

Nelton, S. (1996). Emotions in the workplace. *Nations Business*, 84 (2), 25-26, 28, 30.

Newman, M. and Sabherwal, R. (1989). A Process Model for the Control of Information System Development Projects. *ICIS Proceedings*, 185-197.

Newsome, S., Day, A. L., & Catano, V. M. (2000). Assessing the predictive validity of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29, 1005–1016.

Ng, T. W. H., Sorensen, K. L., Eby, L. T., & Feldman, D. C. (2007). Determinants of job mobility: A theoretical integration and extension. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80, 363-386.

Northouse, P. G. (1997). *Leadership Theory and Practice*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

O'Hearn Woodlti A. (1987). Deans of nursing: perceived sources of conflict and conflict-handling modes. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 26 (7), 272–277.

Palmer, B., Walls, M., Burgess, Z., & Stough, C. (2001). Emotional Intelligence and Effective Leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 22(1), 5-10.

Papa, M.J. and Canary, D.J. (1995). Conflict in organizations: a competence-based approach. In A.M. Nicotera (Ed.), *Conflict and Organizations: Communicative Processes*, State University of New York Press, Albany, NY, pp.153–179.

Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2000). On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29, 313–320.

Pinkley, R. 1990. Dimensions of the conflict frame: Disputant interpretations of conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 117-128.

Pondy, L.R. (1967). Organizational conflict: concepts and models. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 12(2), 296-320

Popper, M., Landau, O., & Gluskinso, U. M. (1992). The Israeli Defence Forces: An example of transformational leadership. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 13 (1), 3-8.

Pruitt, D. G. & Rubin, J. Z. (1986). *Social Conflict: Escalation, Stalemate, and Settlement*. Random House, New York.

Putnam, L. L. & Poole, M. S. (1987). Conflict and Negotiation. In Jablin, F. M., Roberts, K. H., & Porter, L. W. (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Communication*, (549-599). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Putnam, L. L. & Wilson, C. (1982). Communicative strategies in organizational conflict: Reliability and validity of a measurement scale. In M. Burgoon (Ed.) Communication Yearbook 6, Sage, Newbury Park, pp. 629-652.

Rahim, M. A., Buntzman, G. F., & White, D. (1999). An empirical study of the stages of moral development and conflict management styles. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 10 (2), 154-171.

Rahim, M.A. (1983). A measure of the styles of handling interpersonal conflict. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26 (2), 368–376.

Rahim, M.A. (1985). A strategy for managing conflict in complex organizations. *Human Relations*, 38, 81–89.

Rahim, M.A. (1986). *Managing Conflict in Organizations*, Praeger, New York.

Rahim, M.A. (2001). *Managing Conflict in Organizations*, 3rd edition, Quorum Books, Westport, CT.

Rahim, M.A. and Magner, N.R. (1995). Confirmatory factor analysis of the styles of handling interpersonal conflict: first-order factor model and its invariance across groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80 (1), 122–132.

Rahim, M.A., Magner, N.R. and Shapiro, D.L. (2000). Do justice perceptions influence styles of handling conflict with supervisors? What justice perceptions, precisely? *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 11 (1), 9–31.

Rajendran, D., Downey, L. A., & Stough, C. (2007). Assessing emotional intelligence in the workplace: A preliminary reliability study. *E-Journal of Applied Psychology*, 3, 55-60.

Robey, D.L., Farrow, D. and Franz, C.R. (1989). Group Process and Conflict in System Development. *Management Science*, 35 (10), 1172-119.

Rogers, C. R., (1951). *Client-centered therapy: Its current practice, implications and theory*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Rosete, D. & Ciarrochi, J. (2005). Emotional intelligence and its relationship to workplace performance outcomes of leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 26 (5), 388-99.

Rost, J. (1991). *Leadership for the 21st century*. Hartford, CT: Praeger.

Roush, P. E. & Atwater, L. E. (1992). Using the MBTI to understand transformational leadership and self-perception accuracy. *Military*

Psychology, 4, 17-34.

Saarni, C. (1999). *The Development of Emotional Competence*, Guilford Press, New York.

Salopek, J. (1998). Train your brain. *Training and Development*, 52, 26-33.

Salovey, P. & Mayer, J. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*, 9, 185-211.

Salovey, P., Bedell, B., Detweiler, J.B. & Mayer, J.D. (1999). Coping intelligently: emotional intelligence and the coping process. iN Snyder, C.R. (Ed.), *Coping: The psychology of what works*, Oxford University Press, New York, NY, pp. 141-64.

Sandy S.V., Boardman S.K. & Duetsch M. (2000). Personality and conflict. In M. Deutsch & P.T. Coleman (eds.) *The Handbook of Conflict Resolution. Theory and Practice*, pp. 289–315. Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, CA.

Scarr, S. (1989). Protecting general intelligence: Constructs and consequences for interventions. In R. L. Linn (Ed.) *Intelligence: Measurement, theory, and public policy*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Schroder, H.M. (1989). *Managerial Competencies: The Key to Excellence*, Kendall Hunt, Dubuque, IA.

Sehrawat, A. & Sharma, T. (2014a). Emotional Intelligence and Leadership in Indian Context. *International Journal of Research in Organizational Behavior and Human Resource Management*, Vol. 2 (2), 89-95.

Sehrawat, A. & Sharma, T. (2014b). Leadership and Conflict Management Style among Indian Managers. *International Journal of Scientific & Engineering Research*, Vol. 5 (5), 145-152.

Shamir, B., Zakay, E. B. E. and Popper, M. (1998). Correlates of charismatic leader behavior in military units: Subordinates' attitudes, unit characteristics, and superiors' appraisals of leader performance. *Academy of management journal* 41 (4), 387-409.

Shamir, B., House, R. & Arthur, M. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organizational Science*, 4, 1-17.

Sharma, T. & Sehrawat, A. (2014). Emotional intelligence and conflict management: An empirical study in Indian context. *International Journal of Engineering, Business and Enterprise Applications*, Vol.1 (7), 104-108.

Shaubroeck, J. & Jones, J. R. (2000). Antecedents of workplace emotional

labor dimensions and moderators of their effects on physical symptoms. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 163-183.

Singer, T., & Fehr, E. (2005). The neuroeconomics of mind reading and empathy. *American Economic Review*, 95(2), 340–345.

Singh, S. K. (2007). Emotional intelligence and organizational leadership: A gender based study in Indian context. *Int. J. Indian Culture and Business Management*, 1 (1/2), 48-63.

Sivanathan, N., & Fekken, G. C. (2002). Emotional Intelligence, Moral Reasoning and Transformational Leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23 (4), 198-204.

Slaski, M. & Cartwright, S. (2002). Health, performance and emotional intelligence: an exploratory study of retail managers. Stress and Health, 18 (2), 63-68.

Smith, H.A. & McKeen, J.D. (1992) "Computerization and Management: A Study of Conflict and Management: A Study of Conflict and Change*. Information & Management*, 22, 53-64.

Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behaviour. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 30, 526-535.

Sommer, R.A. (2003), "Small and medium sized enterprises: no longer just coping with the supply chain", *International Journal of Management and Enterprise Development*, 1 (1), 4–10.

Sosik, J. J. & Dworakivsky, A. C. (1998). Self-concept based aspects of the charismatic leader: More than meets the eye. *Leadership Quarterly*, 9, 503-526.

Sosik, J. J. & Megerian, L. E. (1999). Understanding leader emotional intelligence and performance. *Group & Organization Management*, 24, 367-390.

Sosik, J. J., Potosky, D. & Hjung, D.I. (2002). Adaptive self-regulation: meeting other's expectations of leadership and performance. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 142, 211-232.

Spangenberg, H. H., Schroder, H. M. & Duvenage, A. (1999). A leadership competence utilization questionnaire for South African managers. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 29 (3), 117-129.

Spitzberg, B.H., Canary, D.J. and Cupach, W.R. (1994). A competence-based approach to the study of interpersonal conflict. In D. Cahn (Ed.) *Conflict in Personal Relationships*, Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, pp.183–202.

Sternberg, R. J. & Smith, C. (1985). Social intelligence and decoding skills in

nonverbal communication. *Social Cognition*, 3, 168-192.

Sternberg, R. J. (1985). *Beyond IQ*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Sternberg, R. J. (1996). *Successful intelligence*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Stuller, J. (1998). Unconventional Smarts. *Across the Board*, 35, 22-23.

Suliman, A. (2003). Intra-individual conflict and organisational commitment in Sudanese industrial firms. *Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 12, 320-40.

Thomas K.W. & Kilmann R.H. (1974). *Thomas-Kilmann Mode Instrument*. Xicom, Sterling Forest, NY.

Thomas, K. W. (1976). Conflict and conflict management. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Consulting Psychologists Press, Palo Alto, CA, pp. 651-717.

Thomas, K. W. (1992a). Conflict and conflict management: Reflections and update. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, Vol. 13, pp. 265-274.

Thomas, K. W. (1992b). Conflict and negotiation processes in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* 2nd ed., Consulting Psychologists Press, Palo Alto, CA, pp. 889-935.

Thomas, K. W., & Schmidt, W. H. (1976). A survey of managerial interests with respect to conflict. *Academy of Management Journal*, 19, 315-318.

Thorndike, E. (1920). Intelligence and its uses. Harper's Magazine, 140, 227-235.

Ting-Toomey, S. (1985). Toward a theory of conflict and culture. In W.B. Gudykunst, L.P. Stewart & S. Ting-Toomey (Eds.), *Communication Culture and Organization Processes*, 71-85. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Tischler, L., Biberman, J. & McKeage, R. (2002). Linking emotional intelligence, spirituality and workplace performance: definitions, models and ideas for research. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 17 (3), pp. 203-18.

Trubisky, P., Ting-Toomey, S., & Lin, S. L. (1991). The influence of individualism collectivism and selfmonitoring on conflict styles. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 15, 65–84.

Van de Vliert E. (1998) Conflict and conflict management. In P.J.D. Drenth, H. Thierry & C.J. de Wolff (eds), *Handbook of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 2nd edn pp. 351–376. Psychology Press, London.

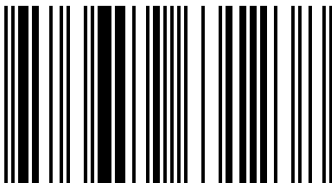Van Rooy, D., Alonso, A., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). Group differences in

emotional intelligence scores: theoretical and practical implications. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 38, 689–700.

Van Rooy, D. L. & Viswesvaran, C. (2004). Emotional intelligence: A meta-analytic investigation of predicitive validity and nomological net. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 66, 71-95.

Vrba, M. (2007). Emotional intelligence skills and leadership behavior in a sample of South African first-line managers. Management Dynamics, 16, 25-35.

Walker, R. E., Jeanne M. &foley, J. M. (1973) Social intelligence: its history and measurement. *Psychological Reports*, 33, 839-864.

Wall, J. A. Jr. & Callister, R. R. (1995). Conflict and its management. *Journal of Management*, 21 (3), 515-558.

Weider-Hatfield, D. & Hatfield, J.D. (1995). Relationship s among conflict management styles, levels of conflict, and reactions to work. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 135 (6), 687–698.

Weinberger, L. A. (2002). Emotional intelligence: its connection to HRD theory and practice. *Human Resource Development Review*, 1, 215-243.

Wentzel, K. (1991). Relationship between social competence and academic achievement in early adolescence. *Child Development*, 62, 1066-1078.

Williams, W. M., & Sternberg, R. J. (1988). Group intelligence: Why some groups are better than others. *Intelligence*, 12, 351-377.

Wolff, S. B., Pescosolido, A. T., & Druskat, V. U. (2002). Emotional Intelligence as the Basis of Leadership Emergence in Self-Managing Teams. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 505-522.

Wong, C. & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leaders and followers emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: an exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 243-274.

Wright, P. & Taylor, D. (1994). *Improving leadership performance: Interpersonal skills for effective leadership* (2nd ed.). London: Prentice Hall.

Yu, C. S., Sardessai, R. M., Lu, J. and Zhao, J. H. (2006). Relationship of emotional intelligence with conflict management styles: an empirical study in china. *Int. J. Management and Enterprise Development*, 3 (1/2), 19-29.

Zaccaro, S. J., Foti, R.J. & Kenny, D.A. (1991). Self-monitoring and trait-based variance in leadership: an investigation of leader flexibility

across multiple group situations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 308-315.

Zaccaro, S. J., Mumford, M. D., Connelly, M. S., Marks, M. A. & Gilbert, J. A. (2000). Assessment of leader problem-solving capabilities. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 37-64.

Emotional intelligence is a topic of interest for both academia and industry. Claims have been made about the role and importance of emotional intelligence in personal and professional life. Most of the empirical evidences provided for these claims about emotional intelligence belong to the developed world. This study is an effort to provide an Indian perspective on the role of emotional intelligence in effective leadership and conflict resolution.

Dr Tanu Sharma has been teaching courses on Organizational Behaviour and Human Resource Management for over ten years.She has authored two books and many research articles. Dr Anil Sehrawat has been teaching courses on Communication and Organizational Behaviour for more than ten years. He has authored Four books and various research articles.