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Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace: A Review and Synthesis

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Summary

In this chapter, emotional intelligence (EI) is viewed as a predictor of success in the workplace through its significant association with transformational leadership, ability to foster workgroup cohesiveness, facilitate accurate feedback during performance review, strengthen commitment to the organization, assist in matching employers and employees, permit feelings of control over work, and enhance self-esteem. Conceptual arguments supplemented by empirical validation are offered to link EI and the above attributes for success in the workplace. Research in the area of personnel selection appears promising, with the ability of emotionally based tools to identify employees who are capable of succeeding in a particular organization.

12.1 INTRODUCTION

After almost a century of neglect, the value of emotions is beginning to take its rightful place alongside normative rational models of organizational behavior. Early references to emotions, which link job dissatisfaction to emotional maladjustment (Fisher & Hanna, 1931), emotional lives with work behavior

(Hersey, 1932), and the Hawthorne studies' conclusion that workplace inter-action (presumably derived from emotional feeling) determined worker ad-justment (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939) were not subjected to rigorous em-pirical investigation. This appears due to the reorienting of affect at work in terms of job satisfaction and the failure to conceptually ground emotions in relation to other predictors of workplace adjustment (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

Emotions are a core element of organizational life with moments of sorrow, joy, passion, and ennui supporting enduring feelings of satisfaction or com-mitment (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Specifically, Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) conceptualize emotions as driving motivation, leadership, and group commitment. The greater the immersion of the self in work, the greater is the motivation. Involvement with work exists at three levels. At the lowest, in-volvement is solely physical sans emotional or cognitive involvement, the next rationalist level is purely cognitive, and the highest is emotional, "typified by the individual who forgets to have dinner and works late into the night, lost in the thrill of her work" (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995, p. 110). This state of flow, entered into by high achievers 40% of the time versus 16% for low achiev-ers (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), transcends compensation, title, rank, and per-ceived power and prestige as it catapults the employee to an emotional peak experience. In this vein, pro-social behaviors including volunteering to assist new employees, being a spokesperson for the organization, and suggesting improvements are manifestations of affective commitment in which trust and altruism overshadow purely contractual relationships based on reward, com-pensation, and promotion. Enactment theories of leadership posit the creation of a system of shared meanings, which provide a framework for behavior (see Daft & Weick, 1984, for a review). Effective leaders use symbols to invoke feel-ings of passion in subordinates whereby the sight of a corporate logo or figure-head provokes strong emotional arousal to be expanded into frameworks that embody the organization's history, values, and culture. Emotional contagion, whereby the emotions of a few group members are transmitted throughout the work group, is a formalized designation of team spirit that has been docu-mented in a variety of organizational settings (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1992; Zurcher, 1982).

From the generalized emotional underpinnings of organizational life, this chapter moves to address the skillful processing of affective information by emotionally intelligent individuals. Salovey and Mayer (1990) provide a com-prehensive framework for defining emotional intelligence (EI). First, EI is the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion both in the self and in others. Emotional self-appraisal includes the ability to identify and categorize one's own feelings through words or facial expression. In relation to others, em-pathy forms the cornerstone of emotional appraisal through gauging of feel-ings in others, reexperiencing those feelings, and choosing socially adaptive responses. Second, EI includes the adaptive regulation of emotion. In the self, regulation is the product of a regulatory system that monitors, evaluates, and, if necessary, changes moods (Mayer & Gaschke, 1988). People engage in mood self-maintenance in which they try to maintain positive moods and suppress

negative moods (Tesser, 1986). The most important dimension of emotional regulation involves regulating emotions in others. Leaders who can arouse desired emotions in others have been termed charismatic (Wasielewski, 1985).

Finally, EI is the ability to use emotions to solve problems. Mood swings may assist people in breaking away from routine and perceiving a wider range of alternative solutions to problems. A positive mood may aid memory organization and problem solving. In Duncker's candlestick experiment, Isen, Daubman, and Nowicki (1987) observed that happier participants had more creative solutions. Heightened self-awareness of emotions helps people to redirect their attention to issues of higher priority. Moods may also motivate persistence in the face of challenge. For some individuals, positive moods inspire confidence in one's ability to succeed at challenging tasks. For others, concern over a negative outcome may spur extra effort and motivate performance.

12.2 PERSONNEL SELECTION

One of the few areas in which EI has been investigated empirically is in the area of personnel selection. Probably the earliest empirical study in this area is that of Aylward's (1985) administration of 10 psychological batteries to applicants to a police department. Given that only 7% of the variance in successful hiring decisions could be attributed to IQ, the relative superiority of emotional, behavioral, and attitudinal predictors, in determining an applicant's psychological adaptability to the rigors of police work, was made apparent. As the gateway to personnel selection is the job interview, Fox and Spector (2000) identified the EI component of positive affect or the ability by an emotionally intelligent interviewee to induce positive feelings in the interviewer as increasing the likelihood of being hired (positive affect being a significant predictor of the interview outcome of decision to hire). Positive affect was also found to enhance the interviewer's perception of candidate qualifications. Highly significant beta coefficient in the regression of qualification of candidate on a series of predictors included general intelligence, practical intelligence, negative and positive affectivity, repair of mood, perspective taking, and personal distress. This predictive ability was strengthened by the positive association of positive affect with yet another predictor, practical intelligence, or the use of judgment by interviewees in creating a positive impression during the interview process. An indirect relationship between EI and hiring decisions was found in the link between positive affect and similarity (interviewers are likely to bond more closely with interviewees whom they perceive as having greater similarity with themselves and those for whom they have genuine liking). Likewise, positive affect and another EI dimension, empathy, jointly influenced liking (interviewers appear more favorably disposed towards those whom they like). Perceptions of greater similarity and liking, in turn, positively influenced the perceptions of superiority of candidate qualifications and the decision to hire.

In a job simulation task, in which participants were asked to complete three activities, Graves (1999) validated Fox and Spector's (2000) prediction of job success (based on interview performance) with their finding that EI predicted 6–10% of the variance in three separate performance composites including energy, forcefulness, initiative, organization and planning, decisiveness, judgment, social sensitivity, leadership, oral communication, and teamwork. When combined with cognitive ability, the two predictors accounted for a significant 10–17% of the variance in the performance composites underscoring the enhanced accuracy of selection by the inclusion of EI.

Other studies (see Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004, for a review) have consistently reported correlations between EI and performance. In an effort to promote coherence among multiple empirical investigations, Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) performed meta-analysis on 69 independent studies finding that the correlation of EI and actual job performance ($\rho = .24$) is higher than that of other selection methods such as letters of reference. As their sample employed participants from different countries and occupations, these results are robust across both populations and job classifications. In concurrence with the Graves (1999) results, it was found that EI was strongly correlated with general mental ability ($r = .33$), and each of these predictors incrementally predicted performance over the other; suggesting their combined, rather than separate, importance as predictors of performance.

12.3   LEADERSHIP

George (2000) theorized that EI facilitates dimensions of leadership, including 1) the development of a unified sense of goals and objectives, 2) inculcating the value of work in subordinates, 3) creating a climate of excitement, enthusiasm, cooperation, optimism, and trust, 4) fostering adaptability to change, and 5) creating and sustaining an identity for the organization (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Locke, 1991). Leaders with positive moods have been found to be more creative in formulating a transcendent goal for the firm (Isen et al., 1987). Furthermore, positive mood results in flexible decision making that incorporates a broad expanse of options (Isen & Baron, 1991); it follows that developing an overarching goal for the firm will be facilitated by leaders in positive moods. Knowledge of followers' emotions permits the collectivization of vision in that such leaders influence them into accepting and supporting the vision and use emotional contagion (positive feeling about the shared vision) to communicate that commitment throughout the organization. Such leaders capitalize on meta-mood knowledge that positive affirmation of employee performance as improvements over prior conditions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), regardless of whether the change is incremental or substantial, spurs employees to strive for progressively higher levels of achievement. EI promotes the prioritization of demands. Leaders, who realize emotions aroused by low priority demands, can effectively channel that energy to those of significant import. Positive moods promote flexibility in decision making. Leaders who employ

meta-mood regulation become aware of negative moods causing overly pessimistic prognostications, which are then neutralized to open up a vein of hitherto unforeseen opportunity. Such flexibility in decision making, induced by EI, assists in establishing connections between divergent pieces of information thereby not only opening up new avenues of opportunity but permitting the simultaneous response to multiple demands. The identity of an organization is based upon its values, the embodiment of "symbols, language, narrative, and practices" (George, 2000, p. 1046). Values, fostered through the skillful management of symbols (e.g., parties, anniversaries, company songs, and stories) are emotion-driven; emotionally intelligent leaders are aware of the emotional basis of values as they use symbolic management to build loyalty and commitment.

Empirical validation for the above theory may be derived from a selected group of studies. Atwater and Yammarino (1992) found that self-awareness moderated transformational leadership and performance in military settings. Transformational leaders, with developed self-monitoring skills, are superior performers; however, their research was conducted in a military setting which may not be generalizable to the corporate environment. Accordingly, Sosik and Megerian (1999) extended their analysis to managers and subordinates of a business unit observing that for self-aware leaders, subordinate ratings of transformational leadership were directly related to purpose-in-life, personal efficacy, interpersonal control, and social self-confidence. This outcome suggests that self-awareness capability gives leaders control over incidents involving interpersonal relations. The instilling of self-confidence and feelings of self-efficacy among followers are valuable by-products of such self-awareness capability. Leaders whose self-ratings matched their ratings by subordinates were found to be superior performers in terms of their evaluations by superiors and subordinates. Self-monitoring was the foundation upon which interpersonal skills were built, so that self-aware leaders were more adept at managing emotions among superiors, leading to ratings of managerial effectiveness and subordinates who valued them for extra effort and satisfaction. The importance of self-awareness has been underscored by other studies of leadership success. In a survey of senior executives, Collins (2002) found that trait EI influenced the prediction of success through self-ratings. Emotionally intelligent nursing leaders, whose leadership skills are honed in the demanding environment of coordinating the delivery of health care by providers, demonstrated heightened emotional self-awareness in contrast to their low-scoring counterparts (Vitello-Cicciu, 2002).

Two other qualities of EI that have predicted leadership success include managing emotions in others and propensity for innovation and risk-taking. In the aforementioned nursing leadership study, leadership practices dubbed Modeling the Way and Encouraging the Heart were significantly associated with enhanced EI. Modeling the Way incorporates the creation of positive mood to permit the collectivization of vision to which the George (2000) theory alluded, while Encouraging the Heart is emotional regulation in others, or the management of emotional response in others. Campbell (2001) theorized that

global competition, export of jobs overseas, and weak economy have mandated the need for constant innovation and responsible risk-taking. EI was significantly associated with both innovation and responsible risk taking behavior, with all facets of EI attributed to these outcomes.

12.4 WORKGROUP COHESION

Emotional intelligence leads to the harmonious sharing of competencies within groups whose performance surpasses those sharing only cognitive skills (Goleman, 1995). In experiments involving the comparison of groups involved in generating advertisements, it has been found that harmonious groups were able to benefit from the creativity of every group member in contrast with groups whose dominance by a single member fueled resentment and hostility (Williams & Sternberg, 1988). Peak performing groups have members who foster the development of consensus, using empathy, cooperation, and social competence skills (Kelley & Caplan, 1993). This study's investigation of group dynamics within the Bell Labs concluded that the social skills component of EI was vital in the creation and sustenance of informal networks. As knowledge for task completion was rarely within the domain of a single individual, superior performance could only be achieved through the formation of informal networks based on communication and trust (wherein members could freely express their opinions as they toiled together on tasks whose successful completion required the melding of diverse tasks of a highly specialized nature). Empirically, ingroup dynamics may be modeled by Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley, and Hollander's (2002) finding that EI was significantly associated with inter-personal skills. Specifically, only empathic perspective demonstrated significance among others including empathic fantasy, concern, and personal distress. They believed that these other forms of empathy were less emotionally adaptive; I would prefer to characterize empathic perspective as an understanding of the emotions of others that leads to the social skills needed to foster group harmony. Emotionally intelligent group members desire more cooperation, participation, and inclusion than others, the provision of which leads to the aforementioned highly effective networks.

Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Härtel (2003) tested the relationship between EI and two aspects of team performance, namely team process effectiveness and team goal focus. The ability to deal with others' emotions was found to contribute significantly to Acquisitive Self Monitoring, or by regulating and influencing emotional reactions in others, role senders were able to strengthen their own skills of self-awareness. Significant correlations of EI dimensions of Ability to Deal with Own Emotions, Ability to Deal with Others' Emotions, and Emotional Self-Control with intuitive, creative group process with no correlation with rational, logical process suggests that EI is related to creative group decision making with variance beyond that explained by mere rational cognitive processing capability. Partial support for the revised Salovey and Mayer model

was obtained with Empathetic Control being weakly correlated with team performance as it is a predictor rather than a component of managing emotions.

Workgroup cohesion may depend on the ability of team members and team leaders to engage in successful conflict resolution. Organizations in which constructive conflict is the norm, whereby all parties express their opinions freely and then collaborate to achieve conflict resolution, are more capable of responding to change. EI was found to enhance the possibility of usage of constructive conflict with significant correlations between Collaboration and Awareness of Own Emotions, Discussion of Own Emotions, Control of Own Emotions, Recognition of Others' Emotions, and Management of Others' Emotions (Jordan & Troth, 2002). This preliminary result was explored further (using hierarchical regression) to determine which subscale of EI was related to collaboration. Ability to Deal with Own Emotions and Ability to Deal with Others' Emotions emerged as jointly contributing to a significant increase in variance in the criterion. Further analysis showed that Ability to Deal with Own Emotions, Discussion of Own Emotions, and Control of Own Emotions significantly predicted collaborative conflict resolution. It may be concluded that two facets of collaborative conflict resolution, the abilities to be assertive and cooperative, are directly related to the ability to discuss and control one's own emotions.

12.5   PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK

As empirical work in this area is nonexistent, we will summarize (Abraham, 1999) arguments theorizing that EI may moderate the relationship between self and supervisor ratings. Emotionally intelligent supervisors are more likely to provide ratings that correspond closely with self-ratings of subordinates. Optimism is a component of EI. Optimism rests on the premise that failure is not inherent in the individual; it may be attributed to circumstances that may be changed with a refocusing of effort. Emotionally intelligent criticism during annual performance reviews focuses on specific incidents that reveal deficiencies in performance and offers concrete solutions for rectifying them. The emotionally intelligent delivery of criticism provides valuable information to employees to take corrective action before problems escalate. Consequently, an empathic employee will be able to review weaknesses in his or her performance from the organization's perspective, perceiving them as detrimental to organizational success. Such an individual will be more receptive to suggestions for improvement and more willing to accept responsibility for failure and will perceive criticism as the opportunity to work with superiors and coworkers constructively to improve performance. EI on the part of both the superior and the subordinate will result in deeper understanding of each other, thereby increasing the correspondence between their performance appraisals. Not only does the greater congruence between superior and subordinate ratings stimulate development through greater acceptance of information provided during feedback, it also acts as a powerful reinforcer of the influence of

self-assessment on motivation (Koresgaard, 1996) and promotes involvement in the appraisal process (Mohrmann, Resnick-West, & Lawler, 1990).

12.6   PERFORMANCE

Flow is the harnessing of emotions to achieve superior performance and learning (Goleman, 1995). Tasks that both challenge and permit an individual to draw on existing knowledge are most likely to send him or her into a state of flow. Post-It Notes, waterproof sandpaper, and Thinsulate were the products of instinctive feeling rather than rigorous scientific analysis. The ability to use emotional knowledge has been observed to be fundamental to successful decision making. When a novel problem arises, the decision maker draws on his or her knowledge base of relationships to arrive at workable solutions. Studies of traders at the stock exchange and generals in the field, both of whom belong to professions where split-second decision making is the norm, have found that they reject analytical problem solving in favor of a body of knowledge built through experience that provides successful solutions (Farnham, 1996).

Four empirical studies clarify the effect of EI on performance. Schutte, Schuettpelz, and Malouff (2000–2001) observed that emotionally intelligent undergraduates were more willing to complete both moderately and highly difficult tasks in an anagram experiment. However, they did not explore the dimensions of EI responsible for the additional variance in performance. Bachman, Stern, Campbell, and Sitarenios (2000) posited that self-awareness would prevent debt collectors from lapsing into excessive lenience caused by empathizing too closely with clients. At the other extreme, emotional self-control prevents belligerence on the part of the account officer so that the interaction does not degenerate into a shouting match. Empirical comparison of meritorious account officers, along with a control group, showed (as predicted) that the principal difference between the two groups was empathic skills. Meritorious account officers had less empathy and higher reality test scores indicating their capability to focus on the situation with clarity by distinguishing between subjective feeling and objective reality. Coupling this result with high scores on emotional self-control leads to the conclusion that successful debt collectors exhibit emotional self-control in their interactions with clients, which permits them to convey urgency. In a companion study, these authors found that superior performance rated highly on the EI competencies of independence, self-confidence, and optimism, which, in turn, resulted in enhanced time management, information processing, communications and negotiations leading to the formulation of mutually beneficial debt collection plans.

Fox and Spector (2000) related EI to interview outcomes, hypothesizing that empathy, self-regulation, mood, and positive self-presentation would enhance performance. Empathy assumes importance as the ability to prevent oneself from being trapped in difficult interview questions and depends on the ability to predict the reactions of other social actors (constituting the appraisal dimension of EI). Self-presentation skills, first articulated in Goffman's (1959) classic,

The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life, suggest that the focal person will be thoroughly prepared in creating a positive impression and controlling any nonverbal feelings conveying unfavorable impressions. The creation of positive mood in interviewers has been noted elsewhere, being clearly enunciated by Isen and Baron (1991) with reference to the job interview: "Such persons are evaluated more favorably in performance appraisals are more likely to be hired after a job interview, are more likely to obtain concessions from opponents in bargaining contexts, . . . " (p. 28). For a sample of 116 participants in a simulated job selection experience, trait affectivity emerged as the most powerful predictor of interview success making candidates appear more likable, and catalyzing emotional contagion or the induction of positive mood in the interviewer. The model was validated by significant prediction of the criterion by empathic concern, control of nonverbal behavior, and positive affect; each of which underlies the EI variables of empathy, presentation, and self-regulation.

In a direct test of the effects of EI on performance, Carmelli (2003) observed that emotionally intelligent managers in Israel displayed superior performance to their lower EQ peers both in terms of contextual (teamwork and cohesiveness) performance and task performance (quality of the job completed).

12.7   ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Emotional intelligence incorporates the quality of emotional resilience, or flexible optimism, which gives the individual the ability to cope with interpersonal conflict. Instead of engaging in the disruptive activity of faultfinding, emotionally intelligent employees are flexibly optimistic enough to put difficulties behind them and redirect their attention to conflict resolution. They espouse a durable sense of success, despite setbacks and frustrations. Abraham (2000) found that EI was a powerful predictor of organizational commitment; 15% of the variance in organizational commitment was explained solely by EI.

A multidimensional approach to commitment argues that (a) the coalitional nature of the organization results in multiple commitments to top management, supervisors, work groups, and customers as distinct foci and that (b) commitments to these groups should be measured separately to determine whether they contribute to overall organizational commitment and, if so, to what extent (Reichers, 1985). Carmelli (2003) found that EI enhanced affective commitment or "positive feelings of identification with attachment to, and involvement in the work organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1984, p. 375) to the extent that high levels of EI depress withdrawal intentions. However, this attachment did not translate into increased career commitment, the ability to manage emotions to further career goals, a related measure of job involvement, or developing such strong emotional feeling for the job that one loses oneself in it. Clearly, both continuance commitment and job involvement have more complex relationships to EI than mere linear cause-and-effect. Such complexity is evident in EI's moderating effect on work-family conflict and continuance commitment, with EI weakening the harmful effects of such conflict

on continuance commitment. For example, senior managers were more adept at managing the destructive emotional conflict that emanates from prolonged work-family conflict on their commitment to their careers; if such conflict escalated they reduced their commitment in a recognition of the supremacy of family commitment over their careers in sharp contrast to their less emotionally intelligent counterparts.

12.8   ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP

Organizational Citizenship refers to prosocial behaviors whereby employees voluntarily assume the responsibility for intensive self-development, mentoring new employees, being spokespersons for the organization, and taking on projects that are novel, challenging, or futuristic. EI may stimulate such conduct by making employees more aware of the personal problems of others. Empathic skills permit the understanding of special problems including family matters or censure for failure to fulfill organizational responsibilities. Optimism may assist in the promotion of positive mood to offer counsel and support. Studies of mood have shown that positive moods, a characteristic of EI, promote organizational citizenship (see Brief & Motowidlo, 1986, for a review). Employees in positive moods remember positive information and dwell on positive experiences, making it more likely that they will perform acts that reinforce their positive moods such as volunteering to assist others (Isen, Shalker, Clarke, & Karp, 1978). As indicated earlier, the social- skills component of EI enhances work-group cohesion.

The initial empirical study of organizational citizenship as an outcome of EI is Charbonneau and Nicol's (2002) gender-based investigation of adolescents in a camp environment. Granted that camps for adolescents do not parallel modern organizations, the fact that this is the earliest empirical study in the field determines its worth. Providing partial support for my thesis of a significant association between EI and organizational citizenship, they found that among boys, EI correlated significantly with the altruism and civic virtue components of organizational citizenship, while for their female counterparts, altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue were significant outcomes of EI. The finding with conscientiousness supports my theory that emotionally intelligent employees are more aware of organizational requirements and therefore, more likely to conform to them in terms of punctuality, the meeting of deadlines, and attendance. Their surprise at finding that the Sportsmanship component of organizational citizenship had no relationship with EI may be explained by methodological artifact. Several of the items on the Sportsmanship subscale were self-rather than other-directed, while Martinez-Pons' (1998) path analysis showed that EI was more often associated with other-directed variables in the regulation of emotion in others. A more direct measure of the impact of EI on altruistic behavior was Carmelli (2003)'s investigation of senior managers in Israel, in which managers with high EI were found to exhibit higher levels of altruistic behavior.

12.9   JOB CONTROL

Salovey and Mayer (1990) identified "mood directed attention" as a facet of EI. Emotionally intelligent individuals are capable of setting priorities for tasks and attending to those of higher priority. As they pay attention to their own feelings, they permit themselves to be directed away from more trivial problems to those of greater importance. The freedom to set priorities, and, if necessary, redirect efforts to new goals, requires that employees have sufficient control over their jobs to allocate their time and efforts most appropriately. In the event that the organization permits the individual to have such control, job satisfaction and commitment are enhanced. In one of the few studies to examine EI within an organization, Cooper and Sawaf (1997) upheld the value of emotional honesty. They refer to the necessity to feelings of "inner truth" that arise partly from the link between EI and intuition and conscience. Emotional honesty rejects the repression of honesty feelings to take politically correct actions. However, in a repressive environment, the honest expression in feelings may result in censure by supervisors or even termination of employment. Consequently, job control with its provision of freedom of choice and expression is necessary for emotional honesty to flourish.

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) reviewed cases of highly emotionally intelligent firms in which the introduction of constructive discontent is viewed as an opportunity to tap creative energies that are often suppressed to maintain harmony. They cite examples of the "debate culture" at Motorola and the favoring of dissent over consensus at Sun Microsystems. Control over the job is necessary for the promotion of open dialogue. There is little merit in critically analyzing solutions and improvements of current procedures if the solutions or improvements cannot be implemented. Cooper and Sawaf (1997) represented this process in terms of the D (discontent) $\times$ D (direction) $\times$ M (movement) formula. Discontent about the current situation leads to a direction for change, which together with movement leads to the desired change. Movement is provided in part by job control, which grants the employee the freedom to take the steps needed to put change into action. Without it, only wishful thinking results. Open dialogue with the discretion to implement the necessary changes should lead both to increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Cooper and Sawaf (1997) and Ashkanasy and Jordan (1997) refer to the emotional resilience component of EI. The ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions gives the emotionally intelligent individual the insight to comprehend the causes of stress, to the extent that he or she may develop the ability to persevere in formulating strategies to deal with the negative consequences of stress or destructive conflict. Clearly, such perseverance is rewarded only in situations in which the decision maker has a reasonable expectation of achieving worthwhile results (e.g., an environment that offers the requisite decision-making control). EI and job control jointly explained a significant 26% of the variance in job satisfaction, $t(72) = 5.25, p < .001$. An even stronger moderator effect was observed for organizational commitment,

with the EI-job control interaction explaining a significant 29% of the variance, $t(72) = 5.60, p < .001$.

12.10   SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem is the effective evaluation of the self occurring either as an innate characteristic (trait self-esteem) or a more transient state (state self-esteem). The association between EI and positive mood has been noted. Mood has been found to have both state and trait components (Watson & Clark, 1994; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) with positive mood being characterized by enthusiasm, alertness, calmness, and serenity. The ability of the emotionally intelligent to understand and regulate emotion leads to the arousal of positive mood and higher self-esteem as the focal person can draw upon a reservoir of positive experience to sustain motivation. Schutte et al. (2002) present the example of a man who earned a high score on a test dwelling on that experience later in life, which, in turn, provided the motivation for future striving for excellence. The ability to understand emotions in others may result in the suppression of negative reaction to organizational trials. For instance, an employee whose composure is challenged by abusive supervisors and hostile co-workers may attribute their conduct to misbehavior or personality dysfunction without permitting it to affect his or her performance. In consecutive studies, Ciarrochi, Chan, and Caputi (2000) and Schutte et al. (2002) were able to observe correlations between EI and positive self-esteem. In a mood induction experiment, the former study showed a humorous film to participants; high EI participants responded with significantly higher positive mood. Probing the cause of higher positive mood, this study found a significant interaction effect of EI and mood perception followed by subgroup analysis showing EI associated with significantly higher recall of positive events to induce positive mood-states. The latter study induced varying moods in participants by making them read sets of positive and negative statements. Not only did they corroborate Ciarrochi et al.'s finding, but they extended it by observing that individuals with higher EI were able to maintain positive mood and self-esteem upon confrontation with a negative state induction and reinforce the positive mood induced by positive state intervention. Although not directly tested, self-esteem may be the culmination of a series of positive mood states generated by positive experience or the emotional ability to suppress negative stimuli over time; a longitudinal study is required to establish this relationship.

12.11   DISCUSSION

The principal conclusion from this review is that in order to develop meaningful relationships between EI and outcomes it is necessary to move beyond exploratory quasi-experimental correlational studies to sophisticated methodologies including structural equations and hierarchical regression. At present, relationships of EI with self-esteem, performance, and organizational citizen-

ship are inconclusive as far as direction of causality is concerned; at best, they suggest a link between variables without any prediction of directional effects, that is, does EI lead to enhanced self-esteem, performance, and organizational citizenship? Early initiatives in this regard appear promising especially since they emphasize moderating effects either by EI or other variables. In Abraham's (2000) hierarchical regression of EI on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, more than twice the variance in the criteria was explained by the EI-job control interaction. Wong & Law (2002) obtained a similar result for the EI-emotional labor interaction on the same criteria. In other words, the effects of EI on organizational outcomes are much more powerful in the presence of moderators. Both autonomous environments (with job control) and those in which employees favorably manage their impressions (emotional labor) are more conducive for the emotionally intelligent to display positive affective outcomes. This result is supported by Boyatzis's (1982) model of the confluence of job characteristics; personality variables and organizational climate exert powerful influence on organizational outcomes. Future research should focus on developing theoretical propositions and empirically testing such three way interactions (see Abraham, 2004, for theoretical development).

The role of empathy in the relationship of EI with leadership warrants further investigation. Is empathy antecedent to or a component of EI? While much work has been undertaken to develop robust measures of EI, it would be worthwhile to examine the nature of this relationship. If it is antecedent, how does this explain direct relations between empathic perspective and interpersonal skills (Schutte et al., 2002)? Should empathic measures be divested of their less robust dimensions including empathic fantasy, concern, and personal distress?

The special role of self-awareness in leadership studies and in the fostering of work group cohesion is noteworthy with numerous studies attesting to the strength of this component of EI in affecting the criteria. Although global EI has proved to be the more powerful predictor for most organizational criteria, future work may reveal the predictive supremacy of certain aspects of EI.

Emotional intelligence showed a stronger relationship with organizational commitment than job satisfaction. Two components of EI are relevant in this regard. Ashkanasy and Jordan (1997) found that EI predicted the ability to endure job insecurity and periods of short-term unemployment. The underlying cause of such tenacity may have been higher organizational commitment based on emotional resilience, which confers on the individual the tenacity to "hang in there" and endure the vicissitudes of the workplace. The social skills component of EI may lead to the building of strong work networks with the workgroup and possibly with supervisors. Because this behavior is translated into organizational commitment, it is possible that emotionally intelligent employees view relationships with the organization as an extension of relationships at the work group level.

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