

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ADOPTION OF CONFLICT  
MANAGEMENT STYLES AMONG MANAGERS IN SERVICE  
SECTOR**

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**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**Under the Faculty of Social Sciences**

*By*

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AMONG MANAGERS IN SERVICE SECTOR**

*Ph.D Thesis under the Faculty of Social Sciences*

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### *Certificate*

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “**Emotional Intelligence and Adoption of Conflict Management Styles among Managers In Service Sector**” is the record of bonafide research work done by Ms. Smarty P. Mukundan under my supervision and guidance at the School of Management Studies, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences, Cochin University of Science and Technology. It is also certified that all the relevant corrections and modifications suggested by the audience during the pre-synopsis seminar and recommended by the Doctoral Committee of the candidate have been incorporated in the thesis. Plagiarism was checked for the thesis at the University Library, and found to be six percent, which is within the acceptable limits.

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## *Declaration*

*I, Smarty P Mukundan hereby declare that the thesis entitled "Emotional Intelligence and Adoption of Conflict Management Styles among Managers in Service Sector" is a bonafide record of the work done by me under the guidance of Dr.Zakariya K.A., Professor, School of Management Studies, CUSAT, Cochin-22 for the Ph.Dprogramme in School of Management Studies of Cochin University of Science and Technology. I also declare that this research work is the result of my own effort and has not previously formed the basis for the award of any Degree, Diploma, Associateship, Fellowship or any other similar titles of recognition.*

*Kalamassery  
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*Smarty P. Mukundan*



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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>ANOVA</b>	<b>Analysis of Variance</b>
<b>ASSOCHAM</b>	<b>The Associated Chambers of Commerce and Industry of India</b>
<b>BEIS</b>	<b>Bhattacharya Emotional Intelligence Scale</b>
<b>BSRI</b>	<b>Bem Sex Role Inventory</b>
<b>CII</b>	<b>Confederation of Indian Industry</b>
<b>CIPD</b>	<b>Chartered Institute of Personnel Development</b>
<b>CMS</b>	<b>Conflict Management Styles</b>
<b>CRI</b>	<b>Conflict Resolution Inventory</b>
<b>EI</b>	<b>Emotional Intelligence</b>
<b>GDP</b>	<b>Gross Domestic Product</b>
<b>GRI</b>	<b>Gender Role Identity</b>
<b>GSDP</b>	<b>Gross State Domestic Product</b>
<b>MANOVA</b>	<b>Multivariate Analysis of Variance</b>
<b>MOSPI</b>	<b>Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation</b>
<b>OLS</b>	<b>Ordinary Least Squares</b>
<b>SD</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
<b>SPSS</b>	<b>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</b>
<b>WERS</b>	<b>Workplace Employment Relations Study</b>



# Chapter 1

## INTRODUCTION

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### *Contents*

- 1.1 Introduction and Background of the study*
- 1.2 Statement of the problem*
- 1.3 Theoretical framework and research model of the study*
- 1.4 Research Objectives*
- 1.5 The service sector context*
- 1.6 Significance of the study*
- 1.7 Organisation of thesis*

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This chapter describes the context of the study. The theoretical frame work, research model and objectives are provided. The organisation of the thesis is also outlined.

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## 1.1 Introduction and Background of the study

Organizations make up a network of interpersonal relationships structured to facilitate the achievement of established goals. Today, employees not only need the technical knowledge and competencies for transforming inputs into outputs, they also need the interpersonal and group competencies too to enable them to work effectively with their colleagues, superiors, subordinates, and clients (Tjosvold, 1998). When people interact in organisations differing views and opinion are bound to surface as individuals have different value systems and priorities. Conflict at workplaces generally evolves from differences regarding the role a person should play in a given situation, what a person wants to achieve, how work assignments should be done, and even due to miscommunication or a misunderstanding (Wall, Salum & Sobol, 1992; Morrison, 2008). Yet amidst all these conflicts jobs require some degree of interaction with co-workers, customer and other stakeholders and hence conflict becomes an intrinsic part of today's workplace (Dijkstra, Dierendonck, Evers, & De Dreu, 2005). Organisations in the present do have a lot of diversity in terms of age, gender, nationality and culture. These dynamics in the present work environment typified by complexity, ambiguity, volatility and interdependency has in itself contributed to sowing seeds of conflict amongst employees and with customers at workplaces especially in the service sector making conflict a natural phenomenon (Bercovitch, 2009; Jehn, 1995, 1997). Therefore conflict is considered to be both an inevitable and intrinsic characteristic of working in today's workplaces (Dijkstra et al., 2005). The experience of such conflicts among workers has been linked to a number of individual and occupational consequences.

According to research findings 60-80% of all difficulties in organizations are not from deficits in individual employee's skill or motivation but primarily

arises from strained relationships between employees, resulting in voluntary departures in organisations as an aftermath of conflict (Dana, 2002; De Drue & Weingart, 2003). It is said that a typical manager spends 25-40% of his or her time dealing with workplace conflicts which is close to one to two days of every work week (Wayne, 2005; CIPD Report, 2008). As mentioned in the managerial roles approach put forward by Mintzberg (1973), a manager has to adorn several roles as that of a negotiator, dispute handler, resource allocator etc and therefore needs to spend more time and energy to solve conflicts arising out of this even now. Moreover research evidences (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Fletcher, 2004; Fondas, 1997; Lipman-Bluman, 1996) indicate that in order to succeed in today's frequently changing, flexible organizations, managers have to engage in collaboration, be cooperative, and demonstrate openness, interpersonal sensitivity and empathy (as cited in Kark, Waismel-Manor & Shamir, 2012). Therefore handling conflict and the team effectively is a daunting task for any manager.

The contemporary thoughts that conflict at workplace is beneficial than detrimental (McKenzie, 2002) has made this topic even more interesting. Managers of contemporary organisations need to be aware about the impact of change on the employee's physical, mental and emotional health as a result of conflicts and therefore need to be equipped enough to deal with conflicts effectively. Conflict when left unmanaged leads to productivity issues, increased stress (CPP- Global HRD Report, 2008) and hence beckons the need for managing conflicts appropriately suiting the situational demands. Conflict can be destructive as well as constructive, unfortunately, since it cannot be eliminated from the workplace, learning appropriate conflict-handling skills is important (Deutsch, 2011). Goleman (1998) in his popular book '*Working with emotional intelligence*' suggest that to handle conflict effectively, underlying

individual differences must be understood and also speculates that having emotional Intelligence plays a significant role here.

Emotional intelligence is a concept that gained popularity in behavioural psychology in the last few decades and has been acclaimed as the best predictor for work and life success. Mayer and Salovey (1997) defines emotional intelligence as the ability to accurately perceive, evaluate, express emotions; the ability to have access to and or generate feelings which make thinking easier; the ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and the ability to manage emotions by promoting emotional and intellectual growth. Goleman (1998) who later popularised this term conceptualise EI as an array of emotional competencies under four general abilities; Self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. Bar-On (1997) came with a mixed model of EI which has two parts ie the intrapersonal and interpersonal, while the intrapersonal deals with the recognition and management of positive and negative emotions within oneself; the interpersonal aspect deals with understanding and managing emotions of others depending on the organisational context and maintaining interpersonal relationships. Therefore the popular definitions of emotional intelligence have been considered both as a trait and as ability.

Interpersonal conflict at work is referred as disagreements among individuals as a result of perceived oppositions about respective interests or goals (Thomas, 1992; Wall & Callister, 1995). Managing conflict is not the cessation of differences in conflict itself but dealing with the differences so that a solution is arrived between the parties. Individuals generally deal with these differences by adopting different conflict resolution styles. A conflict style is defined as a general pattern of responses to conflict during a variety of antagonistic interactive situations (Putnam & Poole, 1987; Toomey, Oetzel

&Jung, 2001) or termed as the general behavioural patterns one takes while in conflict (Moberg, 2001). Researchers have primarily identified five conflict management styles revolving around dimensions of the individual's motives i.e. concern for self-versus others (Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992); based on approach i.e. competitive or cooperative (Deutsch, 2006), and outcome i.e. who 'wins'; (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Wertheim, Love, Peck & Littlefield, 2006).

Several research works suggested strategies for resolving conflict over the past years (Blake, Shepard & Mouton, 1964; Likert & Likert, 1976; Kilmann & Thomas 1977; Rahim, 1986; Pareek, 1982) have identified primarily five different modes or styles of conflict management behaviour, often termed as Competing (also termed as Assertive/ Dominating/ Confronting), Collaborating (also termed as Cooperative/Integrating/ Negotiation), Accommodating (also termed as Obliging/ yielding), Compromising, Avoiding (also termed as withdrawal) and resignation. All of these works are attempts to assess the conflict styles that basically converge to study the perceptions of the conflicting parties when conflicts arise between two parties. Most of the conflict resolution models are presented in a two dimensional framework (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Thomas & Kilmann, 1974; Rahim Organisational Conflict Inventory, 1983, 1986) which primarily pertains to the content of the communication. There could be a third factor, which has a relational dimension that tries to specify the character of the interaction i.e. emotional/relational valence as per Nicotera (1993).

It is said that individuals preference to use certain conflict management styles depend on factors such as personality, emotional involvement and circumstances (Anwar, Shahzad & Rehman, 2012; Bell & Song, 2005). As we all know conflict between humans does not occur in the absence of emotions or as behavioural responses to emotions (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001). According to

Goleman (1995), Abraham (1999), Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) a person with emotional intelligence would be able to monitor and control one's emotional state, thereby manage distressing moods and control impulses in circumstances involving conflict. This simply means that a person with EI has the ability to identify emotions in one-self and others, use emotions in their thought processes, manage emotions in themselves and others, and understand and reason with emotions.

Theorists in this area are of the opinion that individuals who are leading an organisation or a team need to have emotional intelligence to build a cooperative and effective team. Several evidences from research (Abraham, 2004; Carmeli & Josman, 2006; Cote & Miners, 2006) show that in social interactions, people possessing high EI produce win-win relationships and outcomes for themselves and others. Such people, are able to create a field of 'emotional attraction' around them due to their positive personality and cordial interactions (Abraham, 1999), while those with low EI, enter into counterproductive emotional behaviours ending up in win-lose or lose-lose type of transactional outcomes. As a result of this, a field of 'emotional repulsion' is created around them as they tend to display emotional negativism or neutrality in their social transactions unknowingly (Kunannat, 2008). The above contentions clearly indicate the role of EI in conflict management. The researcher tries to draw attention to this aspect where in people do get influenced by this third factor 'emotion' and the management of those emotions in the adoption of any particular conflict resolution style.

A seminal study by Rahim (2001) has suggested two strategies for handling conflict; problem solving and bargaining. A problem solving strategy represents a party's pursuit of own and others' concerns, whereas the bargaining strategy represents a party's pursuit of own or others' concerns. These two

styles; Problem solving strategy and Bargaining strategy leads to functional or dysfunctional conflict respectively. Pareek (1982) also put forward a contingency theory of conflict resolution, which is based on the criticality of the situation and the intergroup integration. It suggests either an active approach for those in conflict to solve the problem by themselves or with help of others, or a passive approach of avoidance out of fear or denial. The prominent element of all the conflict dynamics are the ways in which people manage conflict either in constructive (functional) or destructive (dysfunctional) manner (Jehn, 1995; Pelled, Eisenhardt & Xin, 1999)

Influence of sex differences in the adoption of conflict styles of managers has always been of interest to the researchers. With the increased representation of women in managerial ranks in the past few decades a renewed curiosity as to how males and females handle conflict has always been of management interest (Powell & Butterfield, 2015). It is also indicated that there has been a failure to acknowledge the gendered analysis in relevant studies in the area of emotional intelligence (Fischer & Ashkanasy, 2000; Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009; Walter, Cole & Humphrey, 2011) and conflict management (Thomas, Thomas & Schaubhut, 2008; Monteiro & Balogun, 2015). However several of the contemporary research works in both emotional intelligence and conflict management styles was found to have weak sex effects (De Freitas, 2015; Thomas et al., 2008). So what explains better than gender? Perhaps the real factors responsible for any sex differences in EI or Conflict management are social and personality factors that tend to correlate with sex such as gender socialization, sex/gender role orientation. An understanding of categorical gender and gender role identity of women's and men's behaviour in the workplace needs to be investigated. This is important because gender roles can influence a person's work behaviour (Powell, 1979;

Eagly, Wood & Diekmann, 2000) and their conflict management styles (Brewer, Mitchell & Weber, 2002; Brusko, 2010). Gender role identity formed as a part of socialisation allows flexibility in behaviour not only between sex but 'within' sex suggesting its importance in the present research. Apart from studying the direct relationship between Emotional intelligence and conflict styles, studying the intervening effects of gender role identity in this relationship would give a new perspective to the study. Previous studies addressing the links between emotional intelligence and conflict styles through the lens of gender and gender role identity lacked attention, which prompted the researcher to explore the interrelationship of these variables.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

The service sector which is characterised by high volatility, intense competition and increased diversity brings in lot of conflicts in views and processes amongst the employees, as well in interaction with customers. It is said that managers play a crucial role in creating, avoiding and managing conflict at workplaces (Wood, Saundry & Latreille, 2014; CIPD Report, 2008). A management practitioner can therefore never overlook the role of a manager in the service sector firms, as they are the ones who set the tone in their team and need to understand the dynamics of conflict and resolve it in a functional manner. Conflict can be resolved by designing strategies that minimise the dysfunctions of conflict and enhancing the constructive functions of conflict (Rahim et al., 2002). It is known that functional styles of conflict handling lead to increased productivity, well-being, cooperation, innovation and positive outcomes, while dysfunctional conflict styles lead to outcomes like reduced commitment, lack of trust, increased stress, , bullying and other undesirable outcomes at workplaces (De Raeve, Jansen, Brandt, Vasse & Kant, 2009; Nelson & Quik, 2009; Ayoka, 2007).

According to research studies conflict styles can either be functional or based on an approach orientation or dysfunctional or have an avoidance mode (Rahim, 2001; Rahim et al., 2002; Pareek, 1982; Thomas, 1992). In the former, conflict resolution happens as one makes an effort to look into the concerns of both the parties, while in the latter it is simply denied or avoided. The outcome of conflict may be functional or dysfunctional and therefore adopting the appropriate style lies in the hands of a manager at a workplace. It is said that EI competencies play a significant role here (Goleman, 1998). Certain studies have reported that individuals with higher EI have a tendency to adopt styles that takes into consideration both the parties and resort to functional styles more often than dysfunctional styles of conflict management (Jordan & Troth 2002; Rahim et al., 2002). De-Church and Marks (2001); Bergman and Volkema(1989) suggests that regardless of the outcome, individuals give more importance to the way conflict was managed and has an impact on the satisfaction. Therefore the mode of conflict styles (approach or avoidance) becomes significant in the conflict resolution. Nair (2008) suggests that if one focus on the positive role of emotions in conflict and try to manage, express and experience emotions in an inclusive manner conflict resolution happens.

The emerging thought is that, conflicts to be managed functionally one or more than one style may be more appropriate than another depending upon the situation and as emotional intelligence entails an understanding of the underlying emotions and managing according to the context, it can be considered to be a significant predictor (Nair, 2008; Schlaerth, Ensari, & Christian, 2013). Though research has been conducted on conflict styles, the choice of styles at higher levels of EI and their role in handling conflict functionally is still ambiguous. Very few studies has explored in this direction (Jordan & Troth 2002; Rahim et al., 2002; Schlearth et al., 2013). Extant

research in this field does not throw much light into this aspect, given the importance of service sector and the need for functional conflict resolution. Very few studies in this context have been done in an Indian context and therefore becomes of topical interest.

An analysis of sex that forms an identity with their respective gender role primarily shaped by the cultural factors, like gender role identity has not been studied much in a workplace context. Very few studies have explored the effects of gender role identity in emotional intelligence and adoption of conflict management styles which prompted the researcher to explore in this direction too.

In the light of the above discussions, from the theoretical and empirical studies reviewed the researcher concludes as follows. Firstly, the researcher found that sufficient empirical literature support linking emotional intelligence and conflict management where the functional or approach modes and dysfunctional or avoidance mode being studied was found to be limited in number in an Indian context. Secondly, previous works has independently researched on sex, gender role identity and its relationship to emotional intelligence and conflict styles. Thirdly, previous research works have not explored the complex interrelationships between Emotional Intelligence and the factors of sex, gender role identity and conflict management styles context amongst manager professionals. The present study therefore attempts to address this void in research in a service sector context.

Some of the key research questions that the researcher believes needs to be addressed are

- Is there a relationship between Emotional Intelligence and the approach modes and avoidance modes of conflict management styles amongst managers?

- Does gender role identity have a moderating effect between emotional intelligence and conflict styles amongst managers?

### **1.3 Theoretical framework and research model of the study**

The present study is an attempt to understand the inter-relationship between emotional intelligence, conflict management styles and the effect of gender role identity of managers in a service sector context. On the basis of thorough literature review, the researcher has presumed a relationship between the variables and their interplay has been presented as a model as in Figure 1.1. Some of the major research finding that helped the researcher to formulate the problem and thereby develop the research model is discussed below.

Goleman (1998) speculates that a person with higher EI will be able to handle conflicts better. Later on several research works discussed on the centrality of emotions and management of emotions in coping with conflict (Malek, 2000; Humphrey, 2006; Ayoko, Callan & Hartel, 2008; Nair, 2008; Cote & Hideg, 2011). Rahim (2001; 2002) in his study had conceptualised the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles and the role of EI in the adoption of conflict styles that has an integrative approach where both the parties are satisfied with the outcome which eventually leads to a functional way of resolving conflict.

Syna-Desivilya and Yagil (2005) in their study point to the emotional experience associated to each conflict styles. Cooperative patterns of conflict style were associated with positive emotional states while avoiding patterns of conflict styles were associated to negative emotions and dominating pattern of conflict styles elicited both positive and negative emotions. As per the studies of Yu, Sardessai, Lu and Zhao, (2005); Shih and Susanto (2010) ; Ellis (2010); Zhang et al.,(2015) conflict styles that take into consideration both task and relationship or interest of either of the parties according to the context,

found a positive relationship with emotional intelligence and found to be negatively associated with control style (Rahim et al., 2002; Godse & Thingujam, 2010; Heris & Heris, 2011; Mohamed & Yousef, 2014). Several other studies too mention that resolving conflict with appropriate conflict styles in a constructive manner is often a challenge for managers and emotional intelligence acts as a significant predictor in such situations (Rahim, 2002; Shih & Susanto, 2010).

From the above studies we understand that there exists a link between emotional intelligence and the conflict management styles. It is also seen that a single style alone is not adopted to manage the conflicts. Evidences shown above also indicate that multiple styles are followed by persons with high EI while in conflict (Jordan & Troth, 2002; Ellis, 2010; Schlearth et al., 2013). Therefore we hypothesise that those who possess high emotional intelligence handle conflicts in a functional manner and therefore use active or approach modes (functional) of conflict styles like the confrontation, compromise and negotiation styles where at least an attempt to resolve the conflicts are made. This is based on the assumption that a person with high EI is well aware of the context and hence adapts himself to the organisation's needs and therefore do not confine to adopting one style alone instead use multiple styles so that conflicts may be handled in a functional way. Managers who score lower in Emotional intelligence tend to deploy passive or avoidance modes (dysfunctional) of conflict styles like the withdrawal and resignation style where conflicts are seen avoided.

Further, research studies that attempted to study individual differences based on sex in the adoption of conflict management styles were found to be inconsistent (Korabik, Baril & Watson, 1993; Thomas et al., 2008). However a number of theoretical sources suggest that the conflict management styles are

compatible with the gender role identity (Baxter & Shepherd 1978; Brusko, 2010; Chemaly, 2014) than their biological sex. The differences however may be determined not by sex alone but ‘within sex’ too. Gender role identity which represents the learned pattern of masculinity or femininity by an individual gives a better explanation for difference in EI levels (De Freitas, 2015; Gartzia, Aritzeta, Balluerka & Esther, 2012) as well as in the adoption of conflict styles (Brewer et al., 2002, Brusko, 2010).

Whether male or female, a person scoring high in both masculinity and femininity reported higher emotional and social intelligence and tend to deploy conflict styles that are functional in nature. These findings point to the need of studying the masculine and feminine traits ‘within’ sex (Guastello & Guastello, 2003; Chemaly, 2014; Monteiro & Balogun, 2015) and therefore the potential role of gender role identity acting as a moderator in the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles is also explored

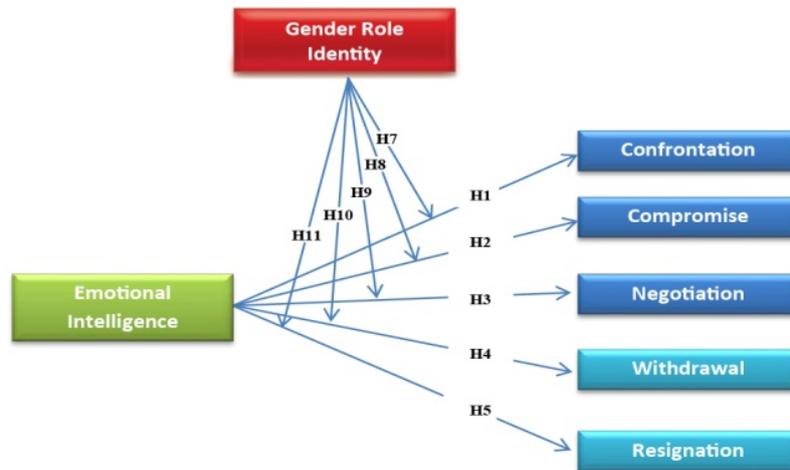
#### **1.4 Research objectives**

The purpose of the study is to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles and to verify whether gender role identity of the managers act as moderator in this relationship particularly in an Indian context within the service sector.

1. To identify the relationship between EI and conflict management styles of managers in service sector
2. To verify whether there is difference in conflict style adoption across different levels of Emotional Intelligence of managers in service sector
3. To verify the moderating role of gender role identity in the relationship between EI and conflict management style adopted by managers.

4. To find out the influence of personal factors like Sex, Marital Status, and occupational factor like experience and organisational status on emotional intelligence of managers
5. To verify whether EI varies across the Gender Role Identity of managers.
6. To identify differences in conflict management styles across Gender role Identity of managers.
7. To identify differences in terms of sex on conflict management styles

Fig 1. 1 Conceptual model of the study



In the above conceptual model, Emotional intelligence is taken as the independent variable, conflict management styles as the dependent variable, and Gender role identity as the intervening variable. As the researcher's intention is to empirically test whether emotional intelligence predict a pattern in the adoption of approach or avoidance modes of conflict styles the relationships so assumed has been hypothesised (H1 to H5) as shown in the figure above. In addition to this the conflict style pattern across different EI Levels was also verified from the model (H6). The role of gender role identity as a moderating variable in the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict styles is also tested in the model (H7 to H11).

### **1.5 The service sector context**

The service sector in India has been growing steadily for the past two decades and is the second fastest growing service economy in the world contributing to around 61 percent of the GDP of the country. With this scale and growth patterns this sector becomes strategically important to the country (Bhattacharya & Mitra, 1990; KPMG- CII Report, 2016). The share of the state of Kerala in the service sector or tertiary sector is also promising contributing around 63.66% in 2015-16 recording an annual growth rate at the highest at 8.78% (Economic Review - Kerala, 2016).

Sectoral compositions of employment in the organized sector show dominance of the service sector over the years with Kerala and Delhi being the highest in number since 1999 onwards (ASSOCHAM Summit Report, 2012; Economic Review- Kerala, 2016). However the growth rate in employment does not commensurate with the rise in income. Survey result also shows that attrition rates in the service sector (14% higher than the global average) are on the high. Businesses are now highly customer oriented and employees within the firm needs to put in great efforts to make their customers satisfied for which a human touch is needed (Bhasharat &Raja, 2013). We see that, the service industry in general, is plagued by the challenges of intense competition, high turnover of employees, making the effective and consistent delivery of good service and therefore the product itself, extremely challenging (Langhorn, 2004). The above factors when coupled together indicates the immense scope in this sector and also shows the competitive scenario that exists which as per the organizational dynamics will sow seeds of conflict at the workplace. The reason therefore to select the service sector is because of the fact this is identified as one of the most dynamic and vibrant sectors of the economy in Kerala.

Differing perceptions, interpersonal skills levels, attitudes and expectations are bound to happen while at work and therefore the potential for conflict in the service sector is usually high because it involves individuals from different backgrounds, varying education level, expertise and orientations who work together to attain a goal (Premchandani, 2014). Gardenswartz,Cherbosque and Rowe(2010) proposed that employees and leaders must give due attention to emotional intelligence in order to overcome the diverse backgrounds and cultural affairs within an organization. It is reported that service workers with higher levels of emotional intelligence enhance the relationship between leader-member exchange and work performance more powerfully (Huang, Chan, Lam & Nan, 2010) and also reported greater satisfaction in service transactions (Kernbach & Schutte, 2005).

So we can conclude that managers in a service sector context have a greater responsibility of maintaining good relationships with their subordinates and peer groups for better service delivery to customers. Hence the study is particularly focused on the service sector, where there is a high element of human contact with the customer and great impetus on customer experience. It is most often the service providers that is, the employees and managers who often become the final product.

## **1.6 Significance of the study**

The service sector is characterised by lot of uncertainty, volatility and complexity and 'Human Capital' being the major service providers, conflict becomes an inevitable phenomenon in organisations. When conflicts arise, rather than suppressing the differences we need to resolve it by managing the conflict by understanding the difference. Keeping in mind the numerous challenges, ability to cope with conflicts and use it in a functional manner is

what is required. A failure to learn effective ways to handle conflict may lead to dysfunctional outcomes. Hence a study of this kind would be of great use for managers, as they are the ones who set the tone for the entire team or employees in an organisation. If the present study is able to prove the role of emotional intelligence in functional conflict resolution it's definitely going to have a lot of practical applications at the workplace.

The approach thereby derived from the research will help organisations or the HRD managers to train the managers to increase their emotional intelligence as it is asserted that emotional intelligence is a skill that can be learned rather than innate talents and that the emotionally intelligent individual creates a climate of trust and shared learning in an organization (Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Webb, 2009). Current studies on emotional intelligence and conflict management were mostly done in the western contexts and a cultural influence by doing the study in an Indian context would throw much light for decisions pertaining to an Indian workplace.

With globalisation, there has been a change in the gender perceptions too, over the past decades, which has rather been under studied especially in the Indian context. Such a kind of study would definitely help in capturing the changing gender role identities and conflict resolution strategies adopted by managers. The present study would definitely add on to the existing literature in validating the role of EI in conflict management in building a constructive organizational culture. Also studies linking these three variables namely emotional intelligence, gender role identity and conflict management styles of practicing managers would be definitely be more appealing to researchers and trainers in the area of psychotherapy, personality assessment and positive psychology. It also finds huge practical applications for HRD practitioners

while hiring, in training and development of managers and also in decisions pertaining talent identification, retention and proper deployment of them in an organization.

### **1.7 Organisation of thesis**

This thesis is presented in seven chapters. The first chapter gives an introduction to the topic and research objectives, the research model and also discusses the significance of the study in the service sector. The second chapter gives the conceptual framework of the variables under study. It is divided into four parts. Part I explains the history of emotions and emotional intelligence, different models of emotional intelligence. It also discusses briefly the different models used for measuring EI and the major criticisms. Part II explains emotional intelligence at workplaces and its outcomes to individual performance, leadership, team orientation, interpersonal skills, stress etc and importance of EI for managers. Part III attempts to explain the concepts of conflict in terms of its causes, types, models for managing conflict, outcomes of conflict, measures of conflict management styles and the importance of conflict management for managers. Part IV contains the emergence of gender role identity and its theoretical underpinnings, and approaches to measure gender role identity. Chapter 3 details the review of literature of the major variables under study. Chapter 4 presents hypotheses of the study, the methodology adopted for conducting the study and the major limitations. Chapter 5 presents the analysis of data which includes testing of the normality assumptions of the data, descriptive statistics and testing of the hypothesis formulated. Chapter 6 summarise the results and the discussion of the findings thereon. The last chapter reiterate the major findings and discuss how the findings may have practical implications in a workplace context.

## Chapter 2

# CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF VARIABLES UNDER STUDY

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### *Content*

- 2.1 Emotional Intelligence - An Introduction*
- 2.2 Emotional intelligence at workplace*
- 2.3 Conflict and conflict management*
- 2.4 Gender Role Identity*

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This chapter explains the key concepts, variables and the presumed relationships among them and sets “conceptual framework” or “idea context” for the study. It gives a brief of the variables under the study namely emotional intelligence, conflict management styles and gender role identity and divided into four parts accordingly.

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## **2.1 Emotional Intelligence - An Introduction**

This section explains the history of emotions and emotional intelligence, different models of emotional intelligence. It also discusses briefly the different models used for measuring EI and the major criticisms.

### **2.1.1 Introduction**

A look at the word ‘emotion’ means a state of feeling involving thoughts, physiological changes and an outward expression of behaviour. Yet psychologist, philosophers, scientists, researcher and theologians have their own interpretations. Psychologists and philosophers have discussed emotions against their significance to individuals and the society, whereas researchers and scientists were interested in the origin, evolution and function of emotions and the theologians studied emotions and regulations of emotions as a means to realise the Supreme Being (Gayathri & Meenakshi, 2013).

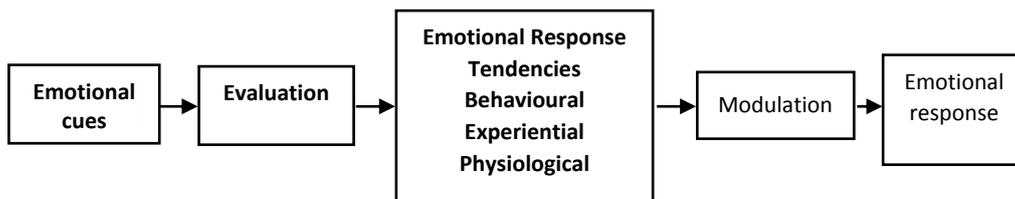
The term emotion has fuzzy boundaries and refers to an astonishing array of happenings, ranging from mild to intense, brief to extended, simple to complex, and private to public (Gross, 2013). Early psychological studies considered ‘emotions’ as disruptive (Young, 1943) but later on considered ‘emotions’ as assisting in ‘cognition’. The positive relationship between emotions and cognition was established by the “cognitive theorist who proposed that emotions depend on personal interpretations or appraisal of a particular event. Psychologist then tried to determine whether an emotion arose before the action, simultaneously with it or as an automatic physiological response. This diversity has resulted in various theoretical perspectives on emotions and their generation.

### **2.1.2 Research and history on ‘emotions’**

The study of emotions received a scientific status when Darwin (1872) talked about the universal nature of facial expressions. Following Darwin’s findings about the universal nature of facial expressions, James (1884) and Lange (1885) independently tried to bring out the processes that produce an emotion and the affective experience. The James-Lange theory of emotions, states that in response to experiences in the world, the autonomous nervous system creates physiological changes (events like rise in heart rate, perspiration, and dryness of mouth). Lange (1885) focused primarily on the vasomotor center as being the “root cause of affections, however else they may be constituted”. Their major contention was that emotions are the feelings which come about as a result of these physiological changes, rather than being their cause. This theory was seriously challenged later on by Cannon (1927), who proposed that people feel the emotions first and then act upon them. James-Lange theory is a feeling theory and Cannon-Bard is a behaviourist theory. A shift towards a cognitive approach to emotions was brought out by Magda Arnold (1960). She developed her cognitive theory, which stated that the first step in emotion is an appraisal of the situation. The initial appraisal of the situation starts the emotional sequence and results in the appropriate action and emotional experience itself, so that the physiological changes accompany, but do not initiate the action and experience (Scherer, Schorr & Johnstone, 2001). The cognitive approach to emotions was taken further by Smith and Lazarus (1990) who identified two essential factors with respect to emotions ie the nature of the cognitions (or appraisals) that underlie separate emotional reactions (e.g. fear, guilt etc) and the determining antecedent conditions of these cognitions. The appraisal process was divided into primary appraisal and secondary appraisal wherein the former the significance or meaning of the

event to the organism is established and in secondary appraisal the ability of the organism to cope with the consequences of the event is assessed (Scherer, Schorr & Johnstone, 2001). The physiological and psychological factors underlying emotional appraisal behaviours were explained further by Schachter and Singer, (1962), through their two-factor theory and their experiment. Though there are different conceptions and perspectives on emotions, there are important similarities among various approaches to emotion. The appraisal component is placed at the forefront of defining and studying emotional experience by all the approaches.

**Figure 2.1 Gross's Model of Emotion Generation**

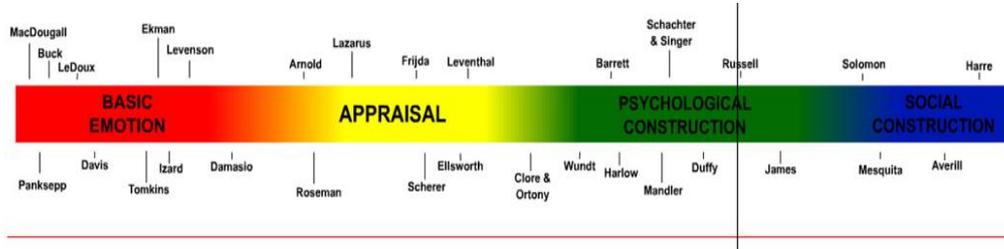


*Source:* Consensual process model of emotion generation. Adapted from "Antecedent- and Response-Focused Emotion Regulation," by J. J. Gross, 1998, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, p. 226

According to Gross (1998) emotion begins with an evaluation of emotion cues. The evaluation process triggers a coordinated set of response tendencies that involve experiential, behavioural, and physiological systems that facilitate in responding to it in an adaptive manner. These response tendencies are then modulated and finally result in manifestation of emotion. This model brings out the major point of convergence among various researchers and hence can be used as a basis for describing how an individual processes an emotional stimulus, to yield a response (Ranganath, 2011).

Therefore the research on emotions can be summarised as per the figure (2.2) which briefly shows the timeline of research done on emotions.

**Fig 2.2 Timeline of research on emotions**



**Source:** James J. Gross and Lisa Feldman Barrett, *Emotion Generation and Emotion Regulation: One or Two Depends on Your Point of View*, *Emot Rev.* 2011 Jan; 3(1):p-4.

Ranganath (2011) came out with a new ‘ process model of generation of emotions’ wherein it describes how emotional information is processed in an individual beginning from the stimulus that occur internally or externally with respect to the individual. This then undergoes a cognitive process of perception; appraisal and regulation of emotions. An individual with EI regulates or modulates this response achieve positive outcomes. There is an involvement of cognition in each stage and this processing differs from individual to individual which forms the basis for the emergence of emotional intelligence.

### 2.1.3 History of emotional intelligence

History of emotional intelligence traced back to the theory of social intelligence raised by Servendayk in 1920 (Ghorbani, Bing, Watson, Davison, & Mack, 2002) In the late 1930’s, E L Thorndike an influential psychologist in the areas of learning, education and learning intelligence identified a dimension and named it social intelligence. He described it as the ability to understand men, women, boys and girls to act wisely in human relations. He proposed that traditional intelligence has three constructs (1) concrete intelligence-ability to understand and manipulate with objects (2) Abstract Intelligence -ability to

understand and manipulate with mathematical symbols (3) social intelligence as the ability to understand and relate with people, as per Thorndike social intelligence included three elements; the individual's attitude to society such as politics, economics science etc and also values such as honesty; secondly, social knowledge such as being well versed on contemporary issues and general knowledge about the society and thirdly the individual's capacity for social adjustment such as interpersonal relations and family bonding. Thorndike however did not have any reference to personality types or interpersonal skills but all most everything related to human intelligence. His contentions were of great help in trying to establish the construct validity of emotional intelligence

A background of EI can also be found in Wechsler's idea in 1940, in his works wherein he was referring to "non-intellective" as well as "intellective" elements, by which he meant affective, personal and social factors. It is this non intellective factor that determines one's ability to succeed in life. He found EI to be integrated with an individual's personality development. His views however did not attract much attention. In the 1950's humanist psychologist Dr Abraham Maslow contributed to this concept, by describing that people can build on their emotional strengths. Studies conducted at the Ohio State University, later on leadership considered two factors; *task vs consideration*. 'Consideration' was seen to be an important aspect of effective leadership. Leaders who were able to establish mutual respect, trust and warmth, rapport become more effective. These developments led to the popularity of interpersonal competences. Several other independent studies in the contemporary period also mentioned about emotional intelligence (Piaget, 1952; Leuner, 1966; Payne, 1985; Beasley, 1987). Piaget (1952) proposed intelligence as an adaptive process and Leuner (1966) also mentioned about the

concept in his German article “*Emotional Intelligence and Emancipation*”. Payne (1985) also used this term in an unpublished doctoral dissertation titled ‘*A Study of Emotion: Developing Emotional Intelligence*’. In 1987, Keith Beasley in an article published in *Mensa Magazine*, used the term “*Emotional Quotient*”.

**Table 2.1 Gardner’s Multiple Intelligences**

<b>Intelligence</b>	<b>Examples</b>	<b>Discussion</b>
<b>Bodily kinaesthetic</b>	Dancers, athletes, surgeons, Crafts people	The ability to use their body well
<b>Interpersonal,</b>	Teachers, sales people , politicians, religious leaders	The ability to sense others feelings and be in tune with others
<b>Intrapersonal</b>	People who have good insight into themselves and make effective use of their other intelligences	Self-awareness – the ability to know one’s own mind and body
<b>Linguistic</b>	Poets, writers, orators, communicators	The ability to communicate well perhaps orally and in writing or even in several languages
<b>Logical mathematical</b>	Mathematicians , logicians	The ability to learn higher mathematics / ability to handle complex arguments
<b>Music</b>	Musicians, composer	The ability to learn , perform or compose music
<b>Naturalistic</b>	Biologists, naturalists	The ability to understand different species, recognize patterns in nature, classify natural objects.
<b>Spatial</b>	Sailors, surgeons, sculptors, painters	The ability to know where you are relative to fixed locations. The ability to accomplish tasks requiring three dimensional visualisation and placement of your hands or other parts of your body

*Source:* Examples of each of the eight intelligences (Gardner, 1983). Bhattacharya & Sengupta ; *Emotional intelligence a science or a myth*, P.15

In 1975, Howard Gardner published ‘*The Shattered Mind*’ which introduces the concept of multiple intelligences. Later Howard Gardner (1986) in his book wrote about Multiple Intelligence and proposed ‘intrapersonal’ and ‘interpersonal’ intelligence as part of social intelligence, which later has been an important thread in the conceptualisation of the term emotional intelligence. He had classified eight intelligences as shown in Table 2.1.

It was in 1990, the Psychologists Peter Salovey and John Mayer published their landmark article, “Emotional Intelligence,” in the journal *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality* wherein they were trying to explain EI as a distinct form of intelligence. And the concept of emotional intelligence got popularized after the publication of psychologist and New York Times science writer Daniel Goleman’s book ‘*Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*’.

Mayer (2001) identified the psychological activities of the past century into five main periods in the evolution of emotional intelligence: separate narrow fields, precursor to EI, emergence of EI, popularisation and broadening of EI & research and institutionalisation of EI. The following table: 2.2 summarises the same

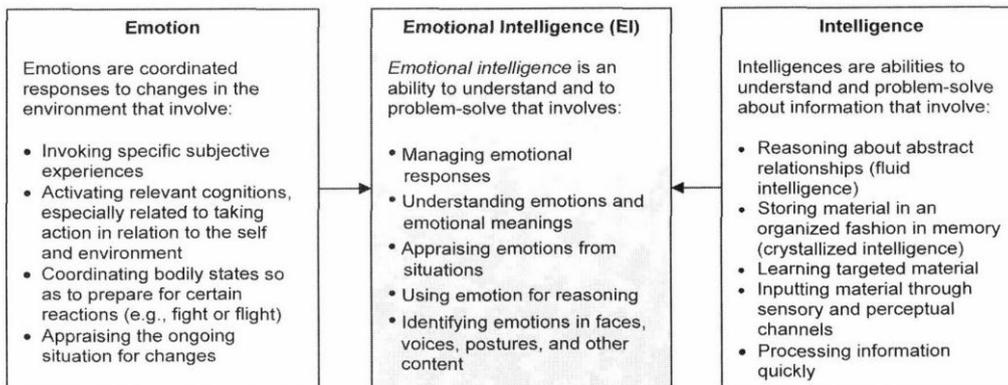
**Table 2. 2 - Five periods of development of emotions and intelligence in past century**

<b>1900-1969</b> <i>Intelligence and emotions as separate narrow fields</i>	✓ Intelligence research- a psychometric approach to intelligence is developed and refined
	✓ Emotions research: debates over what comes first; emotions or physiological reaction. Movement from Darwin’s theory of heritability and evolution of emotional responses which is culturally ascribed
<b>1970 – 1989</b> <i>Precursors to EI</i>	✓ Concept of social intelligence is introduced
	✓ The field of cognition and affect emerged to examine how emotions

	<p>interacted with thoughts</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Gardner theory of multiple intelligence describes an interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence that paves the way to the concept of EI</li> <li>✓ Empirical work on social intelligence developed four components : social skills, empathy skill, prosaically attitudes and emotionality (sensitivity)</li> <li>✓ Brain research began to separate out connection between emotion and cognition</li> </ul>
<p><b>1990-1993</b> <i>Emergence of EI</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Mayer &amp; Salovey publish a series of articles on EI</li> <li>✓ Ability measures of EI published</li> <li>✓ Editor of the journal Intelligence argues about the existence of EI</li> <li>✓ Further developments of EI in brain sciences</li> </ul>
<p><b>1994-1997</b> <i>The popularisation and broadening of EI</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Goleman published the book ‘Emotional intelligence which became the best seller</li> <li>✓ Time magazine mentions about EI</li> <li>✓ Measures based on mixed model theories were published</li> </ul>
<p><b>1998- present</b> <i>Institutionalisation of EI</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Refinement of the concept of EI</li> <li>✓ New measures of EI introduced</li> <li>✓ Increasing number of Peer reviewed articles on the subject</li> </ul>

Source: Summary and adaptation of Mayer (2001).Adapted from Rohr (2005). *Emotional intelligence: Correlates with exercise attitudes. P 12.*

**Figure 2.3 - The scope model of emotional intelligence**



Source: Mayer, Roberts, and Barsade (2008, 537).

Mayer, Roberts and Barsade (2008) in their later work mentions about Specific-Ability and Integrative-Model approaches, to adequately conceptualize and measure EI which was termed as the scope model of emotional intelligence. As per this model, EI is closely related to these two scientific concepts; intelligence and emotions. Both the terms have been defined in a consensual manner by psychologists for eg: Intelligence is defined as the ability to understand information and emotions is defined as a coordinated response to its environment. EI is the ability to reason about emotions as well as the capacity to use feelings, emotions and emotional information to assist reasoning (as cited in Gadot et al., 2001). So the concept of emotional intelligence formally developed out of the growing emphasis on research in the interaction of emotion and thought in the field of psychology in 1990's. From a general point of view, EI is about the intelligent use of emotions and utilizing the power or information contained in emotion to make effective decisions. (Ciarrochi & Mayer, 2007)

Distinction between emotional intelligence as a trait and emotional intelligence as an ability was done in 1990's which is further discussed in the next section of models of EI, that became popular later in the commercialisation and laid the foundation for much empirical research in emotional intelligence.

#### **2.1.4 Definitions of Emotional intelligence**

The existing theorisation of EI has been categorised into two; the purist exposition put forward by Mayer & Salovey (1997) that consider EI as ability, while Goleman (1998) and Bar-On (1997) combines the emotional processing with personality factors and consider it as a mixed model.

Emotional Intelligence is “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This was subsequently defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997) as “the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotion; the ability to access and or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge; and the ability to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth”.

According to Goleman (1998), “Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability to identify, assess and control emotions of one, of others and of a group and has five components.” The five components of emotional intelligence are self-awareness, self-regulation, social skills, motivation and empathy. Self-awareness (SA) refers to one’s ability to understand the internal state of emotional well-being, inclinations, preferences and the interplay of positive and destructive emotions. Self-regulation (SR) means how an individual can regulate the internal conditions and manage the flow of emotions. Motivation (MO) refers to the factors that drive an individual to achieve their goals. Empathy (EM) refers the individual’s skill to understand other emotional status or psychological status of other through interpersonal communication. Social skills (SS) are referred to infusion of an individual’s preferences into others without offending their ego or propensity.

Reuven Bar on (1997), was the first to use the term “emotional quotient” and defines it as an array of emotional and social abilities, including the ability to be aware of, understand, and express oneself, the ability to be aware of, understand, and relate to others, the ability to deal with strong emotions, and the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of a social or personal nature (Bar-On, 1997). In his model, Bar-On outlines five components of emotional

intelligence: intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general mood. Within these components are sub-components too.

Several theories associated with the emotional intelligence paradigm exist currently, the three that have generated the most interest in terms of research and application are the theories of Mayer and Salovey (1997), Bar-On (1997) and that of Goleman (1995,1998). Emotional intelligence has been referred to as a skill (Goleman, 1998), an aptitude (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), and as a combination (Roberts, Zeidner & Matthews 2001). While Bar -on model posit it as process oriented rather than outcome oriented and relates it to potential for performance or success. Though there exist different theories in explaining emotional intelligence, all of them seems to understand and measure the abilities and traits related to recognition and regulating emotions within oneself and others and hence the theories seems to be more of complimentary than contradictory (Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000). Perhaps this could be the reason that EI has gained a lot of attention in organisations and in academic research, in the past two decades. It seems to have touched as many areas of human endeavor quickly and expansively (Singh, 2008; MacCann, Mathews, Roberts & Zeidner, 2003).

### **2.1.5 Emotional Intelligence: The Indian perspective.**

The concept of Emotional Intelligence has its roots in Indian scriptures too. A concept called 'Stitha Pragya' (emotional stability) similar to the concept of emotional intelligence can be traced in the second chapter of 'Srimad Bhagavad Gita' written in 900 B C, one of the most profound renderings of the Hindu view of human life (2<sup>nd</sup> chapter, *sloka no.55-58*, cited in Ghosh,1972). Here lord Krishna, the protagonist talks about a unique interdependence between emotion and intelligence for effective decision

making. The construct of EI in the form of ‘Stitha Pragya’(emotional stability), ‘tyagam’(detaching or disassociating oneself from sufferings) have been practised as desired social behaviour and have served as guidelines when one has to deal with adversities in life (Sharma, 2012) in an Indian context. Therefore the importance of both emotion and intelligence in making decisions and achieving success in life was well accepted in India since ancient times. However the concept of emotions and intelligent use of them has been in discussion centuries ago in India but was not very popular across the world. Though serious research has not been done from Indian perspective in the context of emotional intelligence anyone who reads through the ancient Indian scripture will be aware, that EI is embedded in every text (Sharma, 2012; Emmerling, Shanwal & Mandal, 2008).

It is argued that the current conceptualization of emotional intelligence is largely based on the studies carried out in a Western cultural framework which is predominantly individualistic, hence emotional intelligence as a construct and the measures used to assess it need to be further validated in the Eastern culture which is predominantly collectivistic (Emmerling et al., 2008). A few of the Indian conceptualisations of Emotional intelligence are discussed below.

The rationale behind such a section here is due to the fact that emotional competencies are acquired during the process of socialisation; therefore the prevailing culture is expected to play a significant role (Sharma, 2012). EI competencies are likely to get affected by the individualistic or collectivistic culture of a society. India which has a collectivist culture where the group norms are valued will definitely have an influence in the acquisition of both personal and social competencies.

One of pioneering work in this area in an Indian context was done by Thingujam and Ram, (2000) wherein they developed an Indian adaptation of Schutte's emotional intelligence scale (1998). Singh (2003) defines emotional intelligence "as an ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional stimuli drawn from the inner self and immediate environment". Chadha and Singh, (2001) developed a situational test to test EI with primarily identifies three dimensions; emotional sensitivity, emotional maturity and emotional competency.

Mohan (2003) opines that emotional intelligence is a positive combination of a deep insight into one's emotional and cognitive capacities and a charming flair of communication, empathy and motivation, leading to personal optimism, inter-personal confluence and organizational excellence.

Bhattacharya (2003) described emotional intelligence as a total of emotional knowledge of 'self and others' and defines EI "as an aggregate of individuals cognition of own and others emotions, feelings, interpretations and action as per environmental demands to manipulate the consequence which in turn results in superior performance and better human relationships". A scale measuring EI in an Indian context was developed known as BEIS (Bhattacharya Emotional Intelligence Scale) and identifies five factors namely Appraisal of negative emotions (factor 1); Appraisal of positive emotions (factor 2); Interpersonal conflict and difficulty (factor 3); Interpersonal skill and flexibility (factor 4); Emotional facilitation and goal orientation (factor 5) thus measuring emotional appraisal for self and self in reference to 'interpersonal contexts'.

Sibia, Srivastava and Misra, (2005) also tried to make a conceptualisation of EI in a culturally appropriate context. They have identified four dimensions

namely social sensitivity (showing respect to significant others); pro-social values (helping cooperating, patience, endurance and tolerance); action tendencies (discipline, dedication, punctuality and persistence); and affective states (optimism, contentment, open mindedness and happiness).

Ranganathan (2011) put forward a model of emotional intelligence based on the emotional information involving a cognitive process which is shaped by several entities from the culture and one's own personality, that one process during an interaction. They define EI as "the ability of an individual to perceive various emotional stimuli associated with his/her self and his/her environment, appraise and regulate them, in order to produce appropriate behavioural response, resulting in improved intrapersonal and interpersonal outcomes.

Though the list not exhaustive, we find that EI as a concept continues to mature and tools to measure and the assessment will undergo much more refinement in the future as this is an area which has researched only in the last two decades.

### **2.1.6 Popular models of Emotional Intelligence**

For a better understanding of emotional intelligence, different theories and models have been put forward in the last two decades. While most of them argue that the goal of research is to identify a single theoretical framework for a concept to get the 'correct' version of emotional intelligence, another approach would be to acknowledge that having multiple theories can often serve to elucidate additional aspects of complex psychological constructs (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003, as cited in Nourizade & Mohseni, 2014 ). Therefore all the models and theories in the conceptualisation of EI fall under the three main lines of thought including: trait approach, ability approach and mixed approach.

The origins of the concept “emotional intelligence” dates back to 1990’s when Salovey and Mayer (1990) identified three broad skills: appraisal and expression of emotions, regulation of emotion and utilization of emotion. Later they redefined it into a four branch model (Mayer & Salovey 1997). The "purist" position espoused by Mayer and Salovey (1997) and their colleagues consider EI as ability similar to spatial or verbal skills and consider it as unique and distinct from IQ, personality and technical skills (Schutte et al., 2001). The four subcomponents (a) Perceiving Emotions - The ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others; (b) Emotional Facilitation of thought - The ability to generate, use, and feel emotion as necessary to communicate feelings, or employ them in cognitive processes; (c) Emotional Understanding - The ability to understand emotional information, how emotions combine and progress through emotional transitions, and to appreciate such emotional meanings; (d) Emotion Management -The ability to be open to feelings and to modulate them in oneself and others so as to promote personal understanding and growth. These four branches function hierarchically with perception of emotion at the bottom and emotion management at the top (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios, 2001). These four branches further merge into two domains experiential emotional intelligence and strategic emotional intelligence. The former is derived from emotional perception and emotional facilitation of thought branches and the latter from emotional understanding and emotion management, these two areas combine to form the overall level of emotional intelligence.

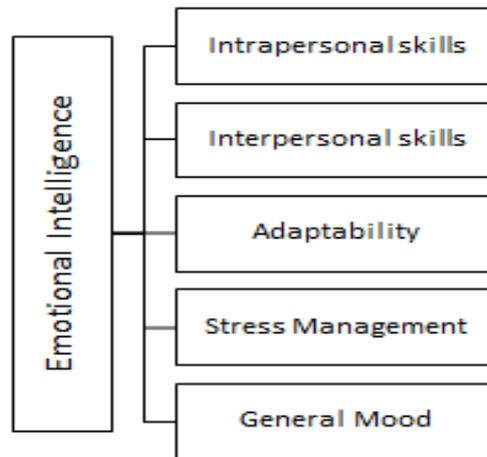
The others are "the mixed model", supported-by Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1998) which combines emotional processing with personality aspects such as optimism and persistence with regard to the performances he/she brings off in the social world. Daniel Goleman through his book

however popularised the concept and termed it more as a skill. Initially Goleman (1995, 1998) viewed EI as a total of personal competence and social competences. Personal competence determines how we manage ourselves and includes – self-awareness, self-regulation and motivation and social competence comprises of empathy and social skills. EI is about knowing what you are feeling and being able to handle those feelings without having them swamp you; being able to motivate yourself to get jobs done, be creative and perform at peak; and sensing what others are feeling, and handling relationships effectively. Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) EI model based on theory of performance has eighteen competencies that effectively distinguish individual differences in workplace performance. These eighteen emotional competencies of Goleman et al., (2002) underlie four general abilities. Self-awareness, self-management; social awareness and relationship management are the basic building blocks of emotional intelligence. Later Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee, among others, have researched the “competencies” of the four EI domains of EI and they claim to have identified 20 competencies or “capabilities”.

1. Self-Awareness - includes Emotional Self-awareness, Accurate Self-assessment, and Self-confidence.
2. Self-Management-includes Self-control, Adaptability, Conscientiousness, trustworthiness, Initiative, and Achievement Orientation.
3. Social Awareness - includes Empathy, Service Orientation, and Organizational Awareness.
4. Social Skills - includes Leadership, Influence, Developing Others, Change Catalyst, Communication, Conflict Management, Building Bonds, Teamwork & Collaboration

Apart from Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Goleman (1995, 1998) yet another equally influential model called the mixed model was proposed by Bar-On (1997) and this is non-cognitive in approach as well as orientation. This model was fundamentally based on personality characteristics. Bar-On and Parker (2000) non-cognitive model defines emotional intelligence as 'an array of non-cognitive abilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures'. Five broad areas of emotional intelligence were proposed in this model. Moreover, they believed that the components of this model of emotional intelligence develop over time, change throughout life, and can be improved through training and development programs, and that the model relates to the potential for performance rather than performance itself.

**Figure: 2.4 Bar on Model of Emotional Intelligence**



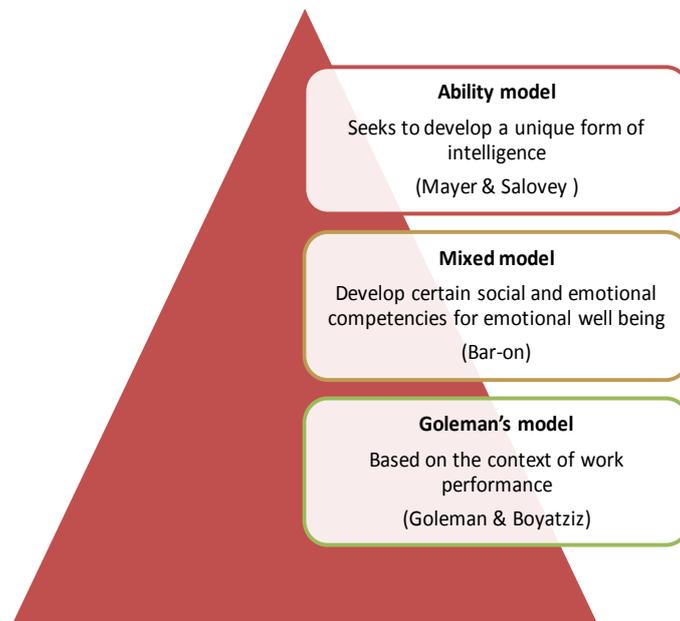
Source: Bar-On, R., & Parker, J. D. (2000). *The Bar-On EQ-i: YV: Technical manual*. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.

If one looks into the works of Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Mayer and Salovey (1997) about emotional intelligence and what Goleman (1995, 1998) and Bar-On (1997) have to say about the same construct on the other hand, one

may easily categorise their views into two brackets. For Salovey & Mayer (1990) and Mayer & Salovey (1997) emotional intelligence is a kind of 'ability' which is independent of traits and talents and preferred ways of behaving whereas Goleman (1995, 1998) and Bar-On (1997) believe EI to be a personality trait and non-cognitive ability, respectively (as cited in Webb, 2009).

The concept of EI has been defined in three perspectives; Mayer and Salovey tries to define EI as a unique form of intelligence and seeks to establish the validity and utility of a new form of intelligence. Bar on tries to conceptualize EI as a general measure of social and emotional intelligence that predicts emotional well-being, whereas Goleman defines EI as a capacity of an individual to master these specific skill and develop a theory on work performance. This can be depicted as follows

**Figure 2.5 Models of Emotional Intelligence.**



The ability models and the mixed models in the EI literature has been open to widespread criticism in the scientific community but has wide acclaim in the organisation. Theorists have used both of these models not as distinct but as complementary to find practical applications in Human resource development.

Yet another popular model of EI which focussed on workplace was developed by Palmer and Stough in 2001. As per this model emotional intelligence is the skill with which you perceive, express reason with and manage your own and others emotions. It has seven dimensions or competencies of EI- (1) emotional self-awareness (2) emotional expression (3) emotional awareness of others (4) emotional reasoning (5) emotional self-management (6) emotional management of others and (7) emotional self-control. Palmer, Stough, Harmer and Gignac (2009) later developed the GENOS EI model which is specifically designed in workplace as a learning and development tool for HR professionals and occupational psychologists involved in the identification, selection and development of employee.

Cooper (1997) based on an organisational perspective, identified four dimensions that make up emotional intelligence- emotional literacy, emotional fitness, emotional depth, emotional alchemy. This model was developed for organisations but did not become much popular.

Yet another model proposed, was that of Petridges and Furnham, (2000, 2001) which emerges from the distinction of two EI constructs – ability EI and Trait EI. Trait model of emotional intelligence views EI in two forms, one as an ability to perceive, utilize and process affect laden information and two as a trait EI (emotional self-efficacy) as constellation of emotion related self-perceptions and dispositions.

Wong and Law (2002) developed a model for EI which suited the cultural context of Chinese that was primarily based on Mayer and Salovey (1997) EI model. According to them EI is measured using four dimensions: Self emotional appraisal (SEA) measures the individual's ability to understand their emotions, others' emotional appraisal (OEA) is the ability to recognize and understand other people's emotions, use of emotion (UOE) is the tendency to motivate oneself to enhance performance, and regulation of emotion (ROE) assesses the ability to regulate emotions

### **2.1.7 Critiques of emotional intelligence**

Now due to these varied definitions, itself emotional intelligence as a concept has wide spread criticism too. Criticism from the academic community was largely spurred by the immense popularity of Goleman's (1998) book and the subsequent proliferation of models and scales for emotional intelligence, which claimed that emotional intelligence could guarantee success in almost any area of one's life. Some academicians have criticised the concept of emotional intelligence as suspect because most of its conclusions are based on data from proprietary databases, which are not available for scientific scrutiny (Landy, 2005). Others have questioned the very basis of the construct because emotion and cognition are distinct, and whatever is being claimed as emotional intelligence is merely an assortment of habits, skills, and choices (Locke, 2005).

The Wechsler intelligence scale one of the most popular and widely use scales to measure IQ, took around 60 years of research behind it (Mayer et al., 2001). There have been debates raging for the past hundred years over traditional intelligence. This has in fact strengthened the knowledge base and applicability of intelligence assessment, following from this the debate over the

validity of emotional intelligence is also likely to follow a similar path (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003). They asserted that the existence of several theoretical viewpoints or rather lack of conceptual coherence within the emotional intelligence paradigm does not indicate a weakness but shows the robustness of the field (Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2004; Ybarra et al., 2013) Also the pace, the quantum and quality of research in the area of emotional intelligence reflects the activities of a healthy field (Mayer et al., 2001; Nourizade & Mohseni, 2014)

## **2.2 Emotional intelligence at workplace**

This section explains emotional intelligence at workplaces and its outcomes to individual performance, leadership, team orientation, interpersonal skills, stress and personal outcomes and concludes with the importance of EI for managers.

### **2.2.1 Introduction**

An Internet search can easily result in two million or more references to Emotional Intelligence, and a number of organizations have developed tools that are devoted to studying the concepts and applying them to personal and community life, education, and the workplace. One of the primary reasons for the interest in this term is, as it lays down the foundation for competencies that are vital to success and managerial effectiveness. Mc Clelland (1973) has said that to assess performance one should assess “*competence rather than intelligence*”. Other researchers like Spencer and Spencer (1993) joined in this view where they defined competency as a cluster of motives, traits, self-concept, knowledge and skill. Parry (1998) later on defined it as a cluster of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Intelligence is needed to an extent to gain an entry into organisational position, but personal and organisational success is

attributed mainly due to other factors like empathy, maturity and communication (Bennis, 2001). Knowledge and skill can be acquired through training, development and learning, but to improve performance one has to increase the knowledge part but should also have the necessary skills to apply the same at the right time in the right manner. Managing ones emotions and maintaining healthy relationships with colleagues play a vital role in projecting a positive attitude towards work (Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Cooper, 1997; Hesselbein et al., 1996; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Sosik & Megerian, 1999- as cited in Bhattacharya & Sengupta 2007). EI has a significant impact on the personal and professional success of individuals and is seen as a powerful tool to improve the efficiency of employees and foster a healthy work culture. It has been empirically proven that EI impacts the performance and well-being characteristics of individuals and teams, and facilitates organizational effectiveness and competitive advantage (Krishnaveni & Deepa, 2010).

There has been innumerable research evidence over the years to prove that emotional intelligence at workplace is necessary for better job performance, team orientation, to develop interpersonal skills, for effective leadership etc. It is said that very few psychological investigations seem to have appeared in so vast areas of human endeavour so quickly and expansively as has the concept of emotional intelligence (MacCann et al., 2003).

A recent meta-analysis suggested that mixed EI measures capture content from the following constructs: conscientiousness, extraversion, general self-efficacy, self-rated performance, ability EI, emotional stability, and cognitive ability and thus EI do have a predictive power in the professional success over and above general cognitive capacity and personality (Joseph, Jin, Newman & O'Boyle, 2015). A brief overview of research done on emotional intelligence

and workplace outcomes and individual outcomes shows the wide range of literature done in this area

### **2.2.2 Emotional intelligence and Performance.**

A look at the literature reveals a growing amount of research linking EI and performance and that it has a positive contribution (Dulewicz, Higgs & Slaski, 2003; Carmeli & Josman, 2006; Nel & De Villiers, 2004; O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver & Story, 2011; Chen, Bian & Hou, 2015). The fact that employers are increasingly taking into account EI competencies in the recruitment and selection process as well as in employee development programs is a proof for the predictive power of EI in performance (Chaudry & Usman, 2011).

In a study done by Nel and De Villiers (2004) showed emotional intelligence is related to job performance and self-management cluster showed the strongest relationship with job performance, and also directly related to performance in a call centre environment.

A study on store managers in a prominent retail chain found that the ability to handle stress predicted net profits, sales per square foot, and sales per employee; per dollar investment returns (Lusch & Serpkenci, 1990). According to Webb (2009) this ability to handle stress by managing ones feelings is a key to emotional intelligence. Apart from job specific knowledge and skills, to be a performer and scale up his performance as a manager one needs knowledge about self but also knowledge on how to use that knowledge and apply those skills.

In a study done in 15 multinational firms amongst 300 top level executives, six competencies that differentiated them from averagers were; Influence, Team Leadership, Organisational Awareness, Self-confidence,

Achievement drive and Leadership, most of which are EI competencies (Webb, 2009). A competency research conducted in top firms among top performers in US have identified that one third of their performance is attributed to their cognitive skills while the rest of the two third is attributed to the presence of emotional competencies says Goleman (1998) in his famous book. Managers who scored above the median in at least nine competencies showed a whopping 139% gains in profits over the years, than their partners who scored low in EI competencies (Boyatziz, 1999).

A study on 100 bank employees by Manila University showed that IQ scores were virtually unrelated with job performance whereas emotional quotient score accounted for 27% of job performance (as cited in Singh, 2003). Deeter-Schmelz and Sojka (2003) attempted to find the factors in EI that lead to increased sales performance and found the factor 'empathy' exhibited the most in the ability to read the customer moods and suggested that training in emotional intelligence would help them in improving the interpersonal interaction with customers.

As per experts, individuals with the highest emotional intelligence excel at four interrelated skills: (1) the ability to persist and stay motivated in the face of frustration; (2) the ability to control impulses; (3) the ability to control their emotions; and (4) the ability to empathize with others. Bar-on, Handley and Fund (2006) in an extensive study among 1171 US air force recruiters, indicates that EQ predicts 28% of the variance in the performance of the low performing groups (who meet less than 80% of their recruiting goals) and high performing groups (who meet less than 100% or more than their recruiting goals) and recruiters with high EI levels were able to place recruits in positions that closely matches their skills and knowledge. Several other survey based

researches done in this area across the world also vouches for the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance.

Several other studies linking EI and performance indicates the strong link between the two variables (Shaffer, Hom Hung, Hong Kong, & Shaffer 2005; Dulewicz, Higgs, & Slaski 2003; Lam & Kirby 2002; Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall & Salovey 2006; Ali, Garner & Magadley, 2011). Sanker and Sayeed (2006) in their study amongst 139 managers working in western India found that EI correlated to various dimension of professional development like promotions and job satisfaction. Another Indian based study done with 100 MBA students found that EI was related self-reported managerial performance after having controlled the impact of GMA (General Mental Ability) and the personality factor of conscientiousness (Mathew & Mulla, 2011). Yet another study done in India, Karnataka in the automobile sector found that the managers performance were rated as average, which was as perceived by the top management and results indicated their emotional intelligence scores were in range of low to medium, (Kulkarni, Janakiram & Kumar, 2009) which again explains the relationship between emotional intelligence and performance. A significantly positive correlation was found between EI & performance amongst 300 employees in the rail road industry in Tehran, Iran (Bahmanabadi & Jafari, 2014).

Finally a meta-analysis study recently published from an overall data of 2168 employed adults concluded that there was a strong correlation between EI and performance. The traits when put together to performance was able to explain 62% of the total variance which is a substantial statistic that cannot be simply ignored (Bailey, 2015). All these show that EI is a construct worthy to be considered and highlights its importance in a workplace.

### **2.2.3 Emotional Intelligence and Leadership**

According to George (2000) leadership is an emotion laden process and therefore EI should matter in leadership (Mc Cleskey, 2014). Bar-On (1997) identifies an array of competencies in his model of EI, as Intrapersonal skills, Inter- personal skills, Adaptability, Stress management and General mood. This vast array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities guide a person's ability to cope with environmental and contextual demands. Similarly, Salovey and Mayer (1990) model defined EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and action". This model focused on specific mental aptitudes required for recognizing emotions and acting accordingly. The aptitude for recognizing emotions is highly regarded by various scholars who believe that individuals with high EI are more effective in leading people and organizations (Goleman, 1998, 2000; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Daus, 2002; Ashkanasy, 2003; Mayer et al., 2001). According to Goleman 1998, all great leaders have one thing alike in them, that they all have a high degree of emotional intelligence. He says that leaders with high levels of EI articulate and arouse enthusiasm and a shared vision and this 'shared *vision*' is a common characteristic of transformational leaders (Nielsen & Daniels, 2012). It is said that transformational styles of leadership is the best in today's workspaces. In addition, studies find relationships between EI and positive transformational and charismatic leadership (Sadri 2012; Mathew & Gupta 2015), as well as increased employee job satisfaction (Wong & Law, 2002; Anari, 2012; Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, & Farr-Wharton, 2014).

A number of studies have shown correlations between EI and leadership effectiveness (Barbuto, Gottfredson & Searle, 2014; Walter, Cole &

Humphrey, 2011; Cherniss, 2010). Cooper and Sawaf (1997) in his article have cited that 7% of leadership success is attributable to intellect; 93% of success comes from trust, integrity, authenticity, honesty, creativity, presence and resilience. George (2000) in his conceptual paper asserts that feelings (moods and emotions) play a significant role in leadership effectiveness.

Gardner and Stough (2002) in a study among 110 senior level managers applied EI Test to predict the leadership styles and found that EI is strongly correlated to the transformational styles of leadership than the transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. Several other studies also show similar results (Polychroniou, 2009; Palmer et al., 2001). A study done at Johnson & Johnson Ltd to determine if leadership competencies varied across low to high performing groups, it was found that high performing groups scored substantially higher than averagers in self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management dimension of ECI (Cavallo & Brienza, 2002) and even more interesting was the longitudinal study conducted later on these managers who scored high EI was, that they received a higher salary increase in the next five years.

Mandell and Pherwani, (2003) in their study attempted to find the predictive relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership and identified a significant relationship. Other studies have also discovered positive relationships between organizational hierarchical position and EI levels (Lopes et al., 2000), and between EI levels and problem-solving skills (Lyons & Schneider, 2005).

The Centre for Creative Leadership study (2004) found that when careers of leaders get derailed, the most common reason (75%) is that people lack crucial emotional competencies; they can't deal effectively with interpersonal

problems, they can't guide teams through conflicts and other turbulence, and they can't adapt to change or gain trust. Other researchers too have supported this view (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Parry, 1998). Yet another study done among 122 senior executives in mid Australia, to identify the factors that better explain Leadership effectiveness, ability EI explained much of the variance even after controlling the factors like personality and reasoning. The ability measure of emotional intelligence was able to predict effective leadership over and above already well-established workplace measures such as reasoning ability and personality. In contrast, self-reported measures of emotional intelligence had little to offer over and above well-established measures of personality and reasoning (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005).

Wilderom, Hur, Wiersma, Berg and Lee (2015) in a study done with Korean employees of public sector organisation found that emotionally intelligent team leaders are rated as more effective by their followers, and more effective in shaping better service climates as they exhibit more of transformational leadership behaviours. In a similar line, a significant amount of literature has provided evidence that transformational leadership is predicted by emotional intelligence (Coetzee & Schaap, 2004; Hayashi, 2005; Walter & Bruch 2007; Vivian Tang, Yin & Nelson, 2010)

Walter et al. (2011) in their conceptual paper suggest that EI helps to better understand leadership emergence, specific leadership behaviours, and leader effectiveness. In a study done by Ramchunder and Martins (2014) within the police sector found that emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness was significantly correlated. Barbuto, Gottfredson, and Searle (2014) in their study with leaders and their followers as respondents found that EI serve as a significant antecedent for servant leadership, which is actually a form of people centred leadership. Significant relationships were also found

between EI and transformational leadership, which is again a relationship oriented leadership (Palmer et al., 2001; Mathew & Gupta, 2015). The above evidences done over a period of time significantly supports the notion that emotional intelligence is an underlying competency for effective leadership.

#### **2.2.4 Emotional Intelligence and Team Orientation**

There have been numerous claims on the role of emotional intelligence and team orientation. As per the studies of Goleman (2001) and Goleman, Boyatziz and McKee (2002) to influence and direct people one must have emotional competencies and having EI helps managers to develop a climate where employees are encouraged to come out with their best of ability. Having high levels of Emotional Intelligence facilitates various aspects of the team process including effective problem solving, high quality production and performance, trust, commitment, interpersonal relationships, and collaboration (Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter, and Buckley, 2003).

Emotionally intelligent leaders form strong relationships and solid team support system. Barrick et al., (1998) in his empirical study found that emotional management, a component of EI is considered significant to build cohesive viable work teams. Similarly ‘empathy’ yet another component that makes up EI are considered as a pro-social behaviour, which is crucial to team cohesion (Thoits, 1989). Druskat and Wolff (2001) state that Emotional Intelligence is not the only factor that makes an effective team, but is more of a foundation upon which a team is built. According to him emotionally intelligent teams build norms and these norms form the base of trust between team members, the development of group identity, collaboration between members, and group efficiency. Luca and Tarricone (2001) in a case study to assess the effect of emotional intelligence on team work found that successful

teams had a strong sense of awareness of the impact of emotions on team success. Jordan and Troth (2002) found in his study that, teams that displayed a higher Emotional Intelligence level simultaneously did well with team problem solving as opposed to those teams whose Emotional Intelligence levels were lower. This could be because the members were in control of their emotions and were open to others viewpoints in trying to find solutions. Feyerhem and Rice (2002) in the outcomes of their study showed that the construct of ‘managing others emotions’ had a significant positive correlation with overall team performance.

Similarly Stough and DeGuara (2003), in a study done found that the construct of *emotional control*, was positively correlated with one’s ability to work with team members. There’s also been some preliminary empirical evidence linking higher levels of EI with greater social cohesion in student teams (Abraham, 1999; Rapisarda, 2002). Emotional intelligence at a group level has yielded positive findings too. Koman and Wolff (2008) in their study done with eighty one military teams found that leader’s EI has an effect on the team EI which ultimately leads team performance and highlights the role of the leader EI in building team norms. Chang et al., (2012) in their study on team performance and leader EI, found that high team performance is explained either when the leader EI is high or when the average member EI is also high, and associated to trust.

According to the study of Ayoka, Callan and Hartel, (2008) done with organisational teams, found that teams with not so well-defined emotional intelligence climates were associated with increased task and relationship conflict and this affects the team members. A study done with a student population found that EI competencies were positively correlated to group cohesiveness (Rapisarda, 2002). A similar study with a nursing team reveals

that emotion regulation which is a key competence of EI was positively correlated to group cohesiveness and client outcomes and appraisal of emotions has a negative correlation (Quoidbach & Hansenne, 2009). Natalia (2014) found in her study that a trusting relationship emerges when there exist a team emotional intelligence that enables both control of team member's emotions and awareness of team member's emotions

A study done in Indian IT firm, to study the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and team effectiveness of self-managed teams and cross functional teams showed that self-managed teams are more emotionally intelligent and their emotional intelligence competencies contributes to high teamwork effectiveness as compared to cross functional teams. The self-managed teams seem to show greater cohesion within the teams too (Gujral & Ahuja, 2011). All the above cited works give us an indication that emotional intelligence has an impact on team cohesion, in building trust and solving problems and an increased team performance overall .

### **2.2.5 Emotional Intelligence and Interpersonal skills**

An individual's emotional intelligence dictates ones interpersonal relationships too (Goleman, 1998). Emotions can lead to team camaraderie and increased productivity and emotions can also prove to be destructive at times too. The ability to understand and experience other people's emotions, or 'empathy', has been identified as an important element in EI, as it can facilitate positive interpersonal relationships and the establishment of affective bonds (George, 2000; Wolff, Pescosolido & Druskat, 2002) which is considered to be effective while leading others. Furthermore in a study done in Australian firms in the construction industry, it was found that the factors that make up EI, namely self-management, social awareness and relationship management, as an

important prerequisite for effective application of interpersonal effectiveness (Sunindijo & Zou, 2013). Research works also show that personality possessing high EI while interacting with the social environment produce win-win relationships and outcomes for themselves and others (Abraham 2004, Carmeli & Josman 2006, and Cote & Miners 2006 - as cited in Kunnanat 2008).

EI is strongly associated to social adjustments among both adults and older adolescents (Lopes et al., 2003; Chapman and Hayslip, 2005) and better friendship quality (Lopes et al., 2003; Lopes et al., 2004; Brackett et al., 2004). Emotional intelligence is positively correlated to perceived quality of interaction with the opposite sex (Lopes et al., 2004) and perceived quality of romantic relationships (Brackett et al., 2005). In a comprehensive study done by Schutte et al., (2001), that compiles seven distinct studies strongly supports the relation between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations. In this study it was seen that individuals with higher EI had higher empathy perspective taking, higher self-monitoring scores, higher social skills, showed more cooperative responses towards partners in crisis situations (used a prisoners dilemma situation) and reported higher marital satisfaction. In a sample of 101 working executives in a pharmaceutical company, in Mumbai, India, Emotional Intelligence was found to be significantly related to job performance with individuals who have high interpersonal interaction at their jobs than the low interaction group of employees (Jadhav & Mulla, 2010) According to this study many of the qualities like Empathy, self-monitoring, social skills and cooperation etc that are expected to facilitate successful relationships were present in EI.

### **2.2.6 Emotional Intelligence and Stress**

Stress is conceived as emotional reaction (mostly negative) to various environmental stimuli. Some people thrive on stressful situations while others are over whelmed by them (Selye, 1956). It's one's emotional response to a particular situation that accounts for the varying ability of people to handle stress that makes the difference. Stress does not have the same impact on every one as there exists individual differences and hence the way in which individuals cope with stressful situations are also different. EI can be used as a framework for an individual to learn on how to cope and control strong emotions (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002). Proponents of Emotional intelligence have made large claims that with EI, stress can also be managed well as individuals with EI can understand and regulate emotions in them and act according to the context (Goleman, 2001).

Mathews et al., (2006) compare EI and personality factors using the five factor model and found that low EI was related to worry states and avoidance coping even when Personality factor was controlled. Pau et al., (2004) completed a qualitative follow-up study to identify how dental students with high and low EI differed in dealing with stress. The researchers found that students with ratings in the high EI group were more apt to utilize reflection and appraisal, social and intrapersonal and organization and time-management skills. Students with ratings in the low EI group were more apt to rely on unhealthy behaviours such as procrastination, social withdrawal, or use of tobacco products. Similar results were observed where in significant relationships between perceived emotional intelligence and stress coping was found in studies done with nursing and dental students respectively (Montes-Berges & Augusto, 2007; Naidoo, 2008).

A study done among 120 management students found a negative correlation between EI and stress and anxiety (Sunil & Rooprai, 2009). When the role of emotional intelligence in predicting stress and health among adults in different age groups was examined in several studies (Chapman & Clarke 2003; Dulewicz, Higgs & Slaski, 2003; Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002 – as cited in Ranganathan, 2011) and in studies of Lopes et al., (2006); Choubey, Singh and Pandey (2009) the findings revealed that emotional intelligence and its various component abilities, in general, are associated with better health outcomes and EI is associated with lower levels of stress. The ability to manage emotion in self was found the best predictor of stress as well as health. Similarly Gohm, Corser and Dalsky (2005) observed that emotional intelligence is potentially helpful in reducing stress for some individuals, but unnecessary or irrelevant for those who are confused and having average emotional intelligence and found to be highly stressed for such people. Other researchers have documented the significant role of emotion management in reducing/ preventing stress experience and its negative outcomes also (Duran & Ray, 2004; Hunt & Evans, 2004; Pau & Croucher, 2003- as cited in Choubey et al., 2009). Research findings of several studies have consistently shown the inverse relationship between EI and perceived stress (Landa, López-Zafra, Martos, & Aguilar-Luzón, 2008; Chu 2010; Wu, 2011; Min, 2014)

The above research evidences point that higher emotional intelligence leads to lesser incidences of stress or ability to handle stress with emotion management and the study results confirm that individuals who have higher emotional intelligence have the ability to withstand stressful events and situations.

### **2.2.7 Emotional Intelligence and Personal outcomes.**

EI has been associated with several other variables in the organisational and personal life too. In a study conducted among women teachers in Efhasan, it was found that a woman who possesses high EI manage marital conflicts efficiently (Veshki & Jazayeri, 2012). EI also contributes to better quality of marital life (Smith, Heaven & Ciarrochi, 2008; Rajabi, Ghorbani & Khojasteh, 2011; Zeidner, Kloda, & Matthews, 2013) and better marital relationships (Schutte et al., 2001; Brackett, Warner & Bosco, 2005; Joshi & Thingujam, 2009). Evidences of EI being associated to personal outcomes like lesser incidences of depression or vice versa (Goldernberg, Matheson & Mantler 2006; Hansenne & Bianchi, 2009; Herrero, Sábado & Benito, 2014) and in the case of women population only (Salguero, Extremera, & Berrocal, 2012), coping skills (Goldenberg, Matheson & Mantler, 2006; Downey, Johnston, Hansen, Birney & Stough, 2010; Tsarenko & Strizhakova, 2013) has been reported. EI has an impact on individual well-being (Lenaghan, Buda, & Eisner 2007; Schutte, & Malouff, 2011; Montes-Berges & Landa, 2014) & work-family balance (Carmeli 2003; Lenaghan et al., 2007; Koubova, & Buchko, 2013), entrepreneurial qualities (Cross & Travaglione, 2003; Ahmetoglu, Leutner, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2011; Ingram, Peake, Stewart, & Watson, 2014) too.

The review of literature done suggests that EI have a competitive edge in both personal and professional lives and as a result are better performers and happier. For success in the modern workplace which is mostly practised in an increasingly stressful and emotionally taxing environment which is characterized by high competition, volatility, uncertainty and ambiguous environment, EI skills provide an advantage. In other words EI in individual helps in adjusting and adapting to the emotions present in the environment and

effectively solve problems in a productive manner and that could be the reason for the rampant discussions on this topic for the past two decades.

### **2.2.8 Emotional Intelligence for Managers**

Today emotions and emotional skills are considered to be very vital for managers as it will help to create and nourish positive relationships by effectively managing their emotions. Therefore the traditional stereotype role of a rational manager has been replaced by one of that of an emotional manager (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003). EI helps in self-monitoring of emotions and understand others feelings which help the individual to take informed effective decisions in a given situation (Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Cooper, 1997; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Singh, 2003; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003) all have acknowledged this viewpoint in their research findings. The employee's motivation, satisfaction and retention are therefore related to the managers' interaction with them; hence the managers have to play a dual role of both, a nurturing boss and that of a task oriented manager (Cooper & Saawaf 1997; Bryson, 2004). This demands a high degree of emotional intelligence to remain calm and cool and control their emotions at trying situations with their follower as well as the leaders as the situation is. Several research studies on the association between employee satisfaction and job performance suggests that the single most important contributor to the feelings of employee engagement, empowerment and satisfaction is based on the relationship they have with their immediate boss in the firm (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001; Baumruk, 2006; Kompas & Sridevi, 2010). Often managers who fail are those who are rigid and maintain poor relationships. They are unable to adapt themselves to changing workplace demands, organisational culture and technology.

The workplace motivation of the employees has changed over the past decades. To emerge successful, managers need to pay attention to the emotional elements of decision making and leadership. Since a manager interacts with lot of people at the operational level, their interaction pattern, leadership style and communication skills affect the interacting individual employee's motivational needs. Therefore the construct of EI becomes important as it relates to motivation, adeptness in relationships and self-regulation of emotions. All the more, EI has become increasingly relevant for managers as it is seen that they are able to create and maintain a competitive advantage by superior performance (Webb, 2009; Shih & Susanto 2010; Trivellas, Gerogiannis & Svarna, 2013; Shahhosseini, Silong, & Ismaill, 2013) enhanced innovation (Parke, Seo, & Sherf, 2015; Zhang, Chen, & Sun, 2015), restored trust (Prati et al., 2003; Mcclesky, 2014) teamwork and motivation (Vidyarathi, Anand, & Liden, 2014; Mathew & Gupta, 2015) all of which are building blocks to managerial effectiveness.

The literature reviews done above reiterates that Emotional Intelligence can enhance one's success and job effectiveness either as a manager or as a leader. By common understanding 'effective managers' are those who achieve results and contributes to success of the organisation or in other words, it is the extent to which the manager achieves the output requirements of his position (Luthans, 1988; Gillard & Price, 2005). Gupta (1996) defines managerial effectiveness as the ability of a manager to carry out the activities that is required out of his profession while achieving the desired results, both for present as well as the future needs. Sixteen dimensions were identified to be the most important for managerial effectiveness; confidence in subordinates, communication and task assignment, networking, managing colleagues, discipline, resource utilisation, management of market environment, conflict

resolution, integrity and communication, client management, motivating , delegation, image building, welfare management, consultative and inspection and innovation. Emotional intelligence contains many of the above dimensions in them and is therefore of primary importance for effectiveness of managers.

Mintzberg, (1973) in his managerial roles approach theorised ten different roles played by a manager in any organisation. According to him a manager has to play the role of a leader, figurehead, liasoner, disseminator, spokesperson disturbance handler, entrepreneur, resource person, negotiator and one who monitors. According to him managers become effective when they use a combination of these roles as per the organisational context. Using EI competencies, managers can perform these multiple roles much more efficiently and also create a link between the top management and his followers through shared understanding and thereby achieve the organisational objectives.

## 2.3 Conflict and Conflict Management

This section attempts to explain the concepts of conflict in terms of its causes, types, models for managing conflict, outcomes of conflict, measures of conflict management styles and the importance of conflict management for managers.

### 2.3.1 Introduction

Conflict occurs between people in all kinds of human relationships and in all social settings. Conflict is normal, ubiquitous and unavoidable and is an inherent feature of human existence (Bercovitch, Kremenyu & Zartman, 2009). It is an organizational reality which everyone faces when working with others. It can arise anywhere between managers and subordinates, managers and supervisors, with the peer group and with the CEO and so on (Klunk, 1997). It can happen between individuals and groups and shows with in an individual. It is inherently neither good nor bad by itself, but can be harmful and dysfunctional and if used in a constructive manner becomes functional. The effectiveness of individual employees, teams and the entire organisation depends on how they manage these conflicts. It is said that managers spend 18-20 percent of their time managing conflict (Thomas, 1992; Accountemps Survey, 2011) and evidence suggests that conflict and conflict management at work substantially influences individual, group and organisational effectiveness (De Dreu & Beersma, 2005). As said earlier, conflict if not handled well can negatively affect job performance, morale and eventually the performance of the organisation itself. Managers need to first educate themselves and then help their team learn how to handle conflict effectively. The primary onus lies with the manager in setting the tone for the same.

Conflict has been defined variously by many authors but common to all these definitions are that conflict is a perception (Robbins & Judge 2011; Spaho, 2013). Conflict is a process which begins anytime a person perceives that another person (s) has/have or is capable of affecting anything of value to the former (Wall & Callister, 1995). Due to a wide range of potential differences among people like cultural, ethical, educational backgrounds, the absence of conflict usually signals the absence of meaningful interaction. It is quite difficult to conceive a situation which is conflict free. Conflict is defined as a process in which one party perceives that its interests are being opposed or negatively affected by another party (Wall & Callister, 1995).

A close look at the literature reveals many definitions (Fink, 1968) agree that conflict is a process involving two or more parties. Likewise, scholars have agreed that a party to be in conflict must perceive the opposition of the other. However there exists some divergence of opinion in conflict management literature as to what the “other” is opposing. Ruble and Thomas (1976) indicates that the party’s “concerns” or “something cared about”; Deutsch (1980) talks about “activities”; Rahim (1983) considers conflict as an interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities which could be individuals, groups, or even organizations; Donohue and Kolt (1992) refer it as needs or interests; Pruitt and Rubin (1986) discuss aspirations; Putnam and Poole (1987) cite it as other’s interference with the party’s goods, aims, and values while Marquis and Huston (1996) terms it as internal discord as a result of differences in ideas, values, or feelings. Since concerns, something cared about, goals, aims, values, activities, interests and aspirations are closely related terms, an umbrella definition specifying that the other in a conflict, is blocking the party’s interest(s) or goal(s).

### 2.3.2 Causes of conflict

Some of the major cause for conflicts (Wall & Callister, 1995) can be summarised as seen below.

**Table.2.3 Causes of conflict**

Major reasons	Dimensions
<b>Individual Characteristics</b>	Personality
	Values
	Goals
	Commitment to position
	Stress
	Anger
	Desire for autonomy
<b>Interpersonal Factors</b>	Perceptual Interface
	Perception that other has high goals
	Other's intentions counter to party's
	Other's intentions counter to party's fairness norms
	Other's behavior seen as harmful
	Distrust of other
	Misunderstanding
<b>Communications</b>	Distortions and misunderstandings
	Hostility
	Dislikes
	High goals
	Insults
	Intended distributive behavior

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<b>Major reasons</b>	<b>Dimensions</b>
<b>Behaviour</b>	Reduction of party's (other's) outcomes
	Blocking party's goals
	Low interaction
	Power struggles
<b>Structure</b>	Closeness
	Power imbalances
	Creation of interdependence
	Distributive relationship
<b>Previous Interactions</b>	Status differences
	Preferential treatment of one side
	Past failures to reach agreement
	Past history of conflict
<b>Issues</b>	Locked-in conflict behaviors
	Other results of conflict
	Complex vs. simple
	Multiple vs. few
<b>Issues</b>	Vague vs. clear
	Principled
	Size
	Divisibility

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*Source : Wall & Callister, Conflict and its Management, Journal of Management 1995, pg 5.*

### **2.3.3 Types of Conflict**

On a broader level conflict is classified into three - Inter personal or goal conflict, intrapersonal and unconscious conflict. Intrapersonal conflicts are the conflicts caused within the individual. These conflicts arise as a result of two or

more motives or goals to be achieved at a time therefore also called as goal conflicts.

Lewin (1935) identified three patterns of conflict: approach-approach, avoidance-avoidance, and approach-avoidance. In the approach-approach type of conflict, the individual is faced with the necessity of making a choice between two (or more) desirable goals which are of positive valence and equally powerful. Since both goals are desirable, this is the least stressful situation. Such conflicts are not so harmful, because after selecting one, the other one automatically subsides or loses its importance to him. But in some situation choice will be very difficult. When the individual is faced with two goals, both of which are negative, or repellent it's the avoidance-avoidance conflict situation. In such conflicts, both are unwanted goals, but he cannot keep quiet without opting also as the individual is caught between two repelling threats, fears or situations. When the person cannot choose either of them he/she may try to escape from the field itself. This type of conflict situation is a stable equilibrium in which a movement away from one goal is countered by an increase in the repulsion of the other goal so that the individual returns to the point where he was at the beginning of the conflict. The third one is the approach avoidance which is the most complex and difficult to resolve as it presents a scenario which is both attractive (positive valence) and repelling (negative valence) too. The attraction of the goal and inability to approach it leads to frustration and tension. The resolution of this conflict depends upon the sum total of both positive and negative valences. If the sum total of attractive valence takes upper hand, the individual accepts it or reject it if the sum total of negative valence is more powerful.

Interpersonal conflicts are conflicts between two individuals and it happens when an individual potentially jeopardizes another's goals, wishes, or

expectations. Interpersonal conflict usually arises when one party feels another is trying to prevent his/her goals from being achieved (Antonioni, 1998). Solutions to interpersonal conflict usually require the fulfilment of at least one of the parties wants and needs (Antonioni, 1998). Some researchers view interpersonal conflict as cyclical and constant. Within these cycles, the issue is not always obvious, while at other times, the issue rises to the surface, becoming evident. Others view interpersonal conflict as dynamic, causing change within the relationship through resolution (elimination) of the conflict (Walton, 1987).

The mental conflict below the level of conscious awareness is called unconscious conflict. The conflicts in conscious level, when repressed, shifts to unconscious. Here the desires which cannot be satisfied at conscious level are repressed to unconscious level as a mechanism of escaping. Many of our wants raised by 'Id' may not be socially acceptable. Such wants are objected by the 'Ego' and the 'Super ego' and repressed to unconscious. The repressed desires or wishes remain active in the unconscious part of our mind. They slowly gather strength by making alliance with other similar experiences and become stronger. This group of repressed wants which is working for the satisfaction try to come back to the conscious. This process is called complex. As soon as complexes are formed they give rise to conflicts in the unconscious. They try to come back to conscious, but prevented by censor or preconscious. So they try to enter the conscious level when censor is at rest or sleep. They may appear in the form of dreams, slip of tongue, slip of pen, motivated forgetting, etc. Sometimes they may appear in the form of peculiar behaviour and mannerisms. Thus the broader psychological types of conflict were presented in a brief review in the earlier paragraphs.

The researcher further proceeds to look into the conflicts and the types of conflicts that may emerge at workplaces. Conflict is something central to work groups according to Jehn (1995, 1997), one of the pioneers of conflict research at workplace. Conflict has been distinguished into three over the past decades by a few researchers – task/substantive, relationship/affective (Jehn, 1995, 1997) and process conflict (Jehn & Chatman, 2000).

Task/substantive conflict occurs when team members have differing ideas and opinions about issues specific to duties under discussion such as strategic decisions or information to be included while at work (Jehn, 1995). For eg; conflicts about the distribution of resources, about procedures and policies, or judgments and interpretation of facts can be termed as task related conflict. Task conflict is positively associated to performance (Jehn & Chatman, 2000), to satisfaction (De church & Marks, 2001) and an absence of task conflict can lead and accrue to ineffective consensus or suboptimal decision making among group members (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). However this type of conflict has been found detrimental in consensus building causing antagonism and unhappiness. This could be explained by the persistent correlation between task and relationship conflict (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Tidd et al., 2004- as cited in Chen & Ayoko 2012). As per (Pelled et al., 1996) confrontational interaction fostered during task conflict undermines harmony cultivating relationship conflict.

Relationship/ affective conflicts are disagreements based on personal and social issues that are not related to work (Jehn & Chatman, 2000) or disagreements or frictions over personal values and mannerisms between individuals (Yang & Mossholder, 2004). For example conflicts about personal taste, about political preferences, about values, and interpersonal style are relationship conflicts. It is said that relationship conflict is negatively

associated with performance and decision making (Amason, 1996; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Unlike task conflict, high levels of relationship conflict perceived amongst team members often lead to low personal satisfaction and increased distress (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Tidd et al., 2004- as cited in Chen & Ayoko, 2012) which ultimately has a negative effect on the quality of the member's relationships.

Process conflict is derived from task conflict as a result of the awareness of the disagreements about the task to be accomplished. It often involves disagreements about strategies and means to accomplish the task and not about the content or substance of the task itself (Jehn, Greer, Levine & Szulanski, 2008). For instance this type of conflict emerges out when disagreements over who should do what, and fights over how to schedule task efficiently at work etc. come at the workplace. As per Jehn et al., (2008) process conflict is associated with poor group morale, work quality and productivity and this kind of conflict increases the intensity of conflicts too.

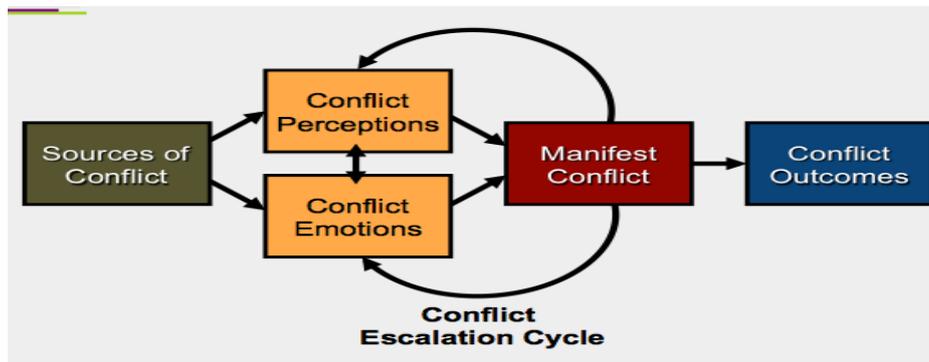
#### **2.3.4 Conflict process**

The conflict process can be triggered by differences in goals, values, and tasks or due to inadequate resources, transparency, communication etc. There is a sequence of events in the conflict literature i.e. it begins with frustration (when at disagreement), conceptualization, behaviour and outcome (Shown in Figure : 2.6).

This process model is heavily drawn from the Pondy (1967) and Watson (1969) model of explaining the sequence of events that lead to a conflict episode. Pondy (1967) observes that conflict is made up of (1) antecedent functions (2) affective conditions (3) cognitive conditions and (4) behavioural conditions. It analyses the basic mental and interpersonal events that lead to

different conflict handling styles which again is shaped by the broader parameters at the workplace which perhaps could be the norms, reward and recognition structures or standards that shape the priorities of individuals at workplace.

**Fig: 2.6 The conflict process**



*Source:* Mcshane L Steven, VonGlinow, MaryAnn, Sharma, R, Radha, *Organisational Behaviour*, 2008, P 394.

It is assumed that individuals generally adopt conflict styles that are compatible to their individual goals and values in an organizational setting. As human beings interact in organizations, differing values and situations create conflicts between people. Modern theorists opine that when conflict is recognized, and managed in a proper manner, personal and organizational benefits are seen (Silverthorne, 2005). Conflict when left unmanaged can lead to diminished cohesiveness amongst employees, productivity and reduced organizational fitness. The effect of conflict either positive or negative depends on the person who manages it and in choosing the right conflict resolution style. Some of the styles of the persons involved in a conflict can play a critical role (either be individuals, or as groups). Certain styles promote a search for solutions while some lead to a deadlock and result in strained relations.

### **2.3.5 Conflict management models**

Conflict management is what people who experience conflicts intend to do as well as what they actually do (Van de Vliert, 1997). All though an infinite number of conflict management strategies may be conceived of, conflict research and theory tends to converge on the dual concern theory and to Deutsch theory of cooperation and competition (Deutsch, 1973)

There have been many styles of conflict management behaviour that have been researched in the past century. Some of the noteworthy models are discussed below which forms the basis for conflict management strategies

#### ***2.3.5.1 Early conflict management models***

Several styles have been identified by theorist – one of the early theorists of conflict style resolution was one-dimensional proposed by Mary P Follet (1924), where three styles were proposed initially – domination, compromise and integration and added two more secondary styles later on, namely avoidance and suppression. Following this a conceptual model for classifying conflict in a dichotomous orientation involving either cooperation or competition was suggested (Deutsch, 1949). Deutsch defined conflict as incompatible interaction between two individuals, where one is interfering, obstructing or in other ways making the behaviour of another less effective. He says that the outcomes of conflict can be constructive or destructive depending upon whether the conflict is handled cooperatively or competitively.

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed the managerial grid, which included two dimensions: concern for production and concern for people with five styles– proposed that conflict is managed in different ways depending on whether the individuals, specifically managers on how high or low their concerns are for the two dichotomous dimensions. By combining the two

dimensions, five styles were generated: *problem solving* resulting from high concern for productivity and people, *forcing* showing high concern for productivity and low concern for people, *compromising* based on moderate concern for productivity and people, *smoothing* depending on low concern for productivity and high concern for people, and *withdrawing* representing low concern for productivity and low concern for people. In the 1970s and 1980s, researchers began using the intentions of the parties involved to classify the styles of conflict management to include in their models. Some of the popular models are that of Thomas (1976), Derr (1978) and Pruitt (1983) based on the concerns of the parties involved in the conflict

#### **2.3.5.2 Contingency approach to conflict management**

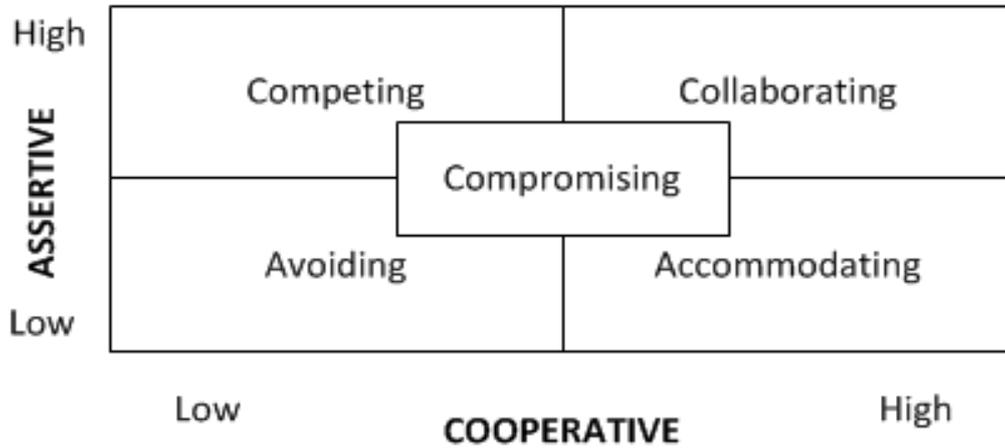
Derr (1978) proposed a contingency approach for the choice of conflict management strategies. He suggested three main strategies of conflict management: Power play, Bargaining, and Collaboration. He suggested that collaboration is best suited when relationship between the parties is interdependent in nature, cost of unresolved conflict is very high and organization supports the open expression of disagreements and working on the same. Bargaining works fine when parties are interested in showing power and is used as a mechanism to allocate scarce resources and usually invoked for arriving at a formal agreement. Bargaining is also effective in the situations where parties to disagreement use either collaboration or power play and fail to arrive an agreement, bargaining works as middle of the road approach. Power play is used to deal with conflicts between competing forces and this strategy works well with people who are well versed in using power tactics. Therefore two variables appear to influence choice of mode of influence of strategies, integration of the in-group and the criticality of the issue of conflict. These two

variables may vary from low to high and when the two variables become high, approach strategies of conflict management may become more relevant.

Ruble and Thomas (1976); Thomas (1976); Thomas and Kilmann (1978) some of the early pioneers in conflict styles research in their works have suggested that an individual's conflict style is a behavioural orientation of how to approach and handle conflict, with individuals choosing a pattern of principles to guide them through the conflict process. These patterns evolve into actions and reactions that become known as their "style".

Based on the work of Blake and Mouton, Thomas (1976) and Thomas and Kilmann (1978) labelled two components of conflict behaviour as 'Assertiveness' and 'Cooperativeness' where individuals are the unit of analysis. Assertiveness was a behaviour that satisfies one's own concern, and cooperativeness was a behaviour that satisfies another person's concerns. These two dimensions yield five conflict management styles namely competing, accommodation, compromise, avoiding, and collaboration. The competing style is high in concern for self, which is characterized by a drive to maximize individual gain, even at the expense of others. While collaborating style, finds solutions to the conflict by trying to meet the needs of all parties involved. The avoiding style is low in concern for self and disengages them from conflict. The accommodating style sacrifices self-interests to satisfy the needs of others. Finally, compromising which is the midpoint between cooperativeness and assertiveness, and involves making concessions to arrive at a resolution of conflict. This model has been one of the popular models.

**Figure 2.7 Thomas & Kilmann's two dimensional model of Conflict handling behaviour**



Source: Adapted from "Thomas-Kilman's Conflict Mode Instrument", by K W Thomas & R H Kilman, 1974.

### 2.3.5.3 Pruitt's Dual Concern model

Pruitt (1983) suggested a dual concern model concern for self and concern for others, partially based on Blake and moutons' conflict model developed in 1964. He suggested four styles –yielding, problem solving, inaction and contending. The yielding style is low in assertiveness and high in cooperativeness; problem solving is high in assertiveness and high in cooperativeness; inaction is low in both assertiveness and cooperativeness, and contending style is high in assertiveness and low in cooperativeness. In this model unlike other conflict models, compromising style is not considered as a distinct style. Pruitt argues that problem-solving is the preferred method when seeking mutually beneficial options and creates a win-win situation. Empirical evidence from the studies of Pruitt (1983) and Pruitt and Carnevale (1993) has shown that problem solving is the most effective style for managing conflicts, although these studies have not presented evidence of how the four styles can impact on job performance and productivity.

Several other theorists also contributed later in defining conflict style. Womack (1988) defines conflict styles as the ‘style that an individual chooses to satisfy one-self or others’. Wilmont and Hocker (2001) expresses conflict as “an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce resources and interference from others in achieving their goals” and conflict management styles refer to “patterned responses, or clusters of behaviour, that people use in conflict” through diverse communication tactics.

#### ***2.3.5.4 Vliert and Euwema meta-taxonomy model.***

Several alternative conceptualisations and classifications of conflict management behaviour led to a confusion in the academic literature, which led Van de Vliert and Euwema (1994) to examine the literature available on conflict management at the time and established what they claimed a "meta-taxonomy" that encompasses all other models. It subsumed the different conflict styles under two higher order categories; ‘agreeableness’ and ‘activeness’. Activeness dimension describes the extent to which conflict behaviours make a responsive and direct rather than inert and indirect impression (Van de Vliert and Euwema, 1994). The agreeableness dimension is the extent to which conflict behaviours make a pleasant and relaxed rather than unpleasant and strainful impression (Van de Vliert and Euwema, 1994). High activeness is characterized by openly discussing differences of opinion while fully going after their own interest whereas high agreeableness is typified by attempting to satisfy expectations of all parties involved. Alternatively, low activeness dimension accommodates one another’s wishes and generally avoids an open discussion and low agreeableness is characterised by the use of influence in getting their ideas being accepted and might also avoid disagreements altogether. Two other studies provide initial support for the

active dimension (open discussion) of conflict management as important predictor of group effectiveness.

Based on this model, De church and Marks (2001) did an empirical study with undergraduate business management students in the south eastern university to investigate the direct and interactive relationships between task conflict and agreeable and active conflict management in predicting the performance and satisfaction of work groups. The study conducted to validate this division, activeness did not have a significant effect on group performance, but the agreeable task conflict management did positively predict satisfaction. A positive impact on how groups felt about the way the conflict were managed was seen regardless of the outcome.

#### ***2.3.5.5 Kuhn and Poole's model***

Following Thomas & Kilmann (1974,1978) conflict management style was defined by Kuhn and Poole (2000) as a “general and consistent orientation toward the other party and the conflict issues, manifest in observable behaviours that form a pattern and share common characteristics over time” Kuhn and Poole (2000) established a similar style of group conflict management. This model was based on Kazan's (1997) group conflict management model which establishes three group conflict management models-regulative, harmony and confrontational. Regulative model resolves conflict by bureaucratic rules and regulations. Harmony model manage conflict by avoiding it which is achieved by following certain organisational and societal norms. Basically this model views conflict as harmful and if at all emerges it is solved by third party mediation. In the confrontational model conflicts are made up of multiple issues which are further broken down and

confronted by both the parties. The parties then try to reach at reasonable compromise in spite of parties confronting each other.

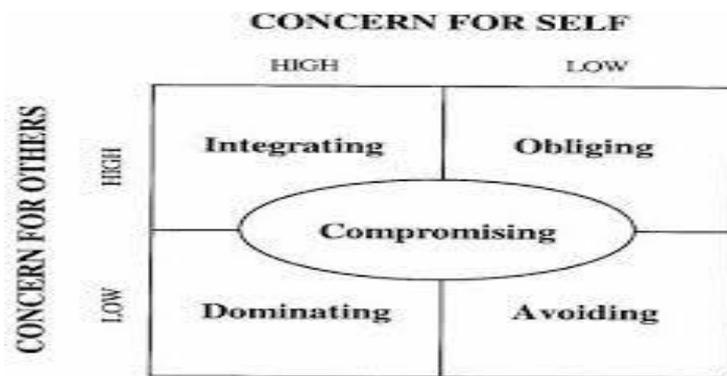
Kuhn and Poole (2000) model discussed two approaches i.e. the distributive and integrative approaches. In Distributive model, conflict is seen as a distribution of a fixed amount of positive outcomes or resources, where one side will end up winning and the other losing, even if any of the parties win some concessions. Whereas groups using the Integrative approach see conflict as a chance to integrate the needs and concerns of both groups and make the best outcome possible. They found that the integrative model has a greater emphasis than the distributive model as it resulted in consistently better task related outcomes than that of the distributive model.

#### ***2.3.5.6 Rahim's meta-model***

Rahim (2002) noted that there is agreement among management scholars that there is no one best approach to how to make decisions, lead or manage conflict. In a similar vein, rather than creating a very specific model of conflict management, the author created a model, which in fact was reinterpreted based on the motivational orientation of the parties involved. Rahim and Bonomo (1979) proposed a conflict handling model based on both the grid of managerial styles proposed by Blake and Mouton, as well as the Thomas's five modes model. He came with a slight differentiation with two dimensions namely; concern for self and concern for others which basically portrays the motivational orientation of an individual at the time of conflict. They labelled the two dimensions (cooperativeness and assertiveness and concern for self and for others) and some styles differently, but the basic assumptions and principles behind are similar. Five conflict handling approaches namely integrating, obliging, compromising, dominating and avoiding was identified. Compared

with the model proposed by Thomas (1976), Rahim and Bonoma termed Integrating as Collaborating, Obliging instead of Accommodating, and Dominating as Competing.

**Fig. 2.8 Rahim and Bonoma’s two-dimensional model of five styles of handling interpersonal conflict.**



**Source:** Adapted from Rahim, A., & Bonoma, T. V. (1979). *Managing organizational conflict: A model diagnosis and intervention*. *Psychological Reports*, 44, 1327.

Rahim’s five conflict handling styles as shown in Figure-2.8, *Integrating* also known as *Problem Solving*, (IN) involves high concern for self as well as the other party involved in the conflict. Adopters of this style are primarily concerned with collaboration between parties to reach a solution and are willing to reach a mutual and acceptable solution through openness, exchange of information, examination and exploration of differences for arriving at a constructive solution. *Obliging* also known as *accommodating*, (OB) style is low concern for self and high concern for the other party involved in the conflict. Parties using this style attempts to play down the differences and emphasize the commonalities to satisfy the concerns of the other party. This style may take the form of selfless generosity, charity, or obedience to the party’s order. An obliging person can be called a “conflict absorber” terms describing a reaction of low hostility or even friendliness to a perceived hostile

act. *Dominating or competing*, (DO) style is high concern for self and low concern for the other party. It is a win-lose orientation and forces behavior to win one's position. Such persons would defend their position if they are convinced that it is right or correct. *Avoiding* (AV) style is a low concern for self as well as the other party. This is associated with withdrawal, passing-the-buck, sidestepping. As suggested by Rahim this style may take the form of postponing an issue until a better time or simply withdrawing from a threatening situation. *Compromising* (CO) style takes a middle of the road approach shows an Inter mediate concern for self and others. This style involves exchanging concession, or seeking a quick, middle ground position.

According to Rahim et al., (2002) conflict resolution implies reduction, elimination or termination of conflict and therefore can be concluded that depending on the organizational settings it varies.

#### ***2.3.5.7 Pareek Model of Conflict Management.***

Pareek (1982) proposed a contingency model of conflict management strategies which is dependent on various situations specific to the group. This model proposes a three dimensional framework which involves three variables – modes of conflict namely approach and avoidance, interest in peace and openness to reasoning.

Here the assumption of conflict depends upon the perception of the out-group which is used as the base to understand the modes of conflict management. It may be perceived as always opposed to the interest of the in-group and as being belligerent or may be perceived as having its own interests or interested in peace. Similarly the out-group may be perceived as unreasonable resulting in lack of hope or as open to reason. The general orientation of the parties may be an avoidance orientation or approach

orientation. This approach avoidance orientation becomes significant in determining the effectiveness of managerial behaviour. Avoidance is based on fear and is dysfunctional while approach is based on hope and functional for effectiveness. Avoidance is characterised by a tendency to deny, rationalise or avoid problems, to displace anger or aggression, or to use emotional appeals; approach orientation is characterised by making efforts to find a solution by one's own efforts or with the help of others.

This dimension has been used by Pareek (1982) to understand managerial behavior in terms of their managerial style which are similar to what Blake and Mouton (1964) have suggested, as the active passive mode. Combining these two; perception of the parties and avoidance approach dimension, eight styles of conflict management namely resignation, withdrawal, defusion, appeasement, confrontation, compromise, negotiation and arbitration were identified. The avoidance styles are conflict management aim at avoiding or postponing conflicts in a variety of ways, while the approach modes of conflict styles take aggressive or understanding forms by taking positive steps to confront conflicts and find solutions (Pareek, 2002).

The eight styles are explained; *Resignation (Avoidance mode)* – The extreme mode may turn to be fatal as it result in state of helplessness due to hostility of the other group or ignoring the conflict by denying an unpleasant situation and let the conflict resolve in its due course; *Withdrawal (Avoidance mode)* – This mode of conflict tries to get away from the conflict situation by avoiding/withdrawing from the conflict when it takes place /physical separation/defining boundaries between the conflicting parties; *Defusion (Avoidance mode)* - this mode buy time for dealing with a conflict. When too many emotional issues are involved and when emotions are too strong, one allows it to cool down; *Appeasement (Avoidance mode)*- In this mode ,the

parties may give in to some concessions to the opponent group assuming that conflict will get over and they will be satisfied where the objective is to have a temporarily truce; *Confrontation (Approach mode)* - in this mode the parties fight out the issue to get a solution which may result in the win-lose trap as both parties have opposing interest and are unreasonable; *Compromise (Approach mode)* – this mode is the process of sharing the gains but with little efforts to resolve the conflict; *Negotiation (Approach mode)* – the most satisfactory mode when both the groups jointly confront the problem and explore the situation; *Arbitration (Approach mode)* - this mode uses a third party to resolve the problem mostly done when the other party is perceived as being belligerent and unreasonable.

Based on the contingency approach discussed above with eight different styles of conflict management and modes (approach and avoidance) of conflict management, a tool was developed to measure conflicts in an Indian context known as the ‘Opinion Survey Of Organizational Conflict Questionnaire’ (Pareek, 1982). Based on this, Pareek and Purohit (2011) prepared Conflict Resolution Inventory (CRI) with five styles later.

Similar to this approach avoidance mode of conflict management, Walton and Mckersie (1965) have used the term ‘integrative bargaining’ which comes closer to what is referred to as negotiation. In integrative bargaining newer and better options are generated. Blake, Shepard and Mouton (1964) had also mentioned about the functional method of conflict management (as cited in Pareek, 2002).

Conflict resolution style theorists opine that collaborative or integrative style, where there is high concern for task and people, is considered to give positive individual and organizational outcomes and hence associated with

reduced conflict intensity, while the withdrawing /avoidance style are associated with conflict intensity and the forcing / dominating style also considered to have positive outcomes at times (Barker, Tjosvold & Andrews, 1988; Thomas, 1992) Though managers have typical preferences in the styles followed it need not necessarily be that managers follow the same style always.

### **2.3.6 Conflict outcomes**

Humans are by nature social and therefore it's not surprising that the quality of interpersonal relations will have a significant bearing on one's affect, cognitions and behaviour (Frone, 2000). In an organisational setting employees need to engage in a team activity to attain goals and interpersonal interactions cannot be avoided. Interpersonal conflict is a prevalent issue in today's organizations (Schieman & Reid, 2008); and no organization is devoid of conflict. This becomes even more relevant during organizational change when hierarchies and organizational structures are unstable (Anderson, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2004; Peterson & Behfar, 2003). Though most of such interactions has positive outcomes, there are evidences that says that negative outcomes hold more potency than the positive ones (Ilies, Johnson, Judge & Keeney, 2011). Perhaps the most frequent consequence of conflict is upset parties however it all depends on how one responds to the situation (Bergman & Volkema, 1989). When conflict is coped up with constructively positive outcomes are seen (Dijkstra, Dierendonck & Evers, 2005).

It is said that interpersonal conflict at work has significant organisational related outcomes like lowered job satisfaction and job commitment and personal outcomes such as depression, lowered self-esteem, and somatic symptoms (Frone, 2000; Dijkstra et al., 2005; Ilies et al., 2011). Interpersonal conflict with co-workers and supervisor significantly predicts risk of personal

outcomes like increased fatigue, poor general health and turnover intentions (Giebels & Janssen, 2005; De Raeve et al., 2009) too. During the past number of decades numerous research works has been done on conflict and its impact on organizations. When conflict behaviour turns destructive, undesirable outcomes surface like reduced employee commitment; productivity; incivility; immorality; bullying; and adverse financial effect on the organization's bottom line; (Ayoko, 2007; Bohlander, 2010). Workplace outcomes like diminished job satisfaction (Yang, 2010; El- Hosany, 2016), reduced trust (Curşeu & Schrujjer, 2010) and citizenship behaviours (Korsgaard, Brodt, & Whitener, 2002; Tziner & Sharoni 2014); increased stress (Haq, 2011; El- Hosany, 2016) and intention to quit (Jehn, 1995; Haq, 2011) were also reported. Throughout history, and especially in recent times, these consequences have threatened the ability of organizations to thrive and survive. Interestingly effective conflict behaviours can bring about positive outcomes, such as cooperation and productivity (Bohlander 2010; Deutsch, 2011) and as a researcher this throws a positive light in conflict studies.

De Drue and Beersma (2005) have examined the possible effects conflict has on individual and work-team effectiveness and productivity. Two perspectives have been mentioned in the literature; an information-processing perspective and a conflict typology framework. According to the information-processing perspective, conflict has an inverted U-shape relationship with cognitive flexibility, creative thinking, and problem-solving capacities. This perspective thus implies that the relationship between conflict and information processing is curvilinear so that performance benefits are seen at moderate levels of conflict, but not from either low or high levels of conflict. Compared to low levels of conflict, moderate levels arouse employees to consider and scrutinize the problem at hand, to generate ideas, and to select and implement

adequate problem solutions. At higher levels of conflict, however, the high amount of arousal and stress, and of interpersonal strain and mistrust, prohibits people from focusing on the problem, from open-mindedly generating ideas, and from jointly selecting and implementing adequate problem solutions. Several empirical studies have supported this curvilinear relationship finding in their studies. The study of Shaw et al., (2011) in their study support the curvilinear relationship between conflict and performance. De Dreu (2006) observed such a curvilinear relationship between conflict in work teams, and work-team innovations in two different studies involving a heterogeneous sample of teams from a variety of organizations.

The conflict typology framework relies on the distinction between task conflict and relationship conflict. It argues that relationship conflict interferes with performing tasks, and thus lowers effectiveness and innovativeness while task conflict, is thought to trigger information processing and to lead participants to consider multiple perspectives and alternative problem solutions. Task conflict prevents moving to premature consensus, and thus should enhance decision-making quality, individual creativity, and work-team effectiveness in general. The assumption that relationship conflict reduces effectiveness of performance has received ample support (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1995, 1997; Murnighan & Conlon, 1991) but the hypothesis that task-conflict enhances performance in conflict-performance literature provided little support (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). This has spurred an interest in developing so called contingency models, in which task conflict and relationship conflict have different effects on work-team effectiveness depending on specific circumstances, including team tasks, team climate, conflict norms, and conflict management strategies (Tjosvold, 1998; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003).

### **2.3.7 Conflict Management Styles of Managers**

Managers who are very skilled at conflict management are able to (a) understand interpersonal conflict situations and (b) use the appropriate conflict management strategy for each situation. According to research findings 60-80% of all difficulties in organizations stem from strained relationships between employees, not from deficits in individual employee's skill or motivation and 90% of voluntary departures in organisations occur as a result of conflict (Dana, 2002; Roberts, 2005). Tendencies to replace bureaucratic rules and regulations with self-managed teams and empowered employees imply that individuals need to negotiate on a daily basis their duties rights and responsibilities (Pfeffer, 1998).

The growing diversity of the work force (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998) coupled with heterogeneous value and belief systems are also a source for misunderstanding and disrespect. Moreover, increased specialization in terms of educational and professional background, together with greater complexity of internal and external relations, compels the need for both information dependency and to coordinate and work together among key players in an organization (Roche, Teague & Colvin, 2014). Such intensified interdependency leads to conflict over many day to day issues.

Within work organizations, several authors have distinguished conflict processes evolving around work and task-related issues, or around socio-emotional and relationship issues (e.g., Amason, 1996; De Dreu & Van de Vliert, 1997; Jehn, 1995). According to Ford J and Associates (2007) conflict often comes with a cost and is likely to increase in the coming years (Roche et al., 2014). There are both direct cost like litigation, sabotage and indirect costs that can be measured through employee metrics like reduced member

commitment, absenteeism, employee turnover and grievance filing etc. As per reports, it is said that a typical manager spends 25-40% of his or her time dealing with workplace conflicts which is close to one to two days of every work week (Wayne, 2005; Ford J & Associates, 2007; Account temps Survey 2011). Instead of spending their time productively managers are often being side-tracked for conflict handling and take days to resolve it. Hence conflict if not managed properly becomes a timely and costly affair as far as managers are concerned.

Research says that individuals tend to focus on one conflict style over the others despite the situation they are facing (Chanin & Schneer, 1984). Since conflict resolution has such a big impact on workplace performance the most viable option is to manage conflict as quickly and effectively and this can definitely result in worthwhile benefits. Conflict resolution is nothing but the art of knowing what conflict style to choose at a given point of time and according to experts, training in conflict dynamics can empower managers to resolve conflicts effectively (Roberts, 2005).

Though conflict represents the largest reducible cost in many businesses, it remains largely unrecognized (Dana, 2002, Slaikev & Hasson, 1998). It is cited that managers many a time lack skills to nip conflict in the bud (CIPD, 2015) itself. Addressing conflict appropriately is therefore a critical component for increasing organizational effectiveness and productivity. Conflict resolution constitutes an important managerial responsibility and activity, and has a crucial impact on the wellbeing of the organization. According to the 2011, WERS survey and the study of Wood et al., (2014) managers play a central role in creating, avoiding or resolving conflict and has found that unfair treatment or poor relationships with line managers is the single most

commonly cited trigger for employee grievances. Chronic patterns of unresolved conflict are costly and lead to a dysfunctional organization.

A manager being an integral part in the conflict resolution process, developing constructive or functional conflict resolution strategies at various levels of the organization is the emerging thought. Therefore the need for managing conflicts to bring constructive outcomes can never be overlooked as a management practitioner.

## **2.4 Gender Role Identity.**

This section contains the emergence of Gender Role Identity, the theoretical underpinnings and also discuss the approaches to measure gender role identity.

### **2.4.1 Introduction**

Most of the psychological studies that we see compare between men and women in their studies, very few have actually looked into as to how men and women identify themselves. An interest in the gender pattern by the researcher is due to the change in the gender composition of workforce over the last decades and imminent changes it might have brought in the perceptions about gender. Globally, women's participation in the labour market has remained relatively stable from 1993 to 2013, whereas the participation rate for men has declined steadily over the same period. Beyond the global picture, in the Indian scenario it was found that gender disparities was the highest in the south Asian countries like Afghanistan, Pakistan and India with India reporting the lowest of the trio. Females accounted only for 30% of the work force compared to an 80% of males in India. (ILO Labour Force Participation Rate 2014). India ranks 11<sup>th</sup> from the bottom in terms of female participation in the labour work force, which is abysmally low as per the world standards (Chaudhary & Verick, 2014). In South Asian countries, historical gender roles, spaces and stereotypes continue to affect outcomes, even in the context of a rapidly changing society. These low rates are largely due to cultural attitudes and social norms, which work against women in the workplace. On the contrary, though India as a nation shows lower female participation, the state of Kerala has recorded one of the highest female labour participation at 39.19% (MOSPI Survey, 2014). This trend is attributed mostly to the higher literacy rates, and

moreover women in south India has historically enjoyed better economic opportunities (Bhattacharya, 2014).

#### **2.4.2 Differentiating Sex, Gender, Gender role and Gender role Identity.**

In several studies the terms male, female, man, woman, masculine and feminine etc are mentioned interchangeably and often used as adjectives in their discussions and writings (Claes, 2001; Woodhill & Samuels, 2003). The long standing battle of the sexes has propelled researchers of the past to focus not only on 'sex' differences but 'within sex' differences as a divide between what is acceptable (prescribed) behaviour by a male or by a female determining which behaviours are fostered through socialisation from birth onwards (Shields, 2008).

Biologically speaking, being 'male' or 'female' is only a division of the species. An individual's biological sex refers to the individual's chromosomal composition; and this factor determines whether he is biologically male or female (Johnson, Greaves & Repta, 2009). Sex is biological while gender is psychological and hence cultural (Oakley, 1998). Gender is built into ones social life by means of socialisation, interactional processes and institutional organisation (Risman, 2004). As individuals interact with social structures, gender structures also changes and therefore one's gender and subsequent gender role identity is considered to be a psychological component, which develops as a construct that is created through the implementation of and conformation to societal and cultural gender norms (Johnson et al., 2007; Krause & Roth, 2011; Morris, 1994; Vinnicombe & Singh, 2002). Gender roles are socially and culturally defined prescriptions and beliefs about the behaviour and emotions of men and women (Anselmi & Law, 1998).

So all though gender, gender roles, gender attitudes influence gender role identity they are not all the same. Individuals often draw upon what it means to be a male or a female from the society. This is transmitted through institutions such as religion and educational institutions at an early stage ie their childhood. As these individuals grow they may come to see themselves as departing from masculine or feminine cultural model. So individuals see themselves along feminine and masculine dimension of which some are more masculine or more feminine and some would be a mixture of the two. It is in this viewpoint of masculinity and femininity that gender identity is formed and influences one's behaviour (Borgatta & Montgomery, 2000). So gender per se does not equal behaviour, although we assume people to behave in a gendered way, the gendered behaviour actually comes from gender role identity (Woodhill & Samuels, 2003). Gender role identity is defined as the relative degree to which one endorses the socially desirable traits (or stereotypes) associated with one's own and ones opposite gender ( Bem, 1981b).

#### **2.4.3 Theoretical under pinning's behind Gender role Identity**

Gender schema is one of the major theoretical perspectives used to explain gender development. This is a cognitive approach in which people are assumed to be actively involved in the process of gender development. The basic idea here is that people develop gender schema which are knowledge structures about the sexes that guide their thinking and behaviour. The word 'Schema' borrowed from the cognitive psychology are abstract knowledge structures about the sexes and their characteristics which assumes as to how information is perceived and encoded, retrieved from the memory and organised in the memory. The theory posits to provide an understanding of how mental representations of gender develop in early childhood to influence attention, motivation, person perception, impression formation, and behaviour.

It tries to explain how people assimilate and develop sex-defined characteristics (i.e., preferences, skills, personality traits, behaviours, and self-concepts that are aligned with gender (Perle & Waguespack, 2011)

Several gender schema theories have been proposed to explain gender development and differentiation. The works of Bem (1981) and Markuz, Crane, Bernstein & Siladi, (1982) centred mainly on individual differences of adults in gender schematic processing of information. It takes features of both cognitive development and social learning theory accounts of sex typing. It posits that sex typing is largely a result of gender schematic processing which is derived from the sex differentiated practices of the social community. Several other researchers also were involved in the refinement and development of gender schema theories (Liben & Signorella (1987); Fagot & Leinbach (1989); Carter & Levy (1988) - as cited in Martin & Dinella 2001).

The Gender schema theory was first developed by Sandra Bem in 1981 and later expanded by Carol Martin and Charles Halverson in 1983. Martin and Halverson focused on the development of gender schemas and their functioning in children. This has its roots from the three major theories of sex typing ie the psycho analytic theory (Freud, 1959, Bronfenbrenner, 1960), cognitive developmental theory (Piaget, 1936; Kohlberg, 1966) and social learning theory that emphasize direct reinforcement (Weitzmanal, 1979) and modeling (Mischel,1970).The psychoanalytic theory explains the development of gender identity through identification with the same sex parent. This identification emerges out of the conflict inherent in the oedipal stage of psychosexual development. So the boys learn masculinity from their fathers and girls from their mothers. Social learning theory is the learning that a child gets as a result of his interaction with the community ie the rewards and punishments when he / she indulges in sex appropriate and sex inappropriate

behaviours as well as the vicarious learning through observation and modelling. Cognitive development theory focuses on the child as the primary agent and how the child makes a sex role socialisation. To Piaget (1936), cognitive development was a progressive reorganization of mental processes as a result of biological maturation and environmental experience. Children construct an understanding of the world around them, and then experience discrepancies between what they already know and what they discover in their environment. Based on this contention, Kohlberg (1966) suggested that children had made a cognitive judgement about their gender identity before they selected same sex models for sex typed behaviours. A child goes through three stages ie basic gender identity (failure to realize that gender is a constant attribute), gender stability (realisation stage that their gender is stable over time) and lastly the gender consistency (self-categorisation as male or female motivates him to values gender congruent activities).

#### **2.4.4 Emergence of Gender Role Identity.**

In the 1930s, the first attempt to measure sex role identity was made by Termin and Miles (1936). Termin and Miles investigated the relationship between biological sex and personality, by examining their associations through two constructs namely masculinity (agency or instrumentality) and femininity (communion or expressiveness), which were viewed as unipolar opposites (Parsons & Bales 1955; Bakan, 1966). According to Parson and Bales (1955), masculinity is associated to “instrumentality” a cognitive focus on getting the job done or the problem solved. They have an orientation towards self- assertion, self-promotion, self- expansion and self- protection. Femininity is associated to “expressiveness”, an affective concern for the welfare of others and harmony of the group. Somewhat similar to this Bakan (1966) was of the opinion that masculinity is associated with ‘agentic’ orientation a

concern for oneself as an individual and femininity to “communal” orientation a concern for relationship between oneself and others. Termin and Miles research was framed at a time where social roles were influenced by the Great Depression of the 1920’s and World War 1. Men were socialised to be the providers, as they were physically active and the formation of a male dominated army in the world war, while females were expected to take care of the house hold chores and children. Women were prevented from working outside of the house as they were seen as taking jobs away from those who were more ‘needy’ and ‘capable’ such as the physically strong man.

As per Termin and Miles, a deterministic model in which an individual represent and exhibit behaviours congruent to their sex and socialised as per that classification, in which masculinity and femininity were viewed as bipolar opposites. During the 1970s, scholars started to move away from unidimensional approach and questioned conceptualizations of masculinity and femininity as representing bi-polar opposites. Some of the major theorist during the period, Bem (1974, 1981) and Spence and Helmreich (1978) contributed to this thought and this could be attributed to increased feminism and legal frameworks for gender equality that was prevalent during those times. Constantinople (1973) and Bem (1974) argued individuals possess both masculine and feminine qualities and Bem further argued that having both masculine and feminine qualities that is being androgynous was a balanced approach. During the same period, Spence and Helmreich (1978) explained the gender phenomenon as multifactorial. According to them several factors such as attributes, behaviours distinguish a person as being masculine or feminine. Their research laid the groundwork for subsequent research on gender identity over the following years (Marecek Kimmel, Crawford, Hare-Mustin, 2003). Helmreich, Spence and Holahan (1979) later started research on the negative

and positive dimension of masculinity and femininity and realised that gender stereotypes do not include only the desirable aspects of masculinity and femininity. Woodhill and Samuels (2003) further indicated that it is logical that the androgynous gender role identity may consist of negative and positive traits of masculinity and femininity. Thus emerged the differentiated model of measuring gender role identity where both the positive and negative gender role identities were examined.

#### **2.4.5 Approaches to measure Gender role Identity**

The measurement approaches moved from masculinity and femininity being placed on a single continuum to evolving into sex role identities being perceived along two separate continuums consisting of masculinity, femininity and androgyny, and finally to gender role identity being perceived across continuums consisting of positive and negative masculinity, femininity and androgyny (Chemaly, 2013).

##### **2.4.5.1 Unidimensional Model**

Termin and Miles (1936) created a 455-item test that detected masculinity and femininity and labelled it the Attitude Interest Analysis Test (AIST) to conceal its purpose from subjects. They tried to measure one's gender identity based on the same continuum with two major extremes at each pole; namely masculinity and femininity. This meant one could only be masculine or feminine, not both. The approach adopted by Termin and Miles was considered to be deterministic, as an individual could only be one of two sexes and was therefore forced into one of two gender categories; masculinity or femininity supporting the Congruency Model (Johnson et al., 2007). The Congruency Model suggested that an individual should only represent and exhibit those behaviours that are congruent with his or her biological sex and

would therefore be socialised as such; males as masculine and females as feminine (Kagan, 1964; Mussen, 1969).

In alignment with social changes occurring through the world, such as the rise of feminism and the modernisation of society after the Second World War and the Baby Boom Era (early 1970's), the social roles of women and men, as well as the approach to sex role identity measurement, began to shift. At this time period Termin and Miles approach was criticized for its congruency and also it was said it exaggerated the differences between male and females and that the feminine characteristics in the M- F scale carried negative connotations (Morawski, 1987).

#### ***2.4.5.2 The Androgyny Model***

The traditional assumption that masculinity and femininity are two ends of the same continuum where masculinity on one end precludes one from being feminine was questioned and allowed the possibility of being masculine and feminine or masculine and feminine as separate dimensions was discussed. People can be masculine, feminine, or both (androgynous). Two of the very famous inventories that emerged from the impetus to measure masculinity and femininity on separate, independent dimensions in psychology was the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem 1974) and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) (Spence and Helmreich 1978).

The 'Bem Sex Role Inventory', terming one's gender identification as sex role identity, suggested that one could be masculine as well as feminine. A distinct difference between Bem's (1974) research and that of other researchers, such as Termin and Miles (1936), Kagan (1964), Mussen (1969) was the separation of masculinity and femininity, into two separate dimensions. According to Bem an individual could score higher or lower on one or both

masculine and feminine traits, and in the event of scoring higher or both they would be termed androgynous (Bem, 1974). The approach to gender role identity moved from a one dimensional concept to a multi-dimensional construct as a response to socio economic changes post world war.

Later on Bern and Lenney (1976) in their works, were of the contention that it was the “androgynous” person, who incorporated both masculinity and femininity into his/her personality, emerge as the appropriate sex role ideal in contemporary society. Bem (1974) was of the opinion that ‘androgyny’, represents a more flexible standard of psychological health than sex-typed behavior due to its high propensity of imbibing both feminine and masculine characteristics within an individual. According to Bem Masculinity and femininity were complementary, not opposite positive domains of traits and behaviours. An individual of either sex may be both masculine and feminine, or instrumental and expressive, depending on the given situation; and it is the individual’s sex-role identity, not sex, which magnifies the degree to which certain traits and behaviours are manifested (Lazerson , 1981).

Bem’s(1974,1975,1981) inclusion and introduction of ‘androgyny’ into the Sex role identification which was different from the view of the Congruency Model was a major breakthrough in the gender identity research and hence formed the Androgyny model. The Androgyny Model suggested that individuals who had high levels of both positive masculinity and positive femininity were the most astute due to the high levels of self-esteem associated with the ability to exhibit instrumental and expressive traits (Bem, 1974; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Bem’s research however laid the groundwork for subsequent research on gender identity and framed much research over the following years (Marecek et al. 2003).

During the same period Spence and Helmreich (1978) developed The Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ); a self-report scale that measured masculinity, femininity and a third scale that measured masculinity -femininity ; specifically desirable traits. But here the third scale of masculinity – femininity that represents a high masculinity and high femininity or rather being androgynous was not highlighted in their approach. But this was congruent with the times, as gender equality had been legitimised through legal frameworks. The two popular scales did not have any correlation ie knowing one's score on one scale did not predict their score on the other scale (Bem 1974; Spence and Helmreich 1978). Hence these two measures were widely criticised. This was because BSRI and PAQ were embedded in very different theories on how gender-related characteristics are organized.

For Bem (1981, 1993), scores on the BSRI not only measure the different dimensions of masculinity and femininity, but more importantly, the scores measure an underlying uni-dimensional construct known as gender schematization. Gender schematization is an internalized tendency to see the world in gendered terms. One who is gender schematic uses the meanings of male and female to classify stimuli rather than other dimensions that could equally be used. Those who score high on masculinity or high on femininity are gender schematic because they tend to organize information along gender lines, while androgynous individuals are gender-aschematic. Spence (1985) on the other hand, suggests that gender phenomena are multifactorial. According to Spence, several attributes, attitudes, and behaviors culturally distinguish between men and women but these are not bound together as a single underlying property such as gender schematization. For Spence (1985) and Spence and Sawin (1985) the important underlying construct is gender identity or rather the sense of being masculine or feminine. Culturally defined

personality traits, physical attributes, abilities, and occupational preferences among other things, all contribute to one's gender identity in unique and individualized combinations. According to Spence and Hemreich, the items in the PAQ scale tap the socially desirable instrumental and expressive traits in men and women, respectively (Spence & Hemreich 1978, 1980). While these traits are related to masculinity and femininity, it does not define one's overall gender identity but are just a set of contributors to one's gender-based self-image (Borgatti & Montgomery, 2000).

There was then the symbolic interactionist view applied in sociology (Burke, 1989) shares much in common with the view held by the psychologist Spence and her colleagues. For symbolic interactionists, gender identity is understood in the context of a body of research known as identity theory (Stryker, 1980). According to identity theory, the self is an organized collection of hierarchically arranged identities (self-meanings) that serve as a source of motivation for our behavior (Burke, 1980). Identities were organized as control systems that act to maintain congruency between the internalized self-meanings (one's identity standard) and perceptions of the meaning of the self in on-going social situations (Burke, 1991). One's gender identity as masculine or feminine is based on the meanings individuals have internalized from their association with the role of male or female respectively from the society, hence have to be inferred from their behaviours and expressions in which an individual engages in.

#### ***2.4.5.3 The Differentiated model***

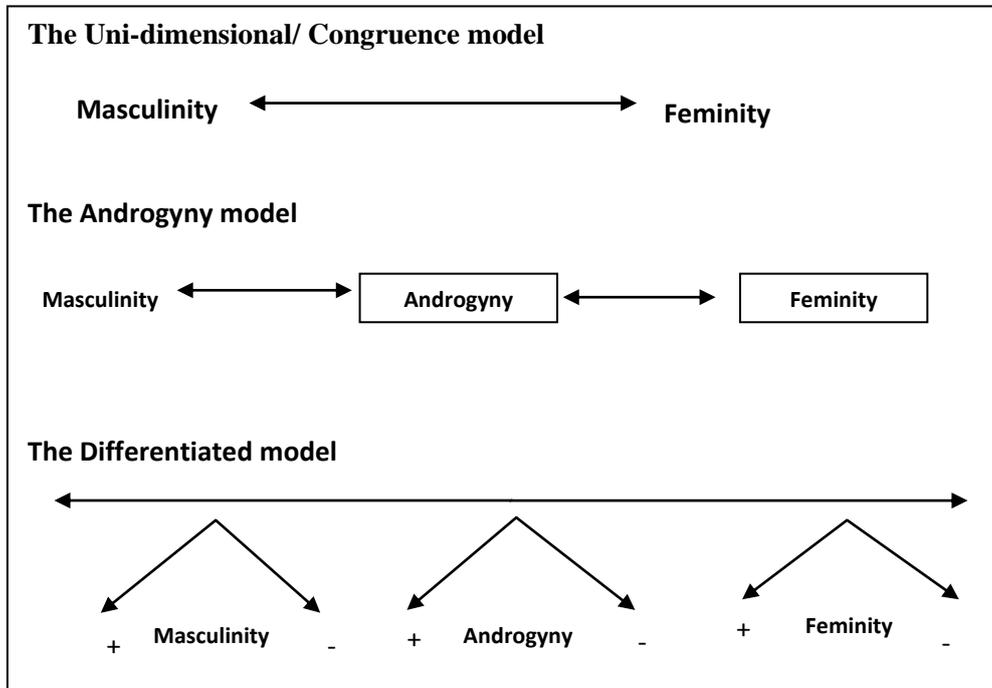
Androgyny is considered to be a balanced identity that combines the virtues of both genders. Helmreich, Spence and Holahan (1979) proposed that socially undesirable feminine and masculine traits are also important in

understanding gender role as they may even be dominant. Woodhill and Samuels (2003) also was of the contention that androgynous sex role identity may consist of negative and positive, masculine and feminine traits within each of the gender role. He proposed that there are seven categories of sex role identities: positive masculinity, negative masculinity, positive femininity, negative femininity, positive androgyny, negative androgyny and the undifferentiated identity.

According to this model, one could be predominantly positively masculine if one adopted a high degree of positively masculine traits or predominantly negatively masculine if one adopted a high degree of negatively masculine traits. Similarly, one could also be predominantly positively feminine or predominantly negatively feminine. To the extent that one adopted a high degree of both positive masculine and positive feminine traits, one would be categorised with a positively androgynous sex role identity. Alternatively, the adoption of a high degree of both negative masculine and negative feminine traits would identify the individual concerned as having a negatively androgynous identity. If one scored low on positive and negative masculinity and positive and negative femininity one would be categorised as undifferentiated (Bernstein & Osman, 2016). This theory encapsulating both positive and negative masculine, feminine and androgynous sex role identities was called as the differentiated model

The time line of various measurement approaches of gender role identity can be summarised in the following figure 2.9.

**Figure: 2.9 Measurement approaches of Gender Role Identity**



Source: Graphical representation of the development and measurement of sex role identity, Adapted from Chemaly, 2014,p18.

Therefore the advancement of sex/ gender role identity theory, from a uni-dimensional to a multi-dimensional framework and the respective instruments, has developed through the ages according to the prevalence of the biosocial framework as discussed above.

Gender socialization may occur early in life, or later in life as people modify their sex roles through interaction in the environment. While one's gender identity is generally stable over time, it sometimes changes given the different experiences one encounters. Burke and Cast (1997) examined the stability and change in gender identity and found that it changes over a period of time with different experience encounters. Due to this continuous progression of sex role identity, in response to the social changes it appears to

be a relevant research topic that is necessary to explore, due to its potential importance in the workplace.

To summarize, Gender-role identity, which is used synonymously in the literature with sex-role identity, refers to the “degree to which a person identifies with or displays societally defined masculine or feminine behavior” (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). One’s biological sex need not necessarily predict one’s gender-role identity, as the prevailing culture and socialization can influence the degree to which a person identifies with the socially determined gender identity. So, as Bem (1974) has opined, the concepts of masculinity and femininity are not necessarily precise correlates of biological sex. Thus, a man or a woman may possess either masculine or feminine characteristics, or both. According to Feather (1984) some individuals don’t accept the sex typed roles from society, instead assimilate both high masculine and feminine traits, forming an androgynous sex role, which is called psychological androgyny.

#### **2.4.6 Gender Role Identity and Managers**

Until the 80’s, the concept of androgyny had not been applied to organizational settings, although its applicability appeared obvious (Zosuls et al., 2011). Powell and Butterfield (1979) in a study done with business students perceived that to be ‘effective’ managers one has to be masculine in nature. However in the article ‘Androgynous Manager’ (1989), Sargent and Stupak, had proposed that androgynous managers would be better managers as they blend both masculine and feminine behaviours which were previously considered to be associated with males or females only. As discussed earlier, over the last few decades there have been changes in societal perceptions on the role of women coupled with the advancement of some women into leadership positions. Post 80’s there’s been a mass entrance of women into the

work force, an increasing number of females and female managers (Powell, Posner & Schmidt, 1984) and societal shifts in gender- role perceptions (Helmreich, Spence & Gibson, 1982), the formerly clear, unambiguous roles of the sexes changed over this period. It is seen that women possessed more masculine characteristics than they had at any time in the past and vice versa (Powell & Butterfield 1979).

Yet another study of Powell (1993) done later on, with male and females in collectivist countries like China and Japan in comparison to that of US, Great Britain and Europe revealed that '*think male– think manager*' was the accepted global phenomenon in workplaces. Majority of respondents associated a good manager with masculine traits. Powell, Butter field and Parent (2002), in a longitudinal study examined whether there has been a corresponding change in men and women stereotypes of managers, it revealed that although managerial stereotypes place less emphasis on masculine characteristics than in earlier studies, an effective manager was still perceived to be predominantly masculine.

However several research studies conceptualised that (Sargent 1981; Park, 1997) that androgynous managers would be better managers or yielded better performance which indicates that integrating masculine and feminine traits would be ideal than being polarised to one gender stereotype. Brewer, Mitchel and Weber (2002) in their study with males and female managers found that androgynous manager used integrating styles of conflict management which was associated to concern for people and concern for task equally and ideally. All these suggest that effective and influential leadership may not be characterized by mainly stereotypic masculine characteristics, but rather may call for androgynous traits. Such a balance would be appropriate and successful in today's dynamic workplaces. Gender role identity perhaps

may sometimes be more important than differences in sex, in determining outcomes; it is also possible for one's sex (male or female) and one's gender identity (masculine or feminine) to each result in different displays of behaviour (Borgatti & Montgomery, 2000).

Given this background of sex differences, androgynous and masculine gender orientations amongst managers and leaders, the researcher decided to study the gender role orientations of managers in an Indian scenario. As in many developing countries India is also changing socially economically and culturally. The social standards have improved and the patterns of expression of males and females are also fast changing (Ujjala, 1993) in India in the last decades.

Hence, the research findings of last decade are becoming obsolete and need to be refreshed. Considering the changes, especially in India, which is undergoing a lot of cultural transition, research work in this area that capture these dynamics are scarce. Therefore the researcher assumes that construct of gender role identity would be a more promising mechanism than gender while studying managerial behaviour.



# Chapter 3

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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### *Contents*

- 3.1 *Introduction*
- 3.2 *Emotional intelligence and conflict management*
- 3.3 *Sex, Emotional intelligence and Conflict management styles*
- 3.4 *Gender role identity, Emotional intelligence & Conflict Management Styles*
- 3.5 *Organisational status and conflict style*
- 3.6 *Conclusions from the literature review*

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The primary goal of this chapter is to review and summarize literature that is relevant to the understanding of the variables in the study.

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### 3.1 Introduction

The focus of this study is to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence, conflict management styles and study the effects of sex and gender role identity amongst managers. The relevant literature is reviewed and presented.

The parts of this chapter are organised in a logical sequence as explained next. Firstly, a brief back ground for the study is set, followed by previous review of literature on relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management, review of empirical research studies done on Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles. This is followed by a review of literature on the effects of Sex and Gender Role Identity on Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles. Lastly, a brief conclusion is provided.

As the work environment is now richer in terms of conflict seeds than earlier times, in terms of diversity, hostility, complexity, ambiguity etc an understanding of conflict and the role that it plays in influencing employee behaviour and work outcomes is now more important than it ever was (Suliman, 2003). Spector and Fox, (2002) in their study had stressed on the relevance of emotional recognition and claimed that management of emotions can help the employees to improve their voluntary behaviour which in turn will lead to organizational well-being. The role of emotions in situations when there is an incompatibility of goals or views or even while there is interference from outside is important as these are all emotionally charged situations (Jones, 2000). A look at the literature on emotional intelligence shows that, being aware of one's own emotions represents a critical starting point in developing the skills of emotional intelligence; also the ability to maintain good

relationships with those around them (interpersonal relationships) is the key in delivering managerial performance (Langhorn, 2004).

Traditionally ‘emotions’ at workplace had a negative connotation and was meant to be concealed but later realised that emotions have a direct impact on individual choices and decision making, and thus should be acknowledged for their part in navigating relationships and human interactions (Hopkins & Yonker, 2015). It is reported that the empathy aspect of emotional intelligence enables cognitive process by providing an idea regarding the team member emotions and needs (Wolff, Pescosolido & Druskat, 2002). Huang, Cham, Lan and Nan (2010) in their study found that employees engaged in service operations, with higher levels of emotional intelligence enhanced the relationship between leader-member exchange and work performance more powerfully. Therefore the ability to identify and understand the emotions of others in workplace is important for leaders, so that they can influence the feelings of subordinates to maintain enthusiasm and productivity.

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990) empathetic ability enables a person to gauge the affective responses in others and choose socially adaptive behaviours as per the context and therefore is flexible enough to respond in different ways. Emotions play an important role as mediators of the cognitive process on conflict-related behaviour (Betancourt, 2004). Conflict being a double edged sword, can bring in positive outcomes as well as negative outcomes. However recognizing this relationship of emotion to organizational conflict provides opportunities for managers to manage conflict effectively. Research on the effects of conflict has found that positive affect is typically associated with pro-social behaviour and results in cooperative styles of conflict management while negative affect may result in competitive behaviours with limited opportunity for joint outcomes (Bell & Song, 2005;

Kunnanat, 2008). Effective and appropriate conflict management depends on an individual's skills in self-management, and the ability to find constructive solutions (Jordan & Troth, 2002). EI plays an important role in conflict management because constructive solutions may require compromise which requires an ability to recognize and regulate emotions (Schlaerth, Ensari & Christian, 2013). When one is in conflict emotions cannot be left out. Any kind of conflict is inherently emotional because it involves an element of difference in perception of threats to individual or group goals (Jordan & Troth, 2002). But the same dynamics becomes a key part of the solution too. EI as a skill allows one to perceive people and use that data to calculate relational solutions, so by practising emotional intelligence a person will be able to deal with differences rather than end differences (Freedman, 2013).

Furthermore research studies indicate that conflict and conflict management has a great impact on individual, group, and organizational effectiveness, and overall the employees' well-being, (Harinck, De Dreu, & Van Vianen, 2000). According to Tjosvold (1998), the skill of conflict management becomes a necessity to anyone who aspires to be a manager, as it is his ability to resolve conflicts that impacts the effectiveness of individuals, teams, and entire organizations. It's often the leader or the manager who will have to mediate situations to allow a team to remain cohesive during trying times in any organisation (Ellis, 2010). As discussed in the earlier chapter conflict often comes with a cost both be it an individual perspective or organisational perspective.

Considering the myriad of challenges that professionals face in a competitive and dynamic sector, possessing an emotional awareness, empathetic and coping skills to deal with conflict in a constructive manner is

needed. Failure to learn effective ways to deal with conflict can result in dysfunctional relationships and a plethora of other challenges.

All the above contentions, we have discussed however are assumptions which needs an empirical verification. Certain studies have been done in this direction but still there exists a huge vacuum in this area.

### **3.2 Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management**

Goleman (1998) suggested that emotionally intelligent employees are better able to negotiate and affectively handle their conflicts with organisational members. According to Boyatzis (2008) 'self-control' is viewed as an essential factor for effectively handling conflict in individuals. According to Planalp and Fitness (1999), simply "acquiring and strategically using emotion knowledge is one thing; using such knowledge adaptively and wisely - particularly within the context of personal relationships- is another". According to Matthews, Zeidner and Roberts (2004), understanding one's own emotions and those of others is the key to a satisfying life and such people are able to manage their lives gracefully and well, even under adverse conditions, while the "emotionally illiterate" find their lives full of misunderstandings, frustrations and failed relationships. Organizations and even society in general are more likely to benefit from individuals who perceive emotions in selves and others and use them as signals in self-understanding and management of others (Bhattacharya & Sengupta, 2007). All these indicate the growth of this domain of using emotions for intelligent behaviour in a personal and organisational context.

Bar-on 1997, also says that emotions do affect the outcome of many conflict situations. Casey and Casey (1997) in a study done in a workplace characterised by high competition, organisational change and employee

conflict says that a bolstered emotional awareness and self-esteem leads to enhance conflict management skills. Kop and Euweman (1999) demonstrated that emotional exhaustion seems to decrease the use of collaborative strategies and increase the use of avoidance behaviour in managing conflict. According to Barry, (1999) individuals with high self-monitor are good at connecting thoughts to feelings and individuals with high self-awareness are better able to accomplish negotiation goals, develop and maintain relationships within a cooperative context, have superior performance in social interactions and conflict management. Cherniss and Alder (2000) also indicate that conflict management builds on many of the competencies of emotional intelligence like self-awareness, self-confidence, self-control, empathy and organizational awareness. All the above seminal research works done in the nineties, when emotional intelligence research was in the infancy stage put in their assumptions and validation indicating the role of emotional intelligence in conflict management.

Contemporary organisations need conflict management and not conflict resolution (Rahim, 2002). According to him conflict does not necessarily mean termination, reduction or elimination of conflict. It involves managing of conflict by designing macro level strategies to minimise the dysfunctions of conflict and enhancing the constructive functions of conflict. That fulfills the following criterion: Minimize affective conflict at various levels ; attain and maintain moderate amount of substantive conflict; and select and use of appropriate conflict management styles. Conflict researchers are also of the opinion that conflict to be managed functionally one style may be more appropriate than another depending upon the situation (Rahim, 2001; Rahim & Bonoma, 1979; Thomas, 1992). This again coincides with contemporary contingency approach followed in leadership.

Rahim (2002) suggested two strategies for handling conflict; problem solving and bargaining styles organised according to the integrative and distributive dimensions of labour management bargaining. As per this approach the integrative dimension represents a party's concern (high-low) for self and others. The distributive dimension represents a party's concern (high-low) for self or others. These two dimensions represent the problem solving and bargaining strategies for handling conflict, respectively (Rahim, Antonioni, & Psemcka, 2001). A problem solving strategy represents a party's pursuit of own and others' concerns, whereas the bargaining strategy represents a party's pursuit of own or others' concerns. These two styles; Problem solving strategy and Bargaining strategy leads to functional and dysfunctional conflict respectively. Accordingly a High-High use of the problem solving strategy indicates attempts to increase the satisfaction of concerns of both parties by finding unique solutions to the problems acceptable to them. A Low-Low use of this strategy indicates reduction of satisfaction of the concerns of both parties as a result of their failure to confront and solve their problems. Compromising is the point of intersection of the two dimensions, that is, a middle ground position where a party has an intermediate level of concerns for own and others.

According to Pareek and Purohit (2011), it is the perception of the conflicting groups that is used to understand the modes of conflict management. They suggested two modes of conflict management – approach and avoidance as perceived by the out-group. Avoidance is based on fear and dysfunctional while approach is based on hope and functional. Avoidance is typified by a tendency to deny, rationalise or avoid the problem, to displace anger or aggression or to use emotional appeals while approach orientation is characterised by making efforts to find a solution by one's own efforts or with

the help of others. This dimension has been used in understanding conflict styles of managers (Pareek, 1982). Considering the model proposed by both Rahim (2002) and Pareekh (1982), conflicts at workplace lead to either functional or dysfunctional outcomes at the workplace. As per Rahim Problem Solving strategy leads to functional conflict handling while the Bargaining leads to a dysfunctional outcome. Parikh has also proposed a model of functional /dysfunctional outcomes of conflict in terms of approach /avoidance orientation.

The outcome of a conflict may be destructive or constructive but since it cannot be eliminated from the workplace, learning appropriate conflict-handling skills is important (Deutsch, 1993). How one respond to and resolve conflict will limit or enable your success and it is here that EI competencies play a significant role. A person with high EI can manage his or her own impulses (self-awareness & Self-management), communicate with others effectively, solve problems and build a rapport even in adverse situations. A person with high EI would be aware of the context and hence adapts himself to the organisation's needs and therefore may not confine to adopting one style alone instead use multiple styles so that conflicts are handled in a functional way (Ellis, 2010). Hence person with a high EI will resort to multiple styles according to the demand of the situation to resolve it in a functional manner. Having considered the theoretical perspectives that links these variables the researcher further proceeds to review some of the most cited conceptual articles and empirical studies done in this direction

As an empirical confirmation to the conceptual model (discussed above) proposed by Rahim (2002), Rahim et al., (2002) investigated the relationship between the EI constructs and the conflict strategies namely the problem solving and bargaining with a huge sample (N=1395) of management students

from six countries. Results of the study support the model which suggests that self-awareness is positively associated with self-regulation, empathy, and social skills; self-regulation is positively associated with empathy and social skills; empathy and social skills are positively associated with motivation; which in turn, is positively associated with problem solving strategy and negatively associated with bargaining strategy. The model proposed found sufficient acceptance across the different countries. But the study had pointed out the need for larger and representative studies from samples of various cultural background is needed on this model and also to understand the interrelationship of EQ, conflict styles and effectiveness of employees and supervisors.

Schutte et al., (2001) in seven studies on emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations found that people with higher EI, desired more inclusion and affection but not control in relationships have higher empathetic perspective taking and self-monitoring in social situations, cooperation towards partners, and found higher scores for marital satisfaction. This is evidence having a higher EI always enhance interpersonal relations.

Syna-Desivilya and Yagil (2005) did a study with sixty nine intact work teams comprising of nurses and physicians found that cooperative patterns of conflict management are associated with positive emotional states; contentious or dominating patterns of conflict management are associated with both positive and negative emotional states; and an avoidance pattern of conflict management is associated with negative emotions only. The findings indicate the centrality of emotional experience in conflict management at an intragroup level.

Humphrey (2006) in his study reviews the highlights of five articles in the special issue on emotions and coping with conflict. It points out research areas that offer potential for future research breakthroughs. Three variables are given attention from the Bryant and Cox article on ‘The expression of suppression: Loss of emotional labour in narratives of organisational change’, namely empathy, the ability to recognize emotions in others, and the ability to express one's own emotions are identified in creating trusting relationships at times of change and conflict and suggests empirical testing.

According to Dreachslin and Kiddy (2005) there are six main causes of conflict viz., unclear expectations, ineffective or poor communication, lack of clear jurisdiction, interpersonal styles or attitudes, conflicts of interests, and organizational change. They also stated the resolving styles of conflicts such as collaborating, competing, compromising, accommodating and avoiding. The researcher suggested the best technique to manage conflict by developing emotional intelligence among the members of the team or group at office.

Nair (2008), in her article tries to connect the literature on conflict with that of emotions. According to the author, emotions had been widely understudied in conflict literature and vice versa. She points out that although the workplace is saturated with emotion, research has neglected the impact of emotions on organizational life, this view is endorsed by Muchinsky (2000) in his article aptly titled, “Emotions in the workplace: the neglect of organization behaviour” and also in Ashforth and Humphrey (1995). According to Nair (2008), EI is a valuable factor for achieving integrative negotiation outcomes and indicates that future research could address this link of EI and conflict resolution under different situational and contextual conditions. It is also suggested that future researchers in both areas need to not only examine the interlinked nature of emotions and conflict but also focus on the positive role of

emotions in conflict and address the question of how to manage the expression and experience of emotions in a more inclusive way.

Cote and Hideg (2011) in their conceptual paper discuss the ability of correct emotional displays in interpersonal interaction. A person has to accurately perceive his own and others thoughts, feelings and actions *via emotion displays* which is a new ability within the model of EI. This ability consists of deciding which emotions to display to get the desired impact on others and then effectively eliciting these displays during interpersonal interactions. Hence the person who possesses high EI would be in a better position to regulate his emotions depending on the context and use an effective strategy where one gets the correct outcome. Correct outcome results when the person interacting has been able to actually change the other person's behaviour, attitudes and emotions in desired direction.

In an attempt to make a model, wherein the mediating effects of positive emotional arousal and self-conscious emotions in the relationship between conflict and trust, Chen and Ayoka (2012) did a study with three hundred and twenty five post graduate students in Australia. It was found that positive emotions mediated the link between conflict and trust. The types of conflict namely the task conflict, relationship conflict and process conflict was associated with differing aspects of positive emotional arousal (enthusiasm & excitement) and self-conscious emotions (guilt & shame) which suggests that there exists a link between emotions and conflict.

Schlaerth, Ensari and Christian (2013) did a meta-analysis investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and constructive conflict management and the moderating role of leadership position and age. A total of twenty studies yielding 280 effect sizes and involving 5,175 participants were

examined in which age and leadership role were tested as potential moderators for overall EI. The results of the mixed effects regression (method of moments) computation revealed that leadership position was a significant moderator. It was found that the relationship between overall EI and constructive conflict management was stronger for subordinates than for leaders.

Post 2000's, we find that several empirical studies has been done on this similar thought, of which some of the noteworthy studies are discussed below. One of the earlier studies in this area was done by Malek (2000) with business professionals working in the metropolitan cities in US. The purpose of the study was to find out the relationship between EI and collaborative style. This correlational study, which used Bar on EQ instrument and TKI conflict instrument found a statistically significant relationship between collaborative conflict management styles and emotional intelligence, and a negative correlation with avoiding and accommodating style and no significant relationship between EI and competing style of conflict management. Furthermore differences in terms of gender were also not found with collaborative style.

According to Gross and Guerrero (2000), the integrating style of conflict management was considered to be a valuable way to manage interactions with other individuals in conflict situations, facilitating proper resolution of conflict and producing more productive results.

Jordan and Troth (2004) found that integrative and dominating styles of conflict handling are positively correlated with ability to deal with own and others' emotions and overall EI of the individuals members working in a team; however they also found that avoiding style of conflict resolution style is negatively correlated with ability to deal with own emotions and overall EI of

individuals in the team and with the ability to deal with own emotions of the teams. Further they also found that integrating style of conflict resolution was positively correlated with ability to deal with own and others' emotions, and overall EI of the team.

Srinivasan and George (2005) in their research paper investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles of management students from the business schools of Tamil Nadu. The study found that different problems demand different styles of handling and emotionally intelligent students seem to be capable of applying the different style of conflict management styles as the situation demands. They found that students who have work experience exhibit higher emotional intelligence than their counterparts and in terms of gender differences, males of the management schools seem to possess more emotional intelligence than females. Their finding showed that people who were emotionally intelligent seemed to influence all types of conflict management except the "avoidance" style. Two of the conflict management styles that were most favoured by the management students were "competition" and "collaboration".

Ayoko, Callan and Hartel (2008) examined the dimensions of conflict and emotions by integrating features of conflict, reactions to conflict, and team emotional intelligence climate. They proposed through their study that teams with less-well defined emotional intelligence climates were associated with increased task and relationship conflict and increased conflict intensity. According to this study emotional intelligence climate, especially conflict management norms moderated the link between task conflict and destructive reactions to conflict.

Zand, Jomehri and Mirzaei (2008) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence with different styles of conflict management of industrial managers in Tehran city. The study identified that there is a significant relationship between managers' emotional intelligence and cooperation style, reconciliation style and avoidance style of conflict management. Further a significant relationship was not found with compromise and competitive style of conflict management

A similar study done with managers in a university by Shamoradi, Jahangiri, Chahardoli Tirafkan and Mohajeran (2014) which used multiple regression as analysis method found that EI is associated with problem solving and compromise, flexible and avoidance style of which the latter two styles had a negative associations with the EI subscales like social awareness and self-control respectively. Dimensions like self-control and self-motivation seemed to have a significant impact with the flexible style of conflict management. In the case of dominating style, self-control negatively and social awareness positively and both significantly predicted domination style.

Lee (2009), tried to identify the conflict management styles and emotional intelligence of employees working in three prominent property management organisations to examine the extent of demographic factors influencing their conflict management styles and emotional intelligence. Majority of the property management staff members had their EI subscales namely empathy, self-motivation, self-awareness and managing emotions lesser than the median split except for the subscale 'handling relationships'. It was found that the employees tend to use integrating followed by avoiding, obligating, dominating and seldom used compromising. Moreover, the integrating style conflict management style was positively correlated to handling relationships and total emotional intelligence score. The obligating

and dominating conflict management style was negatively correlated to self-motivation and total emotional intelligence score respectively.

Godse and Thingujam (2010) attempted to examine the relationship between EI and conflict resolution styles over and above five Factor theory of personality in an Indian context with IT professionals. A significant positive correlation was found between EI & integrating style and a significant negative correlation was found with avoiding style and unlike the then contemporary studies in this area EI did not have a significant association with the dominating style. The significant linkages were found after controlling for personality variables.

Shih and Susanto (2010) investigated the relationships among emotional intelligence conflict management styles and job performance with government employees of select districts in Indonesia. The antecedent of conflict management styles was investigated and found that EI was an antecedent to certain styles like integrating and compromising styles. It was also revealed in this study that integrating style had direct effects with job performance and had a partial mediating effect between EI and job performance.

In a service sector context, Morrison (2008) in a study done with registered nurses in Mississippi found that EI (EI clusters namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) had a significant positive relationship with collaborative style and a negative relationship with accommodating style. A similar study done with nursing managers in different units of a large hospital in Egypt, by Mohamed and Yousef (2014) found that age and EI had a significant correlation and EI was positively associated with forcing and smoothing conflict management styles,

while a negative correlation with avoiding style was observed. A similarity with Jordan & Troth (2004) study was found here too.

Chan, Sit and Lau (2014) in a study with 568 nursing students in a university of Hong Kong which was aimed at examining the association of EI and implicit theories of personality on conflict management styles found that EI was a significant predictor to all the five styles, while personality theory was associated only to the compromise style. The study says that higher the EI the more students used integrating, obliging, compromising and dominating styles and lower the EI the more they used the avoiding style. Effects of gender was also found to be significant for integrating, dominating and compromising style and it was also suggested in the study for further studies to understand the psychosocial mechanisms between gender and conflict management style.

Chen, Hou and Wu (2016) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI), conflict management styles and job performance in a Chinese cultural context with around 248 employees working in the Research and development department. The results show that EI has a positive impact on job performance. Furthermore, conflict management styles moderate the relationship between EI and job performance ie the relationship between EI and job performance becomes negative when people adopt a high level of active conflict management style. Conversely, the relationship between EI and job performance becomes much stronger when people adopt a high level of agreeable conflict management style.

Pietersen (2014) did a correlational study to identify preferred interpersonal conflict management style(s) and level of emotion self-management competencies (emotion expression and emotion regulation) with certified public accountants in the South African context. A highly significant

positive relationship between collaboration style and a significant negative relationship between avoiding and accommodating style and emotion expression was found. Competing style and compromising style did not have a relationship with both emotion expression and emotion regulation; also emotion regulation did not have a significant relationship with any of the five conflict management styles. Accountants though were adept in expressing emotions they were not skilled in regulation the emotions.

Monteiro and Balogun (2015) investigated the influence of age, gender, and emotional intelligence (EI) on conflict management styles among dating age adults in Botswana. A mixed survey and quasi-experimental design was used here to assess the relationship between age and gender and the mediating influence of EI on participants' preferred conflict management strategies (avoidance, competition, compromise, accommodation, and collaboration) in response to violent and nonviolent relationship conflict video exposed to them. The findings reveal that in the non-violent video women were more likely than men to use collaboration conflict strategy and men were more likely to use accommodation strategies in response to the violent video than the women respondents and gender was a significant predictor of accommodation style in its response to the violent video. When there is a potentially violent conflict situation in the context of a romantic relationship, it is likely that men would prefer an accommodation strategy to manage the situation, and in a nonviolent conflict situation, it is likely that women would adopt a collaboration conflict management strategy. A limitation cited in this study was that the gender role identities such as androgyny, masculinity and femininity was not assessed and controlled in the study which opens up the possibility of such a study in future.

Zhang, Chen and Sun (2015) attempts to investigate the relationship among emotional intelligence, conflict management styles and innovation

performance and test the mediating effects of the conflict styles with a sample of one hundred and fifty nine employees working in the chinese construction industry. EI was found to be significantly associated with integrating, compromising and dominating styles and also found that integrating style has a positive and significant influence on innovation performance. Integrating style is partially mediating the relationship between EI and innovation performance which was a major outcome of this study as per the authors.

Hopkins and Yonker (2015) did a study to study the relationship between EI abilities and conflict management styles with students from undergraduate and graduate students at a large mid-western university and found that a range of EI abilities such as problem solving, social responsibility, and impulse control were directly related to different styles of conflict management. The Integrative style of handling conflict which involves examining differences to reach a mutually acceptable solution is linked to two specific EI abilities: problem solving and social responsibility.

A study by Kumari (2015) done with 80 middle level managers in North India, to find out the association between emotional intelligence and conflict resolution styles, found that compromise (approach) and diffusion style (avoidance) was significantly predicted by emotional intelligence. Compromise style was significantly predicted by EI, but managers who were innovative and had better self-awareness however reported a negative impact with compromise style. Diffusion style was predicted best by the managers who had higher EI.

### **3.3 Sex, Emotional Intelligence and Conflict management styles**

Emotional intelligence guides intra and interpersonal behaviour in all cultures, and gives rise to how and what emotions are appropriate to express in the work environment (Abas, 2010) and therefore the study of gender and gender role identity becomes yet another important variable relevant in this study as both of these are psycho social determinants (Monteiro & Balogun, 2015).

#### **3.3.1 Sex and Emotional intelligence**

The researcher also intends to trace out differences in EI in terms of sex. Goleman (1995) and Bar-on (1997) initially had hypothesised that the EI profiles differed amongst males and females. Later on, many of the empirical researches started to concern on sex differences in EI. Research has found that women have an edge over men when it comes to expressing their emotions and perceiving the emotions in those around them, men are better at compartmentalizing emotions so an upset in one area doesn't spill over into other areas (Eagly, 1987).

Women are also better in decoding of emotions via non-verbal cues and have better emotional knowledge than men (Sanchez-Nunez, Berrocal, Montanes & Lattore 2008). A concept like emotional intelligence which is primarily concerned with expression and management of emotions, it can be postulated that women are better in expression of emotions and hence will have better scoring on emotional intelligence (Garner & Estep, 2001; Gartzia et al., 2012; Thory, 2012). A biological explanation for this says that the cerebral processing of emotions differs between men and women, that women's biochemistry is better prepared to consider one's own emotions and those of others as certain part of the brain dedicated to emotional processing seems to

be larger than men (Petridges & Furnham, 2000; Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012). The explanation centred on social aspects indicates that women are groomed to be more caring and emotional, while men are taught to suppress emotions related to sadness, guilt, fear vulnerability etc (Eagly, 1987).

A review of several studies done in this perspective gave varied results. Studies conducted mostly focussed on gender stereotypes and often gives results that are confusing or contradicting (Sanchez-Nunez et al., 2008). In psychological and sociological studies it's mostly found that women score higher than men in EI (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer et al., 1999; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Singh, 2002; Day & Carroll 2004; Van Rooy et al., 2006, Joseph & Newmann, 2010). However there have been studies which gives a different findings too. While women score higher in emotional awareness, empathy, and adept in interpersonal relationships, men also scored high in certain different attributes that make up emotional intelligence like self-confidence, optimism and adaptability and are able to handle stress tolerance, assertiveness, impulse control etc better than women. Instances of men scoring higher than women is also found (Chu, 2002; Kaneez, 2006, Ahmad, Bangash & Khan, 2009; Khalili, 2009). Though most of the evidence point to women having better scores in emotional intelligence, there is no consensus on the specific EI dimensions on which women perform better (Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012)

Several Indian studies done to examine sex differences in EI found similar results. Mandell and Pherwani (2003) found no sex differences, but Gupta and Singh (2013) found significant differences with males scoring high in appraisal of negative emotions and Interpersonal skill and difficulty than the females. Kumar and Muniandy (2012) in a study done with polytechnic lecturers to examine the relationship between EI and demographic profile

found that significant gender differences does not exist though the mean EI score for women were slightly higher than the males. Variables like the age, experience & occupational grade were found significantly associated to Emotional intelligence.

Contradicting to the above observations there has been studies which shows that differences in EI across sex does not exist. Punia (not dated) in a study done on 250 executives working in the NCR region Delhi on emotional intelligence and leadership behaviour apart from the main objective, effects of sex, age and marital status also was studied. The study revealed that the emotional intelligence level of the executives in relation to their age reveals a parabolic trend which means that emotional intelligence level first increases with the age, reach at a peak and then start decreasing. Marital status and EI were not found to be significantly associated in this study in fact the mean EI scores was found to be lower for the married group than the unmarried ones. When analysed in terms of gender it was found that women had higher EI than their male counterparts and therefore has greater emotional stability.

Hooda, Sharma and Yadava (2008), found that gender difference exist in emotional intelligence, where the males scored high in appraisal of emotions and emotional facilitation and goal orientation and the females scored higher than males in interpersonal conflict and difficulty.

Palmer (2003) suggests inconclusive findings with regard to emotional intelligence in terms of sex which could be due to the fact that EI is learnt, and therefore results may differ according to various populations and their socialisations differ across cultures and genders. Yet another reason for the discrepancies the author cites could be the lack of analysing 'within sex' differences, as against difference in sex only.

### 3.3.2 Sex and Conflict Management Styles

A look at the sex and conflict management literature shows that there are studies that support sex differences and also questions sex differences. Results from psychological studies, prior to the 1980s, show that men and women tend to endorse conflict management strategies that complement gender role expectations (Watcher, 1999). Many of the earlier studies showed that women were less competitive and more accommodating while handling negotiations. For instance Rubin and Brown (1975); Gilligan (1993) indicated that females are sensitive to relationship cues while males are goal oriented, similarly in Rosenthal and Hautaluoma (1988) and study done with college students females preferred accommodating strategies while men prefer competing strategies. The primary reason could be due to the way they are conditioned in terms of gender.

On the contrary, most of the contemporary studies show that sex differences are insignificant. Antonioni (1998) in his study found that in general age and sex had little relationship with the variance of the conflict handling styles. In a study done by Havenga (2006) among owner/managers of small firms in china, it was found that whether male or female, except for the integrating style of conflict management, use of the different conflict handling styles were to the same extent. Another Asian study, Boonsathorn (2007) done with employees in Thailand working in MNC's to examine the preferences of conflict styles found that they prefer obliging and avoiding style, but sex wise differences couldn't be identified. Manyak and Katono (2010) in their study done with the aim of investigating differences in the conflict management styles exhibited by male and female managers at different organizational levels in Uganda revealed that no statistically significant differences exist in

the way men and women in Uganda handle conflict when dealing with subordinates peers or supervisors.

Interestingly, not all contemporary findings are consistent. There are some empirical studies that still indicate sex-specific preferences with certain conflict styles which are discussed below. Rahim (2001) in his study observed that men were more accommodating and women more avoiding. Colon (2005) in a study done in a prominent call centre at Hawaii to explore the relation between generational differences and conflict management styles, observed that women had a significant higher mean score for avoiding style than their male counter parts, while the other conflict styles did not report any significant differences in terms of gender. Verdun (2004) in a study done in the service sector with managers of fashion retailer showrooms, observed that sex differences were not present for any of the five conflict styles as per Rahim's ROCI, but gender when interacted with management experience found significant results with integrating style alone. Male managers with one or more years of experience prefer to use integrative style.

Brahnam, Margavio, Hignite, Barrier and Chin (2005) did a study with the main objective of capturing sex differences of managers in the information systems sector. It revealed that sex wise differences were found only with collaborative and avoiding style which contradicts the studies of Rahim (2001) and Colon (2005). It was found that women are more likely to utilize a collaborative conflict resolution style and men are more likely to avoid conflict. This study suggests that women may possess more effective conflict resolution attributes than their male counterparts as collaboration is generally considered more productive and avoidance more disruptive in the conflict resolution process. Specific sex wise differences were not found in accommodating, competing and compromising styles in the study.

Croucher, Holody, Hicks, Oommen and DeMaris (2011) investigated conflict styles of Indians amongst Hindus and muslims, found that sex, age and education has a significant interaction with all the conflict handling styles. Yet another study done in an Indian context at a prominent computer hardware firm, to study the effect of demographic variables, observed that sex do predict compromising and dominating conflict handling styles (Goel, 2012).

Yet another development was the emergence of gender stereotype and gender role identity during these periods. Eagly and Johnson's (1990) meta-analysis found evidence for gender stereotypic behaviour, while the study of Korabik Baril and Watson (1993) supports the phenomenon of "gender-role congruence". Korabik et al., (1993) assessed management graduates who had managerial or supervisory experience and found that there were no sex differences on any of the five conflict management styles among experienced managers. However, there were some differences in non-managerial counterparts. In a similar line certain most cited studies report little or no difference between the way male and female managers handle conflict (Korabik et al., 1993; Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

Thomas et al., (2008) compared conflict styles at six different levels across sex and the strongest finding was that men score significantly higher on competing at all six organization levels and also suggest that conflict styles of men and women do not converge at higher organization levels. This again contradicts to the studies of Korabik et al., (1993). Therefore sex alone cannot be treated as a predictor to conflict management styles.

Despite a large number of studies conducted capturing sex differences in conflict styles, a review of existing previous research works on sex differences in managing conflict has proven to be inconsistent (Brewer et al., 2002; Orbe

& Warren 2000; Schockley-Zalabak & Morley, 1984; Sorenson et al., 1995). In most of the studies where a sex difference was seen, there was so little variance in the selection of conflict management strategies that the findings were determined to be insignificant (Orbe & Warren, 2000). Due to the inconsistencies between sex differences and conflict management, it is necessary for researchers to look for a different determinant of conflict management styles, such as gender role identity (Portello & Long, 1994; Brewer et al., 2002).

### **3.4 Gender Role Identity, Emotional intelligence and Conflict Management Styles**

From the previous discussions a conclusion as to differences in emotional intelligence as well as conflict management styles didn't find conclusive evidence. An analysis of gender in terms of the presence of masculine or feminine traits within a person which could be shaped by cultural factors like the gender role identity may have an effect (Portello & Long, 1994; Brewer et al., 2002, Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Guastello & Guastello, 2003). A literature review with regard to this is presented below to analyse evidence of gender role identity as an explanatory variable for conflict styles and emotional intelligence

#### **3.4.1 Gender Role Identity and Emotional intelligence**

Several research evidences suggest that females have a higher emotional intelligence than males (e.g. Brackett, Mayer & Warner, 2004; Petrides & Furnham, 2006), which in turn has shown to have genetic influences (Goleman, 1998) suggesting higher chances of genetic influences on females. A biological explanation for this says that the cerebral processing of emotions differs between men and women, that women's biochemistry is better prepared to

consider one's own emotions and those of others as certain part of the brain dedicated to emotional processing seems to be larger than men (Petridges & Furnham, 2000; Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012). The explanation centred on social aspects indicates that women are groomed to be more caring and emotional, while men are taught to suppress emotions related to sadness, guilt, fear vulnerability etc (Eagly, 1987). However there have been studies which gives a different findings too. While women score higher in emotional awareness, empathy, and adept in interpersonal relationships, men also scored high in certain different attributes that make up emotional intelligence like self-confidence, optimism and adaptability and are able to handle stress tolerance, assertiveness, impulse control etc better than women. At the same time there are studies which have reported that men score higher in EI than women (Chu, 2002; Kaneez, 2006; Ahmad, Bangash & Khan 2009; Khalili, 2009).

Though most of the evidence point to women having better scores in emotional intelligence, there is no consensus on the specific EI dimensions on which women perform better (Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012).The contention, that gender per se cannot be considered as an explanatory variable to show differences in emotional intelligence. Gender seems to operate in interaction with other variables (Barberá, 1998; Candela et al., 2001; McIntyre & Edwards, 2009- as cited in Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012). An analysis of gender inculcating identity formation by and large shaped by the cultural factors needs to be explored. Hence looking at gender, in terms of the gender role identity which is a powerful component of personality would perhaps throw light on the differences.

A seminal study in this area was that of Gaustello and Gaustello (2003) done with multi generations on androgyny, sex role behaviour and emotional intelligence. It was found that the men were getting more androgynous over the

generations while the females tended to be more masculine. The concept of EI being higher than their male counter parts was true only for the older generation, as the younger generation showed no differences. The study supported a strong linkage of androgyny predicting higher EI scores. The study points out studies linking androgyny and emotional intelligence as research gaps in contemporary research works and urge for further studies

De Freitas (2015) in his work suggests that flexibility regarding behavioural exhibition is not only between the sexes but also within the sexes and thus suggests that levels of emotional intelligence may be more accurately predicted by investigating one's gender role identity than the gender. There are not only differences within the sexes, but there are also differences in terms of whether the traits displayed within sexes are socially desirable or undesirable.

Gartzia et.al., (2012) in their article analysed the influence of gender role identity on emotional intelligence among workers and found that androgynous individuals reported high EI compared to masculine and feminine individuals and suggests that research needs to go beyond sex differences rather than relying on the biological gender differences.

Ardolino (2013) in a study done with undergraduate students found that those who were classified as androgynous in this study had significantly higher emotional and social intelligence scores. No significant differences in emotional and social intelligence scores between males and females or for those with high versus low extroversion were found but there were significant differences between sex role orientations. Males who were classified as androgynous had substantially higher mean emotional and social intelligence scores compared to their peers in the other sex role orientation categories.

### 3.4.2 Gender Role Identity and Conflict Management Styles

One of the most cited works in studies linking gender role identity and conflict management styles is that of Brewer et al., (2002). The study examines the relationship between biological sex, gender role, organisational status and conflict management behaviour of employees working in organisations. Gender differences were not found to be significant in the study. After controlling for sex it was found that people with masculine gender role identity used dominating style, while feminine gender roles predicted avoiding style, and androgynous reportedly used integrating style. Gender role and compromising style did not have any significant relationship either before or after controlling for sex.

Further individuals belonging to the lower organisational status used more of avoiding conflict style compared to individuals than that of the upper organisational status who used the integrating style. The regression analysis also demonstrated that the impact of gender role identity was higher than the organisational status and even more substantial than gender itself in their relationship with conflict management styles. Yet another contemporary study done by Eckstat (2002) found that an individual's gender role identity and conflict style preference was not significantly associated in those cases that did not have management experience. But significant differences were found between groups with and without management experience wherein the individuals with management experience preferred an interpersonal conflict style/strategy in the workplace of "control".

Brusko (2010) in a study similar to Brewer et al., 2002, explored the relationship between gender role identity and preferred conflict management strategies in respect to organizational status with fulltime professionals.

Specific sex differences were seen only with dominating style, with males scoring the highest. However more significant findings were obtained with gender role identity and conflict styles. A significant relationship was found with avoiding and dominating style in respect to masculine and feminine gender roles.

In a study done with 50 samples of managers across various industry including retail, furniture, automobile industry, tourism, health sector etc, gender role and conflict handling styles were studied and found that masculine gender roles appears consistently with dominating style and the feminine gender roles were consistent with obliging and avoiding style (Yousof & Thambi, 2012).

Debas and Narayana (2016) study to find the relationship of gender with conflict management styles with bank employees in Ethiopia found that gender had a significant impact in the use of compromising and integrating conflict management styles while no significant impact of gender in the use of avoiding, dominating and obliging styles of conflict handling were found. This study points out the potential of examining gender role identity in understanding the styles of conflict management.

Gender role identity therefore may give researchers a more in-depth understanding than research regarding sex differences because both sexes are able to possess high or low levels of masculinity and femininity (Bem, 1974; Brewer et al., 2002). Little research on the topic of gender role identity and conflict management has been explored, and additional research on this subject is called for (Brewer et al., 2002; Brusko, 2010; Debas & Narayana, 2016) by researchers. Moreover there seems to be a renewed interest in capturing the gender role identity than difference based on sex.

### 3.5 Organisational Status and Conflict Management Style

The role of the organisational level in conflict also cannot be overlooked. Blake and Mouton (1964) when conducted a survey with managers, most of which were males found that assertive style of conflict management was used as one moves from lower to higher levels in an organisation. Putnam and Poole (1987) later notes that ‘status’ has been underemphasized in most organizational communication research, and when researching conflict management styles as to him, choice of style depends on the organizational position of the opponent in a conflict.

Chusmir and Mills (1989) in their study that tries to capture gender differences and conflict style preferences found that managerial rank was a greater contributor than gender in determining the conflict style preference. The higher the managerial rank the greater would be the propensity to compete in situations involving conflict. Additionally, Gross and Guerrero (2000) explored the appropriate and effective management of conflict, and suggested that the organizational positions of co-worker, superiors, and subordinates may have an impact on conflict management styles. Organisational level which refers to the position of a group in the context of the broader organizational hierarchy (Greer & Van Kleef, 2010; Greer, Caruso, & Jehn, 2011) is considered to be a critical variable in the study of conflict dynamics. According to them groups that differ in organizational level (such as service teams in branch offices vs. management teams in the head office) may differ in their conflict dynamics (Greer et al., 2011, Greer & van Kleef, 2010).

Therefore when looking at differences in conflict management styles in a workplace, an organizational variable such as ‘status’ though ambiguous may help to explain the possible variance in conflict management styles (Brusko,

2010). Multiple studies have addressed that status is a crucial aspect of organizational conflict management and therefore this study have also have looked into this aspect, too (Rahim, 2002; Brewer et al., 2002). According to Thomas et al.,(2008) as one goes up the hierarchy in organisations greater use of assertive styles like competing are mostly observed while collaborative styles are also seen. For the purpose of this study, status is defined as ‘the organizational position that is occupied relative to others in the workplace’ (Domagalski & Steelman, 2007).

### **3.6 Conclusions from the Literature Review**

The literature review gives a strong support for the relationship between EI and conflict styles but the role of emotional intelligence in the adoption of conflict styles that take a functional or approach mode seems to be understudied in an Indian context, particularly amongst managers. It is also observed that the variables emotional intelligence and gender role identity are associated to adoption of conflict styles independently. But there seems to be paucity in studies that look into the approaches that managers take while in conflict in a workplace. Similarly, very few studies have explored the effects of sex and gender role identity in emotional intelligence and conflict style adoption which prompted the researcher to explore in this direction.



# Chapter 4

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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This chapter details the methodology followed by the researcher to conduct the study. The chapter outlines the operational definitions of the variables, tools for data collection, method of data collection, hypotheses formulated, population of the study, sampling method followed, statistical tools used for data analysis and the major limitations encountered in the study.

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## **4.1 Introduction**

The study is conducted to ascertain the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles adopted by managers in the services sector and to identify the role of gender role identity in moderating this relationship. The relationships between the afore mentioned variables were presumed and appropriate hypotheses were formulated for testing after an in-depth literature review.

## **4.2 Variables of the study and their operational definitions.**

Based on the extent literature review done, the researcher has identified three variables for the purpose of the study;

4.2.1 Emotional intelligence (Independent variable)

4.2.2 Conflict management styles and (Dependent variable)

4.2.3 Gender Role Identity (Intervening variable)

As there are several definitions for the variables, we define them operationally for the understanding of the researcher based on the scales identified for the present study

### **4.2.1 Emotional intelligence**

Emotional intelligence a term used by Mayer and Salovey (1997) and later popularised by Goleman (2001) is defined as the ability of a person to manage and monitor one's own emotions, recognise the emotions in others and manage this knowledge of self and others in their relationships and use this information for effective decision making. Bhattacharya, (2003) described emotional intelligence as a total of emotional knowledge of 'self and others' and defines EI "as an aggregate of individuals cognition of own and others emotions, feelings, interpretations and action as per environmental demands to

manipulate the consequence which in turn results in superior performance and better human relationships”.

For the purpose of the study, emotional intelligence is operationally defined as the cognition of emotions within oneself and others and managing these emotions based on environmental demands for better relationships and performance and is taken as the scores obtained by the respondent on the Bhattacharya Emotional Intelligence Scale (BEIS).

#### **4.2.2 Conflict Management Style**

Conflict management style has been and continues to be measured by a variety of classifications. The typology of conflict management styles has been based on conceptual model put forward by Blake and Mouton (1964) and the dual concerns labeled widely are desire to satisfy one’s own concern and desire to satisfy other’s concern (Thomas, 1976), or “concern for self” and “concern for other” (Rahim & Bonoma, 1979) and this is found to be largely acceptable to study the typology of conflict management styles. Conflict style is defined as the style that an individual chooses to satisfy one-self or others (Womack, 1988). Thomas and Kilmann (1978) define conflict style as a patterned response or behaviour that people choose when approaching a conflict. Conflict management style is operationally taken in the study as the preferred style while in conflict to satisfy one-self or others and is measured as the scores obtained by the respondents on the Conflict Resolution Inventory (CRI).

#### **4.2.3 Gender Role Identity**

Gender Role Identity, which is used synonymously in the literature with sex-role identity, is defined as the relative degree to which one endorses the socially desirable traits (or stereotypes) associated with one’s own and ones

opposite gender ( Bem, 1981b). It refers to the relative degree to which an individual identifies him or herself with or displays societally defined masculine or feminine behaviour. Thus a person can be masculine, near masculine feminine, near feminine and androgynous.

For the purpose of the present study, gender-role identity is operationally defined as the degree to which an individual identifies with and aligns ones behaviour as per societally defined masculine or feminine behaviour and is taken as the scores obtained by the respondents on the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

#### **4.2.4 Other Demographic Variables**

Age, sex, marital status, education, organisational status was the other demographic variables considered for analysis. Though emotional intelligence is the major independent variable of the study, the relationship of emotional intelligence with other variables like sex, marital status, organisational status was also tested. While analysing such relationship, the variable emotional intelligence was treated as the dependent variable.

### **4.3 Research Hypotheses**

1. There is significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Confrontation (approach mode) style of conflict management of managers.
2. There is significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Compromise (approach mode) style of conflict management of managers.
3. There is significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Negotiation (approach mode) style of conflict management of managers.

4. There is significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Withdrawal (avoidance mode) style of conflict management of managers.
5. There is significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Resignation (avoidance mode) style of conflict management of managers.
6. There is a significant difference between groups of different Emotional Intelligence (EI) Levels in the adoption of conflict management styles of managers.
7. Gender Role Identity moderates the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Confrontation Style of conflict Management of managers.
8. Gender Role Identity moderates the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Compromise Style of conflict Management of managers.
9. Gender Role Identity moderates the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Negotiation Style of conflict Management of managers.
10. Gender Role Identity moderates the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Withdrawal Style of conflict Management of managers.
11. Gender Role Identity moderates the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Resignation Style of conflict Management of managers.
12. There is a significant difference in Emotional Intelligence across the Sex of managers.

13. There is a significant difference in Emotional Intelligence across the Marital status of managers.
14. There is a significant association between Experience and Emotional Intelligence of managers
15. There is a significant relationship between Managerial Experience and Emotional Intelligence.
16. There is a significant difference in Emotional Intelligence across the Organisational status of the managers.
17. There exists a significant difference in Emotional Intelligence across Gender Role Identity of managers.
18. There exists a significant difference in terms of Sex in the adoption of Conflict Management Styles.
19. There is a significant difference in Conflict Management Styles across the Gender Role Identity of managers.

#### **4.4 Instruments used for data collection**

Primary data was collected using the survey method. Standardised scales authored by established researchers in the field of psychology and organizational behaviour were adopted in the present study to gather information on the three variables of interest namely emotional intelligence, conflict management style and gender role identity.

Apart from these socio demographic details like age, gender, marital status, educational qualification, years of experience and experience as team Head/Manager, organisational status, Category of service operation where they are working were also elicited for the study.

- 4.4.1 BEIS- Bhattacharya Emotional Intelligence Scale
- 4.4.2 CRI- Conflict Resolution Inventory.
- 4.4.3 BSRI- Bem Sex Role Inventory.

#### **4.4.1 BEIS- Bhattacharya Emotional Intelligence Scale**

Emotional intelligent instrument proposed in this study for assessing the EI level of employees was prepared by Bhattacharya, Dutta and Mandal (2004). It is reported that emotionally intelligent behaviours might be perceived differently as a result of the collectivist or individualistic values that is predominant in each culture and therefore the EI dimensions maybe influenced by the prevailing national culture (Gunkel, Schlagel & Engle, 2014). Expression of emotions to an extent is culturally determined which needs to be taken into account while deciding on the scale to be used. Therefore, it was decided to choose a reliable and valid Indian based scale to measure emotional intelligence in the study. Accordingly a few Indian scales were reviewed, of which scales proposed by Chadha (2003), Thingujam and Ram (2000), Bhattacharya, Dutta and Mandal (2004) were popularly used for research purpose. Of this the BEIS Scale was finally chosen for the study considering the nature of questions, ease of administering the same and moreover it has been developed considering the specific Indian culture. This scale has also been validated exclusively with Indian managers and hence found to be more apt for the study (Bhattacharya & Sengupta, 2007). The valence specificity of this test is unique by its nature, which considers the Indian collectivist culture (dominated by acceptance, recognition, appraisal, expressing emotions) and also shows similarities to the existing popular scales too. The test retest reliability was found to be 0.94 (alpha coefficient 0.84). The scale reported a validity of 0.75 between the Indian scale and the popular EI scale developed by Schutte (1998) which indicates the validity of the scale

The scale has 40 items of which 20 are positive statements and 20 are negative. Five point scale with anchors ranging from never true to always true with a possible range of scores from 40 to 200. Scoring of EI is categorized as

extremely high, high, average and below average. The scale described emotional intelligence as a total of emotional knowledge of 'self and others'. The five dimensions of EI that make up EI are; Appraisal of negative emotions (factor 1), Appraisal of positive emotions (factor 2), Interpersonal conflict and difficulty (factor 3), Interpersonal skill and flexibility (factor 4), Emotional facilitation and goal orientation (factor 5). A composite score for EI and as well as scoring for each of the factors or the subscales that make up (EI) can also be obtained.

#### **4.4.2 Conflict Resolution Inventory**

For measuring the preferred conflict resolution, conflict resolution inventory (CRI) developed by Pareek and Purohit (2011), which is an advanced version of Blake et al.'s (1964) interpersonal conflict scale is used. The scale was developed after thirty years of research on conflict resolution and has a split-half reliability of 0.516. The internal consistency or reliability of the scale, measured by Cronbach's alpha, was reported to be 0.71 (Gupta et al., 2016). Two modes of conflict management: approach and avoidance are suggested with five conflict styles.

The five styles that make up the inventory are: Confrontation - the style that resolve by fighting out an issue to get a solution in one's favour; Compromise - the style that resolve conflict by sharing in the gains by both the parties; Negotiation - the style that resolves conflict by jointly confronting the problem and to reach a satisfactory solution; Avoidance style resolves conflict by withdrawing from situations where potential conflict may arise; Resignation is an extreme style of avoidance where conflicts are viewed with a state of helplessness.

The instrument has twenty items measured on a five-point Likert scale. Each of the five modes of conflict resolution was represented by four items.

#### **4.4.3 BSRI- Bem Sex Role Inventory**

Gender-role identity was assessed with the Bem Sex Role Inventory short form (Bem, 1974, 1981). The original version of BSRI with 60 items was developed in 1974, which has been widely used in different cultural settings to provide a measure of sex role stereotyping. The researcher here has used the short 30-item version (Bem 1981a) of the scale, which has shown to be both purer and have construct validity and still widely used as a measure of gender-linked expressive and instrumental personality attributes (Colley et al., 2009). This 'Gender Role' measure has reported a scale reliability coefficient from 0.75 to 0.9.

Since the data for this research has been collected using the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (1981), the following categories of gender role identity, as operationalized by the BSRI, were utilized: Androgynous- represents an endorsement of individuals who are high on both masculinity and femininity; Masculine- It is a characteristic which is independently judged by both men and women to be significantly more desirable for a man than a woman. It is associated with an instrumental orientation and a cognitive focus on getting things done; Feminine - It is a characteristic which is independently judged by both men and women to be significantly more desirable for a woman than a man. It is associated with an expressive orientation and an affective concern for the welfare of others; Near masculine- Individuals who score low on masculinity; Near feminine - Individuals who score low on femininity.

The Short BSRI (Bem, 1981) scale has thirty adjectives in all assessed using a 7-point scale, ranging from 'never or almost never true' (1) to 'always

or almost always true' (7). The scale consist of ten items deemed to be socially desirable when demonstrated by men (e.g., independent, assertive), ten items characteristic of the feminine sex-role stereotype (e.g. affectionate, sympathetic) and ten neutral items (e.g. conscientious, conceited) intended to disguise the purpose of the instrument.

#### **4.5 Population**

The present study is carried out with an intention to understand the nature of relationship that exist between the variables, emotional intelligence, gender role identity and conflict management styles among the employees belonging to the managerial cadre in the service sector firms operating in the state of Kerala. The scope of the study is restricted to the service sector keeping in mind the growth in this sector and organizational dynamics that comes to play under competitive conditions. Hence the population of the study includes all the employees in the managerial cadre working in the service sector. Accordingly all the managers working on site in various divisions /projects in the service sector organizations who are involved in leading, guiding or coordinating the activities of the members of the division /project for the attainment of the division /project goals were considered.

#### **4.6 Sampling method and sample**

As the population consisted of a large number of managers belonging to a large number of firms in the service sector and ascertaining their number though was finite was a complex task. To get a representative sample of managers from the state the researcher decided to do multistage sampling. The gross state wise domestic product figures were looked into and identified the districts within the state that contributed most to the service sector. From the GSDP contribution of the state the top districts namely Ernakulum,

Trivandrum and Trichur (MSME Report, 2013) which contributed to the service sector was identified. The sectors which contributed the most to GSDP were identified in the IT/ITES, Banking, Financial services, Hospitality and Health care (Mafoi Report, 2009)

A list of the organizations in these sectors was taken from authentic sources like the RBI Bulletin (2012-13), KNBFC Report (2013) & Reports of the Directorate of economics and statistics, Government of Kerala (2014). The organizations for the study were selected using lottery method. The officials were then contacted for permission for data collection. Within each office all those who met the inclusion criteria was taken. The criterion stipulated for the inclusion as a sample element was that the respondent should have been serving as manager for the past one year in a service sector firm.

**Table 4.1 District wise distribution of sample collected**

<b>District</b>	<b>Number of questionnaires distributed</b>	<b>Final usable number</b>
Trivandrum	250	164
Ernakulam	250	239
Trichur	100	46
Total	600	449

Questionnaires were distributed during regular working hours and those who were willing and able to fill it were asked to fill up the same as per clear instructions from the researcher. A total of 600 questionnaires were distributed of which 509 responded promptly. Of the 509 responses considerations like completeness, adequacy and randomness in responses were verified and the researcher had to discard a further 60 bringing the total sample size to 449. The discarded filled in questionnaires were either incomplete, or found a deliberate

pattern of recording responses, or did not meet the inclusionary criterion. The period of data collection was from October 2014- April 2015. The final usable sample obtained is summarised in the Table 4.1.

#### **4.7 Scale Reliability**

Reliability refers to the consistency with which a test of measures; without consistency measurement is compromised. There are two ways to measure consistency; one is to assess the internal consistency that is whether participant's responses are consistent across items and the second one is testing the split half estimates which are employed to test the items heterogeneity.

A pilot study was conducted to check the reliability of the tests, to assess the adequacy of the instructions and to measure the time needed to complete the survey. For this study the researcher used Cronbach's alpha to assess the reliability of all the three tests used for the pilot study and the same was found to be high and adequate enough for all the three tests.

The internal consistency of scales having more than six items cronbach's alpha value was estimated. Given the small number of items (four items each) in conflict management subscales the inter item correlation averages were also verified for reliability estimates (Pallant, 2007). The Cronbach's alpha for the tests used for measuring emotional intelligence, conflict management style, and gender role identity were 0.891, 0.805 and 0.947 respectively. The details are demonstrated in Table 4.2 and 4.3.

Table 4.2 summarises the full scale measure reliability of the three scales used in the research and table 4.3 summarises the inter item correlation estimates of subscales of conflict management.

**Table 4.2 Reliability estimates of composite scale measures.**

Sl.No:	Itemised and total scores of scales used in research	Cronbach's $\alpha$
1	Bhattacharya Emotional Intelligence Scale	.891
	1.1 Appraisal of Negative emotions	.897
	1.2 Appraisal of Positive emotions	.855
	1.3 Interpersonal skill and conflict	.776
	1.4 Inter personal skill and flexibility	.727
	1.5 Emotional facilitation and goal orientation	.822
2	Conflict Resolution Inventory	.805
3	Bem Sex Role Inventory	.947

**Table 4.3 Reliability estimates of the sub scale measures.**

Sl no:	Mean inter item correlation of subscales	$r$
1	Confrontation	.304
2	Compromise	.210
3	Negotiation	.355
4	Withdrawal	.197
5	Resignation	.194

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1. However, there is actually no lower limit to the coefficient, it is said that a value closer to 1 would be ideal. George and Mallery (2003) provide the following rules of thumb: “\_ > .9 – Excellent, \_ > .8 – Good, \_ > .7 – Acceptable, \_ > .6 – Questionable, \_ > .5 – Poor and \_ < .5 – Unacceptable”. The values reported for the three scales namely BEIS, CRI and BSRI are 0.891,

0.805 and 0.947 respectively. We can therefore assume that the internal consistency is reasonably good and adequate enough for research.

While the composite scale of CRI showed reasonably good internal consistency for the 20 items put together. Each of the subscales that measure the five different conflict styles had only 4 items each. Mean inter item correlations were used instead of cronbach alpha values to determine their internal consistencies (Pallant, 2007; Golpelwar, 2012).

Inter-item correlations examine the extent to which scores on one item are related to scores on all other items in a scale. It provides an assessment of item redundancy: the extent to which items on a scale are assessing the same content (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2005). Ideally, the average inter-item correlation for a set of items should be between 0.20 and 0.40. The mean inter-item correlations for the subscales Confrontation (0.304), Compromise (0.210), Negotiation (0.355) fitted between the optimal recommended range of 0.2-0.4 as mentioned in (Briggs & Cheek, 1986) for scales having less than 10 items. The subscales of withdrawal (0.197) and resignation (0.194) were however found not to reach the optimum level, but can be considered as it is close to the recommended level (Golpelwar, 2012)

#### **4.8 Method of Data collection**

The data were collected using hand delivery method. The investigator visited the respondent managers and administered the survey instruments to the managers. Respondents were given appropriate instructions regarding how to go about with the tests and method of marking their responses without any error.

#### **4.9 Tools used for Data Analysis**

The data analysis was based on the research objectives and hypothesis formulated for the study. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 21 was used for the statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics were calculated for the sample for each of the variables. Mean and Standard deviations were determined for each variable in the study. To measure the internal consistency and reliability of the instrument Cronbach's alpha for full scale measures and the mean inter item correlation for certain subscales was used.

To explore the relationship between independent and dependent variables, various statistical methods were used. Simple regression analysis was performed to investigate the impact of EI if any, on the adoption of each conflict style. It may be noted here that the research objective was to ascertain the extent to which EI influenced the level of adoption of a particular conflict management style. Therefore, simple regression was deemed adequate in this context. Sample size of 449 was also a factor which weighed on this decision. The small size of the sample ruled out the use of Structural Equation Modelling especially since moderation analysis required multi-group analysis where sample sizes for sub-groups were inadequate for proceeding with the evaluation of the model which contained 60 indicators in total.

To test moderation of gender role identity between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles, OLS based path analytical framework, using PROCESS Macro 2.14 in SPSS Version 21 was used. The researcher wanted to estimate the effects of emotional intelligence and the gender role identity groups (multi categorical variable) on the conflict management styles; hence this method was used as it yields much more robust results. PROCESS is a conditional process modeling program developed by Preacher and Hayes that

utilizes an ordinary least squares-based path analytical framework to test both direct and indirect effects (Hayes, 2012).

Independent sample T test, one way ANOVA and MANOVA were used to test group differences. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences in Emotional intelligence means with respect to managerial experience groups and gender role identity groups. MANOVA (multivariate analysis of variance) is generally used to analyze data that involves more than one dependent variable at a time. In the present research MANOVA was run to test hypotheses regarding the effect of different EI levels / gender role identity groups on the dependent variables (Conflict management styles). This would be more appropriate than running multiple one way ANOVA.

Frequency plots, Percentage analysis, Means and standard deviations were also used appropriately to arrive at meaningful conclusions. Box plot and line graphs have also been used to depict the distribution of responses.

#### **4.10 Limitations of the study**

Any study conducted cannot be perfect and bound to have its own limitations. Some of the major limitations that may affect the study are

1. There may be intervening variables (Situational factors and Organisation specific factors) that were not considered during the study that may affect the choice of conflict resolution styles.
2. The study has measured only the perceptions of managers alone and therefore does not capture the effectiveness of the conflict style that is adopted by the managers in the work context.
3. An analysis of the EI dimensions with conflict management styles was not done. The study has taken into consideration only the total EI scores.

# Chapter 5

## DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

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### *Contents*

- 5.1 *Distribution of the variables under study*
- 5.2 *Respondent Profile*
- 5.3 *Responses of employees on different variables in the study*
- 5.4 *EI levels, Personal and Occupational variables*
- 5.5 *Testing of Hypothesis*

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This chapter deals with the analysis of data and its interpretation. The chapter discusses the distribution of the variables under study, profiling of the respondents, response of respondents on the major variables and testing of the hypothesis formulated in the study.

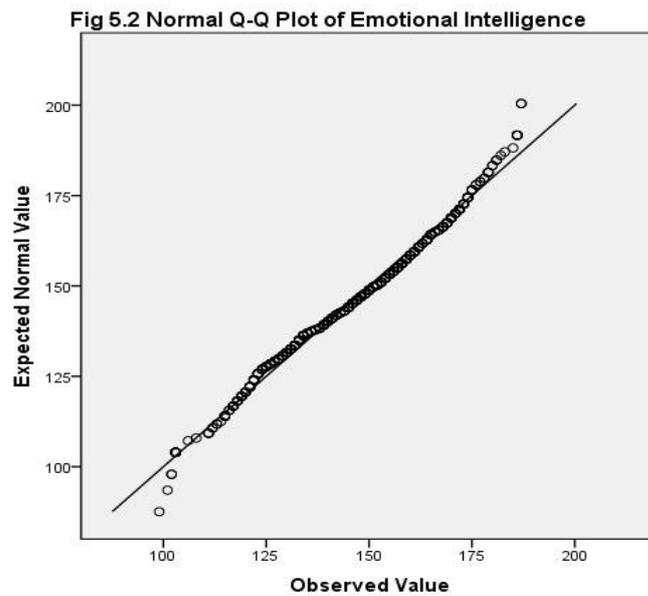
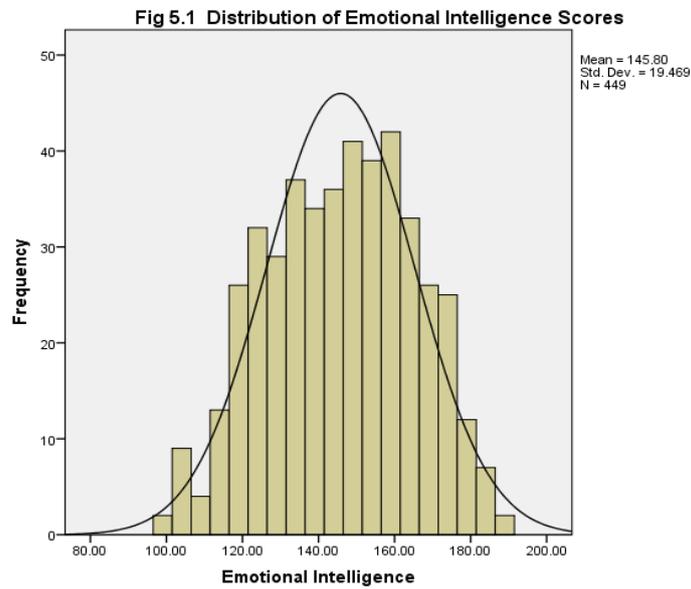
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This chapter deals with the analysis of data. It has been organised into five subsections. The first section discusses the distribution of data and assumptions of normality, the second section deals with the profiling of the respondents, third section gives the response of respondents on the major variables used in the study, fourth section briefs on the descriptive of personal and occupational variables against different EI levels and final section test the major hypotheses formulated in the study

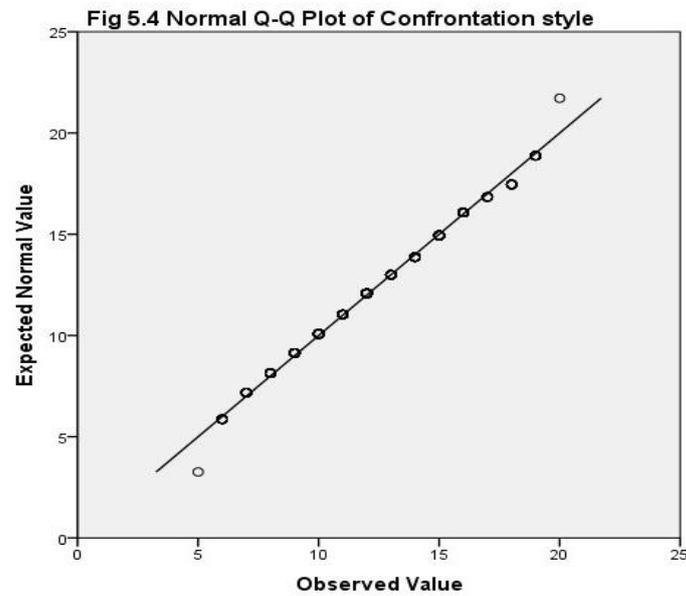
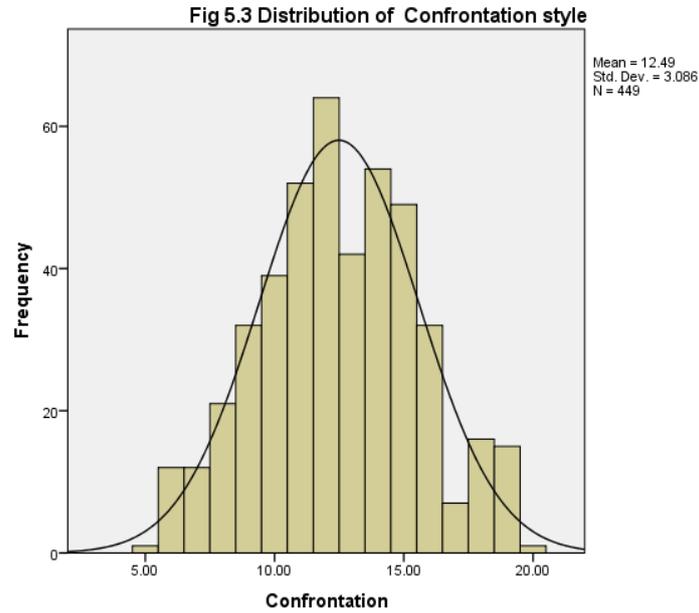
### **5.1 Distribution of the Variables under study.**

For any empirical research, it is imperative that the distribution of data needs to be verified to ascertain whether it follows a normal distribution and use appropriate statistical tools to measure the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. There are two approaches for the same: relying on statistical tests and visual inspection. In the present study, the independent variable is emotional intelligence and the dependent variables are the conflict management styles namely confrontation, compromise, negotiation, withdrawal and resignation. The researcher here has used histograms and the normal QQ Plot to ascertain the normality. A histogram with the normal curve superimposed provides useful graphical representation of the distribution of the data. In order to determine normality graphically, we can use the output of a normal Q-Q Plot. If the data are normally distributed, the data points will be close to the diagonal line. If the data points stray from the line in an obvious non- linear fashion, the data are not normally distributed.

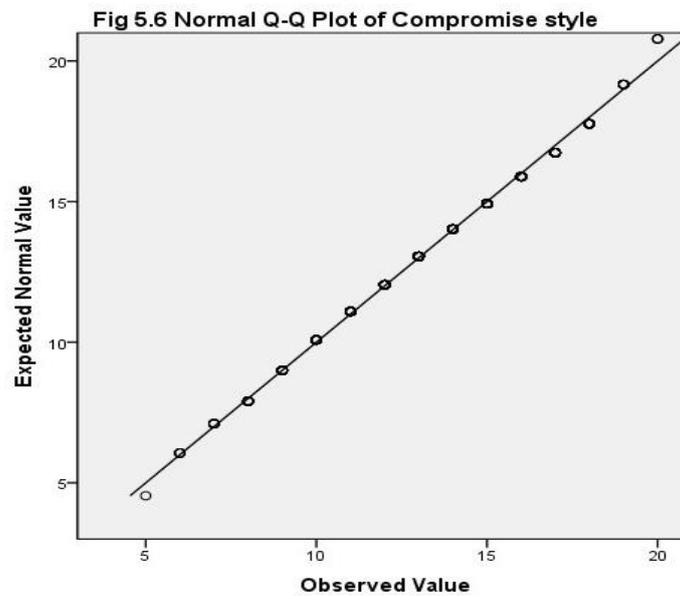
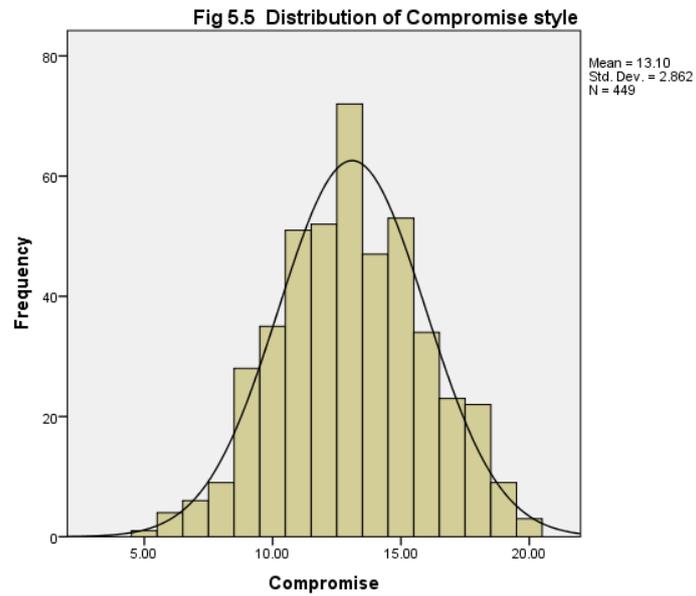
The figures 5.1 to 5.12 outline the distribution patterns of the variables under study.



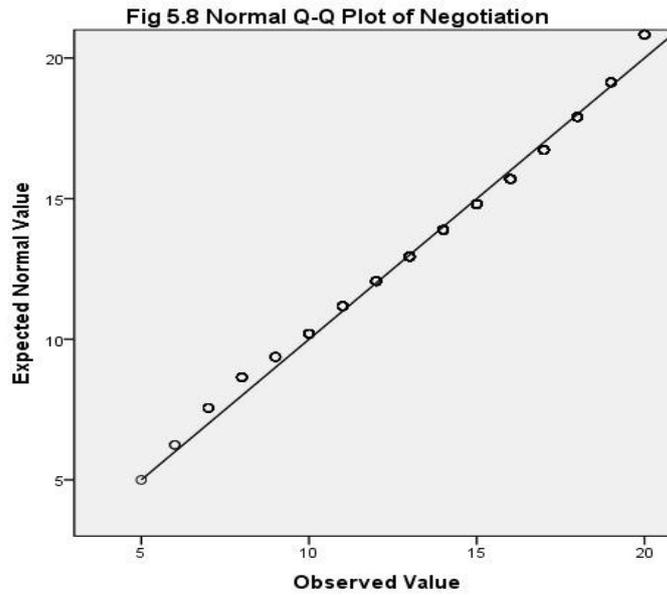
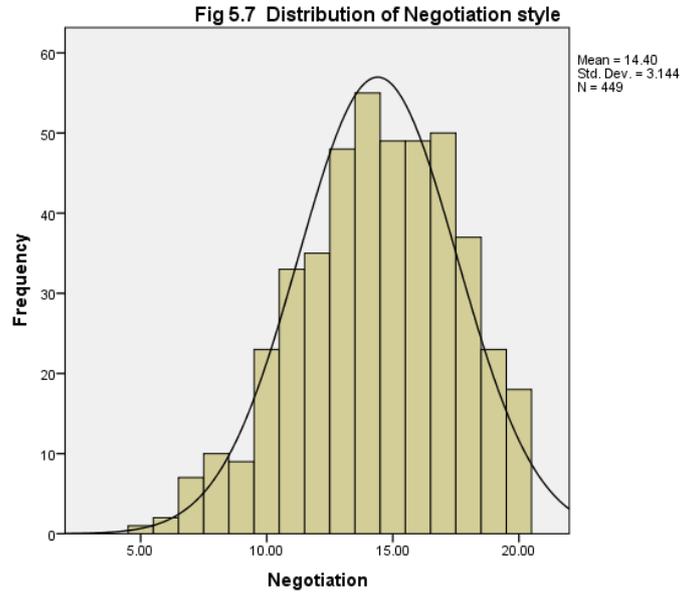
From the histogram given in figure 5.1, the distribution of data with respect to emotional intelligence, the independent variables looks approximately normal. Normal QQ plot of the data (Figure 5.2) also confirms the same observation about the distribution of the variable.



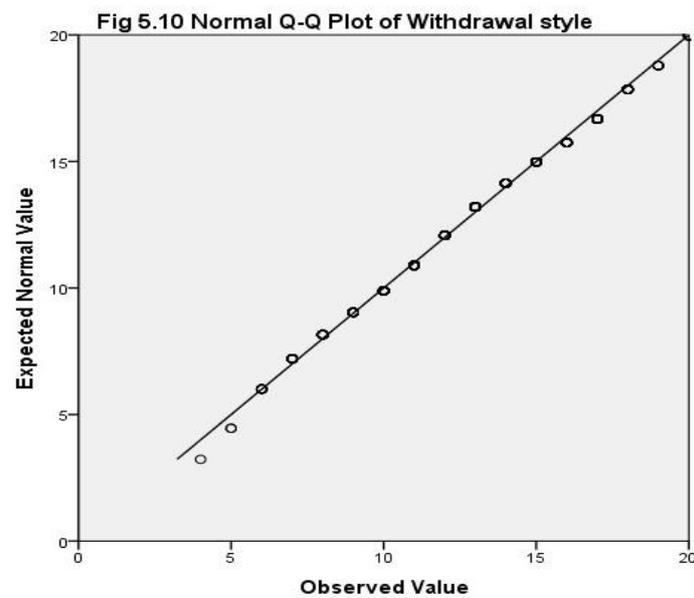
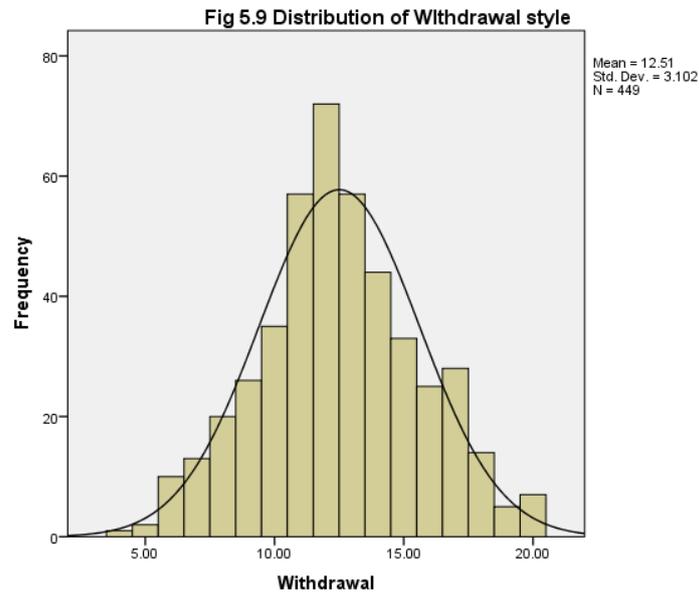
The histogram in Figure 5.3 represents the score obtained for confrontation style of the respondents. A look at the QQ plot (Fig 5.4) also shows a perfectly normal distribution.



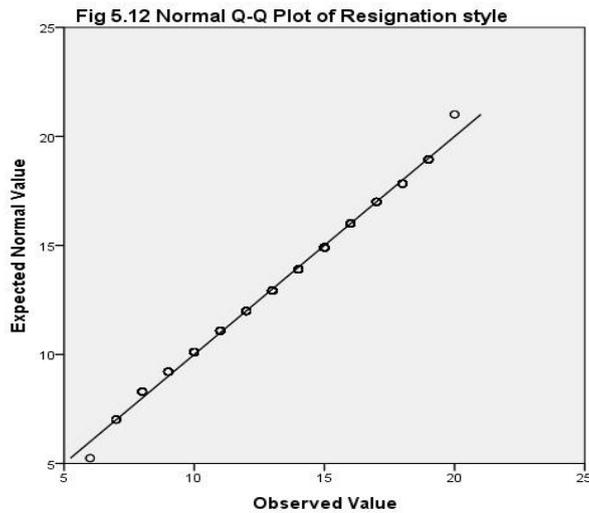
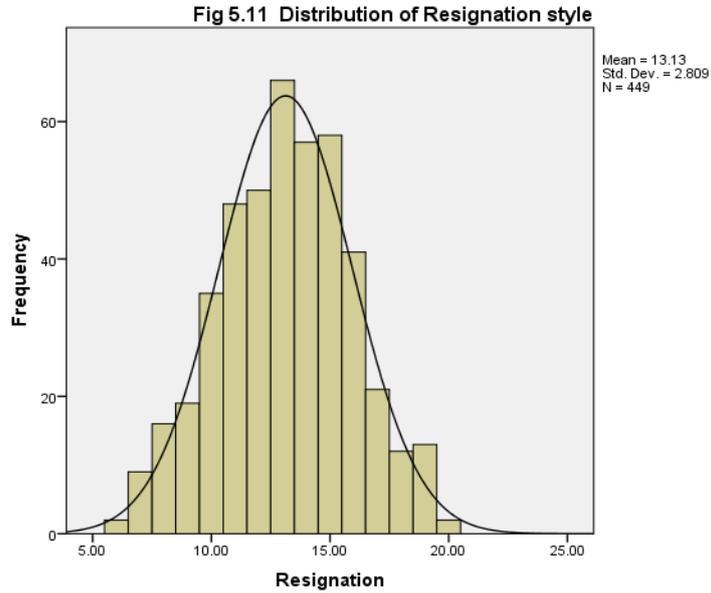
The next conflict management style identified for the survey was compromise style. Here again from the histogram (Fig 5.5) and the QQ plot (Fig 5.6) plotted, it appears to have a normal distribution.



The third style which was assessed was the negotiation style. The histogram seems to show a slight skewness to the right but found to be fitting into the normal curve, and QQ plot indicates a distribution that is approximately normal, as shown in figure 5.7 and 5.8.



The scores obtained for withdrawal style of the respondents is represented by the above histogram with the normal curve also plotted for the distribution (Fig 5.9). A quick glance at the normal curve plotted for the data indicates that the data is distributed normally. QQ plot of the data is given in Figure 5.10 which also takes us to the same conclusion.



Finally the responses obtained for resignation style was plotted, and the Histogram (Fig 5.11) shows a normal distribution, the QQ plot (Fig 5.12) also confirms the same. To conclude, the histograms and the normal QQ plots shown above (Fig 5.1 to 5.12) for the independent and dependent variables seems to be normally distributed and we proceed to do testing based on the normality assumption.

## 5.2 Respondent profile

Identifying the demographic profile of the sample was necessary as it had a bearing with the variables of our interest. Therefore data with respect to age, sex, experience, gender, marital status and organisational status is explored.

### 5.2.1 Age Profile of the Respondents

Several studies (Van-Rooy et al., 2005; Fariselli et al., 2008) have reported that there is a correlation between age and emotional intelligence. According to theorists certain factors of emotional intelligence tend to increase with age. To verify this aspect the researcher had solicited response with regard to age of the respondents to understand whether age and emotional intelligence was related

**Table 5.1 Age Profile of the Respondents**

Mean age	35.23
N	225

Only 49.9% of the respondents had marked their age during the survey, the rest of 50.1% were reluctant to give the details regarding their age. Hence this data was not used for further analysis in the next chapter. The average age of the 225 respondents who responded was 35.2 years. A conclusion with regard to average age cannot be made here due to the incomplete nature.

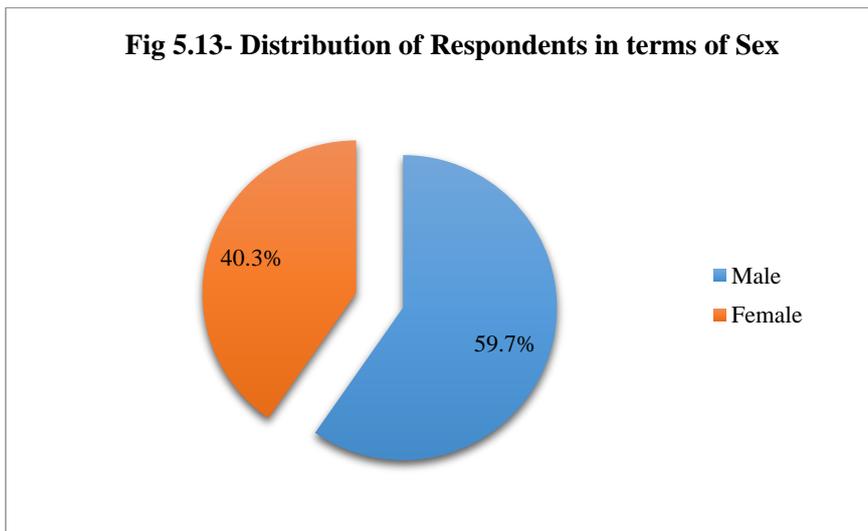
### 5.2.2 Sex Profile of the Respondents

Numerous studies have said that sex and emotional intelligence are associated (Mandell & Pherwani 2003; Joseph & Newman, 2010). At the same time studies disproving this relationship was also found (Palmer, 2003). Hence the researcher decided to investigate this aspect too in the study.

**Table 5.2 Sex Profile of the Respondents**

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	268	59.7
Female	181	40.3
Total	449	100

Table No: 5.2 shows the distribution of the sample in terms of sex. Of the 449 respondents surveyed 59.7% of them were males and only 40.3 were females. As seen in the fig 5.13 majority of the respondents were males, while the presence of women in managerial positions was found to be lower.



### 5.2.3 Marital Profile of the Respondents

Studies say that the status of being married had an influence over emotional Intelligence, so the researcher decided to explore this aspect.

**Table 5.3 Marital Profile of the Respondents**

<b>Marital status</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Married	300	66.8
Single	149	33.2
Total	449	100

It was found that majority of the respondents (66.8%, N= 300) are married amongst the surveyed managers, while 33.2% of the managers were single.

#### **5.2.4 Educational Profile of the Respondents**

The kind of exposure and training that managers have received are diverse in its kind. Being a managerial profile there could be managers who are technically proficient and people proficient. Hence to explore the differences in the educational background of the respondents they are classified into seven categories as shown in Table no: 5.4.

**Table 5.4 Educational Profile of the Respondents**

<b>Educational Background</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Plus 2	2	0.4
Degree	102	22.7
B tech	111	24.7
MBA	159	35.4
MCA	30	6.7
Diploma	38	8.5
PG-others	7	1.6

The respondents surveyed had a varied background ranging from professionals to non-professionals. We find from the above table that a

majority of the respondents were MBA's at 35.4%, followed by B Tech's (24.7%) and degree holders with 22.7%. The rest of the categories were MCA (6.7%), Diploma holders (8.5%), Post graduates- other (1.6%) and plus 2 (0.4%).

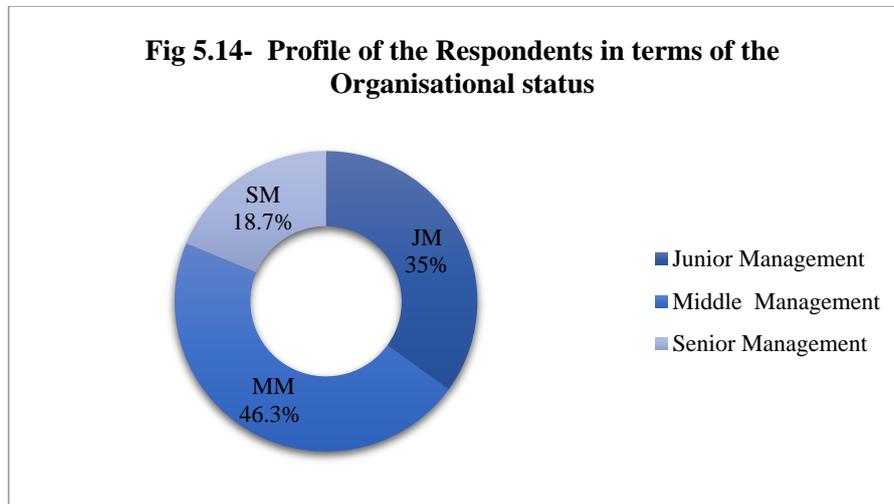
### 5.2.5 Organisational Status of the Respondents

As there is no uniformity in the nature of jobs and job roles or a common term to describe designations across the service sector amongst the respondents, the term 'organisational status' was used here for the survey to classify the respondents in terms of levels of their job in the organisation. Organisational status here refers to the position that is occupied, enjoyed by the person relative to others in the workplace. This was analysed as there is evidence that emotional intelligence increases with increase in managerial level of the managers. Therefore the researcher decided to explore the same in this study also.

**Table 5.5 Profile of the Respondents in terms of the Organisational status**

<b>Organisational status</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Junior Management	157	35.0
Middle Management	208	46.3
Senior Management	84	18.7
Total	449	100

From the Table No: 5.5, we can find that majority of the respondent were from the middle management (46.3%) with respect to their positions on the organisation, followed by the Junior Management with 35%.



We have less number in the junior management levels as our qualifying criterion for inclusion in the survey was a minimum of one year experience of working in the service sector prior to being a Manager.

### 5.2.6 Experience Profile of Respondents

It is said that emotional intelligence can increase as experience increases which is termed as ‘maturity’ effect (Goleman, 1995). The researcher has elicited responses from the respondent as to both their total experience (Table No: 5.6) and experience as a manager. The number of respondents with managerial experience was categorised into four as shown in table 5.6.

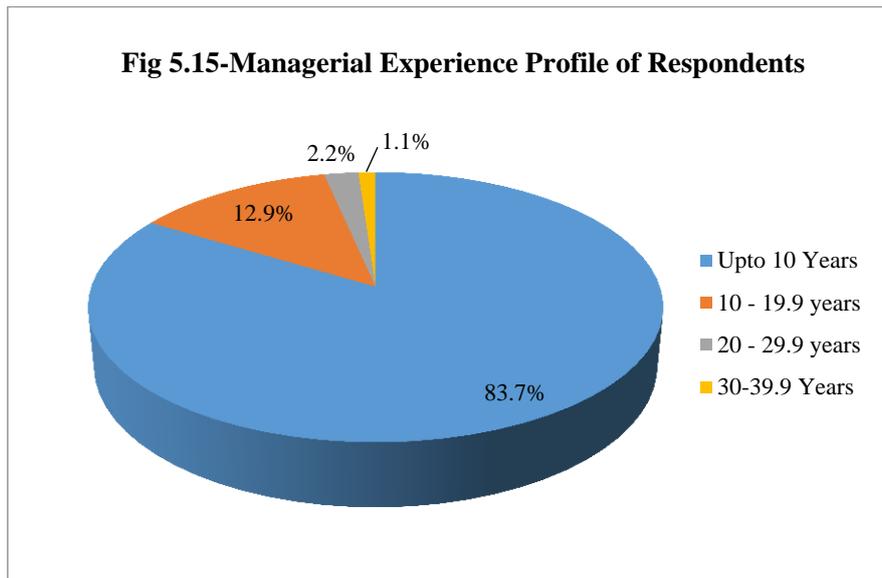
**Table 5.6 - Managerial Experience Profile of Respondents**

Experience as Manager	Frequency	Percentage
Upto 10 Years	376	83.7
10 - 19.9 years	58	12.9
20 - 29.9 years	10	2.2
30-39.9 Years	5	1.1
Total	449	100

**Table 5.7 Mean of the Managerial Experience Groups.**

Experience of manager	Mean
Upto 10 Years	3.15
10 - 19.9 years	12.45
20 - 29.9 years	24.7
30-39.9 Years	32.2

The table 5.7 shows the mean and standard deviation of the managers in different experience groups. The mean value for experience category upto ten years was 3.15 years, while in the category 30 to 39.9.



As seen in fig. 5.15, majority of the respondents belonged to the first category ie upto 10 years. Another 12.9% had 10-19.9 years of experience while 2.2% in the group had 20- 30 years of experience and in the fourth category 1.1% of the respondents were there.

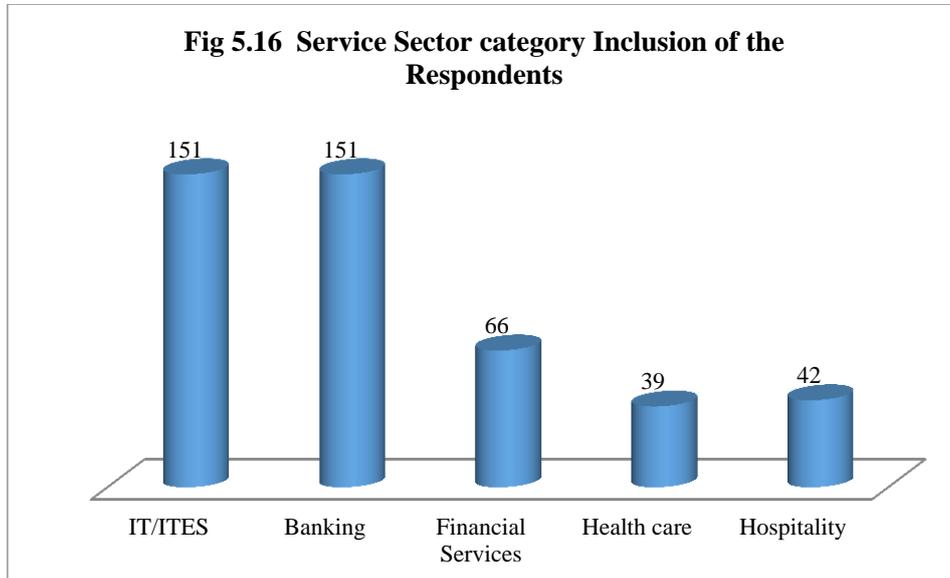
### 5.2.7 Service Sector Categories included in the study

As the scope of the study was limited to the service sector organisations operating within the state of Kerala, the data was collected from the major service sector categories that contribute to the GDP contribution of the state. The sectors included and the number of samples obtained from the various service sector are included in the table below. The table 5.8 shows the distribution of the service sectors included in the study.

**Table 5.8 Distribution of the Service Sector Category  
Inclusion of the Respondents**

<b>Service sector category</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
IT/ITES	151	33.6
Banking	151	33.6
Financial Services	66	14.7
Health care	39	8.7
Hospitality	42	9.4

Majority of the respondents were from IT/ITES and Banking sector with 33.6% each. While 14.7% was from the financial services sector, 8.7% from the health care and 9.4% from the Hospitality sector. The same is depicted as in Figure 5.16



To finally summarize on the respondent profile obtained by the researcher, it was found that the average age of the respondents was 35.2 years. Majority of the respondents were married (66.8%) and majority were males (59.9%). The average years of experience of the respondent managers were 10 years, ranging from one year to forty one years. Most of the respondents belonged to the group of 1-10 years category of experience as team head in their job profile. Of the responses obtained nearly 33.6% of the respondents each were from the IT/ITES and the banking sector respectively, followed by the Financial Services (14.7%), Health care (8.7%) and Hospitality sectors (9.4%).

### **5.3 Responses of employees on different variables in the study**

There are three major variables in the study. Emotional intelligence is the independent variable; conflict management styles the dependent variable and gender role identity the moderating variable. The details of the same are detailed in the subsequent sections. The scores obtained for emotional intelligence and conflict management styles and the different categories of gender role identity after the preliminary analysis are shown below under separate headings.

#### **5.3.1 Emotional Intelligence**

Emotional intelligent instrument proposed in this study for assessing the EQ level of employees was developed by Bhattacharya, Dutta and Mandal (2004). It describes emotional intelligence as a total of emotional knowledge of ‘self and others’ that consist of five sub score or factors that make up emotional intelligence namely: Appraisal of negative emotions (factor 1); Appraisal of positive emotions (factor 2); Interpersonal conflict and difficulty (factor 3); Interpersonal skill and flexibility (factor 4); Emotional facilitation and goal orientation (factor 5). Scoring of EI is categorized as ‘Extremely high’, ‘High’, ‘Average’ and ‘Below average’.

**Table 5.9 Mean and standard Deviation of Emotional Intelligence**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Mean value</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Maximum value</b>
Emotional Intelligence	145.80	19.47	200

Table 5.9 shows the means, standard deviation and total score for the variable emotional intelligence. The mean obtained for EI is 145.80 with a standard Deviation of 19.47. As per the scoring norms of this scale the maximum value one can obtain is 200.

### 5.3.2 Levels of Emotional intelligence

The standardized scale used to measure Emotional intelligence has established certain statistical norms to categorise the respondents into four levels ie ‘Extremely high’, ‘High’, ‘Average’ and ‘Below average’. Two methods were suggested by the author (Bhattacharya et al., 2004) are: Absolute scoring method and Percentile scoring method .In our research we have used the percentile scoring method. The Scoring categories for the BEIS is as follows.

<b><u>Qualification</u></b>	<b><u>Lower limit</u></b>	<b><u>Upper limit</u></b>
‘Extremely high’	75 <sup>th</sup> percentile ≤ score	
‘High’	55 <sup>th</sup> percentile ≤ score < 75 <sup>th</sup> percentile	
‘Average’	40 <sup>th</sup> percentile ≤ score < 55 <sup>th</sup> percentile	
‘Below Average’	20 <sup>th</sup> percentile ≤ score < 40 <sup>th</sup> percentile	

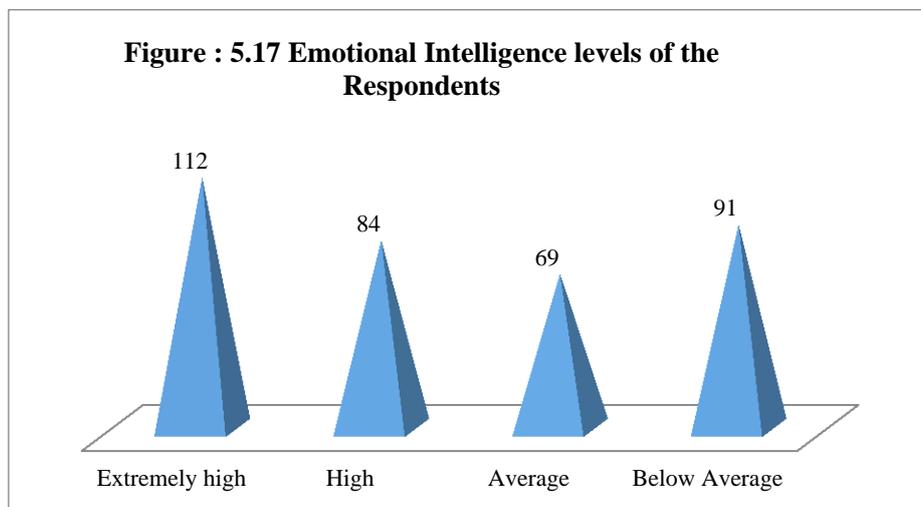
Accordingly the four levels categorised into ‘Extremely high’, ‘High’, ‘Average’ and ‘Below average’ and EI scores were calculated as per this criterion, the results of which is shown below in Table 5.10.

**Table 5.10 Emotional Intelligence levels of the Respondents.**

<b>Levels of EI</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Extremely High	112	24.9
High	84	18.7
Average	69	15.4
Below Average	91	20.3

Of the total 449 samples, 20.3 % were between the 20<sup>th</sup> and 40<sup>th</sup> percentile which belonged to the ‘*below average*’ category, the next in terms of size was the ‘*Extremely High*’ category came to around 24.9 % of the total sample, with a percentile score above 160.5. The categories ‘*Average*’ and ‘*High*’ accounted to 15.4 % and 18.7 % of the total sample, with a percentile scores at 150 and 141 respectively. The group below the 20<sup>th</sup> percentile was not included here.

A visual depiction of the same is shown below (fig 5.17). To conclude 43.6 % in total belonged to the ‘*High*’ and the ‘*Extremely high*’ category of Emotional intelligence, which seems fair enough for a respondent group of working managers with varying experience levels, educational qualifications, gender profiles and organisational status.



### 5.3.3 Conflict Management Styles

Conflict Management styles the dependent variable has five styles being assessed from the scale. The details of the style in terms of the mean, standard deviations are recorded in the table 5.11

**Table 5.11 Mean and Standard Deviation of Conflict Management Style**

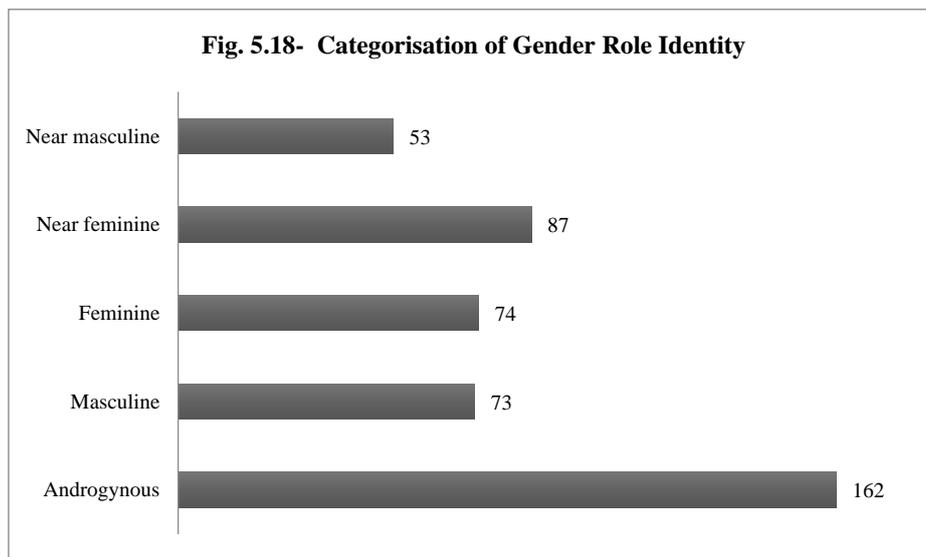
<b>Conflict management style</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation (SD)</b>	<b>Maximum Value</b>
Confrontation	12.50	3.07	20
Compromise	13.10	2.86	20
Negotiation	14.40	3.15	20
Withdrawal	12.50	3.10	20
Resignation	13.13	2.81	20

#### **5.3.4 Gender Role Identity**

Gender role identity was measured using the BSRI scale. Respondents were classified for analysis as high or low instrumental or high or low expressive according to the median item score for each trait. Those who scored high on both 'masculine' and 'feminine' were categorised as androgynous, when scored high on instrumentality as 'masculine' and high on expressiveness as 'feminine' and when scored low on masculinity as 'near masculine' and low in femininity as 'near feminine'. The median split value was found to have a value of 53 for masculinity and 51 for feminine. Accordingly those who scored higher than median split values was considered to be androgynous and high on any one trait like instrumentality or expressiveness were categorised as masculine and feminine respectively and the remaining belonged to the undifferentiated category.

**Table 5.12 Gender Role Identity Categorisation**

<b>Gender role Identity</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Androgynous	162	36.1
Masculine	73	16.3
Feminine	74	16.5
Near feminine	87	19.4
Near masculine	53	11.8



We see from the above Table 5.12, that a majority of them are androgynous (36.1%) and more or less equal number of 16.3 % and 16.5% in the masculine and feminine category. A much higher percentage was found in the undifferentiated category with 19.4% near feminine and 11.8% near masculine category.

## 5.4 Emotional Intelligence Levels, Personal and Occupational Variables

As emotional intelligence could be classified into different levels ranging from extremely high to below average, a cross tabulation was done to see the composition of Sex, Marital status, Organisational status and Gender Role Identity of the respondents across the different levels of emotional Intelligence

### 5.4.1 Sex and EI Levels

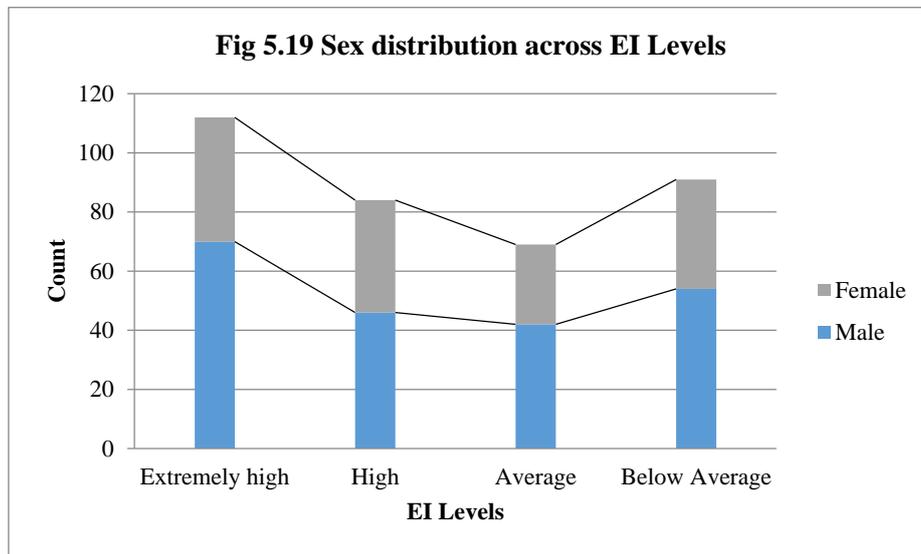
To find out the composition of sex across the different levels of Emotional intelligence a cross tabulation was done.

**Table : 5.13 Cross Tabulation of EI Levels across Sex**

		EI levels				Total
		Extremely high	High	Average	Below Average	
Male	Count	70	46	42	54	212
	% within gender	33	21.7	19.8	25.5	100
Female	Count	42	38	27	37	144
	% within gender	29.2	26.4	18.8	25.7	100
Count		112	84	69	91	356
% within gender		31.5	23.6	19.4	25.6	100

We can see from the Table 5.13 and the Figure 5.19 that males are in higher percentage (33%) in 'extremely high' category than the females with 29.2%. But in the 'High category' females 26.4% outweighed the males as they were only 21.7%. In the rest of the EI levels ie the 'Average level' of EI, males had a slight marginal high score with 19.8% while females were only 18.8%.

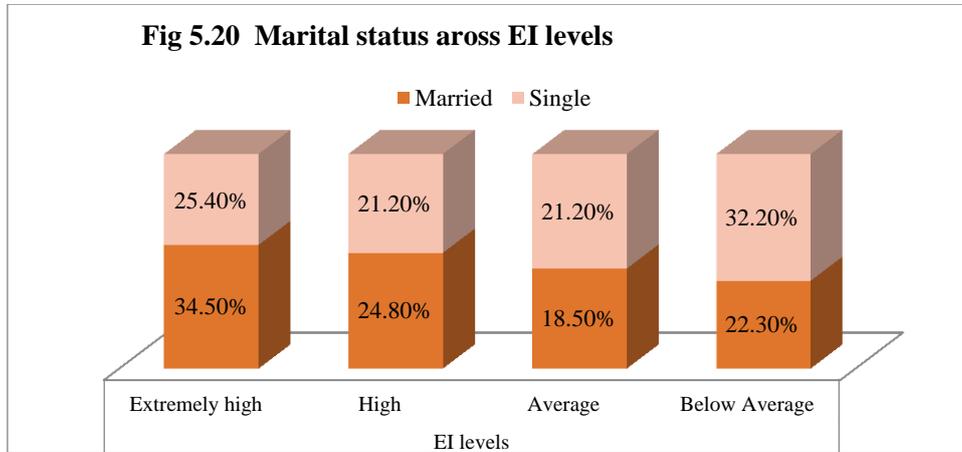
While in the ‘below average’ category the percentage wise distribution was almost close with 25.5% and 25.7% for males and females respectively.



#### 5.4.2 Marital status and EI Levels

A cross tabulation was done to analyse the marital status of the respondents across the different EI levels.

		EI levels				Total
		Extremely high	High	Average	Below Average	
Married	Count	82	59	44	53	238
	% within	34.5	24.8	18.5	22.3	100
Single	Count	30	25	25	38	118
	% within	25.4	21.2	21.2	32.2	100

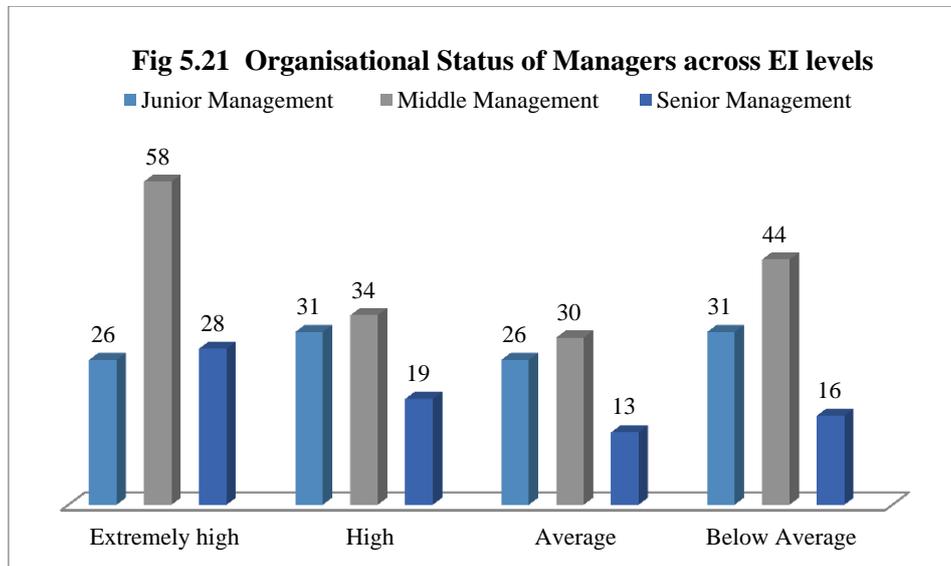


As seen from the fig 5.20 majority of the respondents who were married belonged to the ‘Extremely high’ EI category (34.5%) while a major percentage of the single category were in the ‘Below average’ EI (32.2%) category.

### 5.4.3 Organisational status across EI levels

An introspection as to the composition of the organisational status across the different groups of EI levels was done and shown below in Table 5.15

Organisational Status		EI levels				Total
		Extremely high	High	Average	Below Average	
Junior Management	Count	26	31	26	31	114
	% within	22.8	27.2	22.8	27.2	100
Middle management	Count	58	34	30	44	166
	% within	34.9	20.5	18.1	26.5	100
Senior Management	Count	28	19	13	16	76
	% within	36.8	25	17.1	21.1	100



A look at the organisational status and the spread of EI categories in terms of levels, it is observed that senior management 36.8% belonged to the ‘Extremely high’ category, 25% in the ‘high’ category, while in the Middle management, 34.9% was in the ‘extremely high’ category and 26.5% in the ‘below average’ category followed by 20.5% in the ‘high’ category. In the Junior Management the spread is almost equal with 22.8%, 27.2%, 22.8% and 27.2% respectively from the highest to the lowest level.

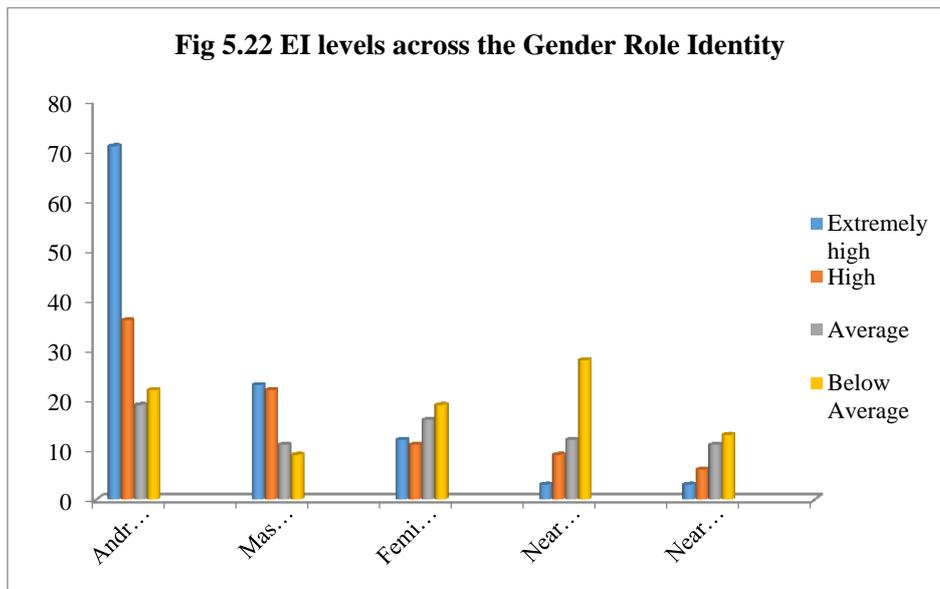
#### 5.4.4 Gender Role Identity across EI levels

To get a preliminary understanding a cross tabulation was done to find out the distribution of gender role identity across the different EI levels.

**Table 5.16 Cross tabulation of EI levels across Gender Role Identity**

		EI Levels			
		Extremely high	High	Average	Below Average
Androgynous	Count	71	36	19	22
	% within GRI	48	24.3	12.8	14.9
Masculine	Count	23	22	11	9
	% within GRI	35.4	33.8	16.9	13.8
Feminine	Count	12	11	16	19
	% within GRI	20.7	19.0	27.6	32.8
Near feminine	Count	3	9	12	28
	% within GRI	5.8	17.3	23.1	53.8
Near masculine	Count	3	6	11	13
	% within GRI	9.1	18.2	33.3	39.4

**Fig 5.22 EI levels across the Gender Role Identity**



When we examine the distribution of the gender role identities across EI levels it is seen that Androgynous Gender role Identity have the highest EI levels inclusion of around 48% in the ‘Extremely high’ category followed by 24.3% in the ‘High; EI category. Masculine gender role also had a majority of

35.4 and 33.8% in the ‘Extremely high’ and ‘High’ category. In feminine gender role identity majority was found in ‘Below average’ and ‘Average’ EI levels. In the undifferentiated gender role, 53.8% of the near feminine was in the ‘Below average’ category. While in the near masculine category, a majority of 33.3% and 39.4% in the ‘Average’ and ‘Below average’ category were found.

#### 5.4.5 Managerial Experience across EI levels.

As per Goleman (1998) emotional intelligence increases with experience and terms it as ‘maturity effect’. Therefore a cross tabulation was done to find the composition of managerial experience from lower to a higher level of emotional intelligence.

**Table 5.17 Cross tabulation of Managerial Experience across EI levels**

			EI Levels			
			Extremely high	High	Average	Below Average
<b>Managerial Experience</b>	Upto 10 years	Count	87	65	61	80
		% within	29.7	22.2	20.8	27.3
	10-19.9 years	Count	19	16	7	9
		% within	37.3	31.4	13.7	17.6
	20-29.9 years	Count	5	2	1	1
		% within	55.6	22.2	11.1	11.1
	30 – 39.9 years	Count	1	1	0	1
		% within	33.3	33.3	-	33.3

A total of 293 respondents were in the category of experience upto 10 years and was found that 29.7% was in the ‘Extremely high’ category and almost equal percentage of 27.3% in the ‘Below average’ category too. As the

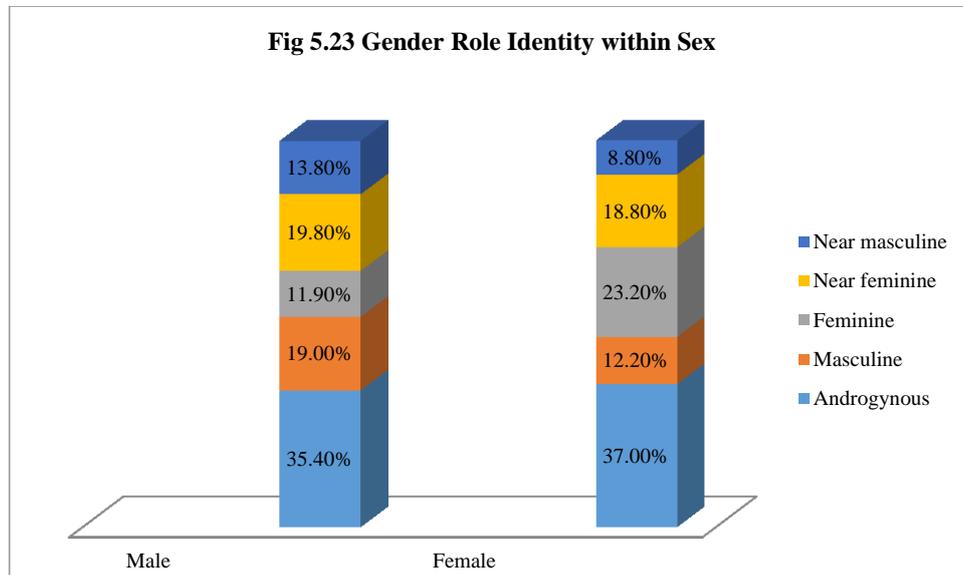
number of years of experience increases we see that majority belong to the ‘Extremely high’ EI category. Respondents who had experience from 10-19.9 years, 37.3 and 31.4% belonged to the ‘Extremely high’ and ‘High’ EI levels and with 20 to 29.9 years of experience 55.6% were in the ‘Extremely high’ category followed by 22.2% in the ‘High’ EI level (See table 5.17)

#### 5.4.6 Sex and Gender Role Identity

It is said that sex of an individual always operates in interaction with other variables (Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012). With increased women into the workforce presently and in future, an analysis in terms of gender and what kind of gender roles individuals assume at workplace has been explored.

**Table 5.18 Cross tabulation of Sex across Gender Role Identity.**

		Gender Role Identity					Total	
		Androgynous	Masculine	Feminine	Near feminine	Near masculine		
Sex	Male	Count	95	51	32	53	37	268
	% within gender		35.4	19	11.9	19.8	13.8	100
Sex	Female	Count	67	22	42	34	16	181
	% within gender		37	12.2	23.2	18.8	8.8	100
Total	Count		162	73	74	87	53	449
	% within gender		36.1	16.3	16.5	19.4	11.8	100



From the Table 5.18 we see that of the 268 males in the study, 35.4% are androgynous ie high in both masculine and feminine traits, 19% are still following the traditional gender stereotypic traits and a much smaller 11.9 % are feminine. When the near masculine and near feminine are put together which forms the undifferentiated category they make a 31.2 % which is again a substantial group with no such specifically strong gender identities. In the case of females 36.1% are androgynous, and only 12.2% of the females assume a strong masculine gender role identity, while 23.2% of this group stick on to their traditional stereotypic feminine traits. In this group also there is a sizeable percentage of 27.6% in the undifferentiated category.

## 5.5 Testing of Hypotheses

The relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles was the prime focus of the study. Therefore the objective of the study was to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management and to verify the adoption of conflict management styles of managers across different EI levels.

### 5.5.1 Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management styles

To test the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles five separate hypothesis for each style was formulated and simple linear regression was used to verify the same.

#### 5.5.1.1 Bivariate correlations

As our objective was to study the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles, initially pearson's product moment correlation was computed to explore the relationship between the two variables. The table below (5.18) shows the bivariate correlations between the composite score of EI and the five conflict management styles.

**Table 5.19 Bivariate Correlations between Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles**

Conflict Management style	Total EI
Confrontation	.446 **
Compromise	.285**
Negotiation	.478**
Withdrawal	.036
Resignation	.124**

\*\**. Correlation is significant at 0.01 level*

\**. Correlation is significant at 0.05 level*

From the above table it is observed that negotiation and confrontation styles of conflict management styles showed a positive moderate correlation with significant values of  $r = 0.478$  and  $0.446$  each. Compromise style also showed a significant positive but weak correlation with an  $r$  value of  $0.285$ . Resignation style which is considered to be an avoidance mode of conflict management also reported a significant correlation but very weak in terms of strength of the relationship at  $r = 0.124$ ,  $p > .001$ , while a significant correlation was not found with the withdrawal style.

From the initial correlations we found that a positive relationship exists between emotional intelligence and confrontation, compromise, negotiation and resignation conflict management styles. To study the impact of this a linear regression was further run to test the hypothesis

#### **5.5.1.2 Emotional Intelligence and Confrontation style**

A linear regression analysis was conducted to verify whether there exists a relationship between emotional intelligence and confrontation style of conflict which is an approach mode of conflict management. Therefore the hypothesis was stated as.

***H1: There is significant relationship between emotional intelligence and confrontation (approach mode) style of conflict management of managers.***

**Table 5.20 Summary of linear regression analysis  
between EI and Confrontation style**

Confrontation	Value
R	.446
R <sup>2</sup>	.199
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.197*
Unstandardised B value	.071
Durbin Watson statistic	1.82

Note:  $F(1,447) = 110.08, p < .0001$ .

The basic assumptions for running a regression like linearity in relationship, multivariate normality, multicollinearity, no auto correlation and homoscedasity was verified. The linear regression model here was tested for linearity with scatter plots and multi collinearity was verified with the bivariate correlations. Durbin Watson (d) test was used to test the auto correlation. This tests the null hypothesis that the residuals are not linearly auto-correlated. While 'd' can assume values between 0 and 4, values around 2 indicate no autocorrelation. As a rule of thumb values of  $1.5 < d < 2.5$  show that there is no auto- correlation in the data. The Durbin Watson statistic here is 1.82, see table 5.20 and therefore is well under control.

The computed 'r<sup>2</sup>' value is 0.199 explaining 19.9 % of the variance in confrontation style by emotional Intelligence. So we accept the alternate hypothesis H1, and it can be safely concluded that there exists a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and confrontation conflict management style. The unstandardized Beta values once again assert that as emotional Intelligence increases there is a positive increase in the usage of this style. This is clear from the positive values of the beta coefficients. The t values are also significant as the 'p' values of the coefficients are .000 which is less than the assumed value of 0.05. In order to understand the

impact of Emotional Intelligence on confrontation style of conflict management the regression equation is derived from Table 5.20 as

$$\text{Confrontation} = 2.215 + .071 \text{ EI (where EI is Emotional Intelligence)}$$

### 5.5.1.3 Emotional Intelligence and Compromise style

Compromise style is yet another approach mode of conflict management style. The researcher has hypothesised that there exists a relationship between emotional intelligence and compromise style and formulated the hypothesis (H2) and verified the same using a simple linear regression.

**H2: There is significant relationship between emotional intelligence and compromise (approach mode) style of conflict management of managers.**

**Table 5.21 Summary of linear regression analysis between EI and Compromise style**

Compromise	Value
R	.285
R <sup>2</sup>	.081
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.079*
Unstandardised B value	.042
Durbin Watson statistic	1.81

*Note: F (1.447) = 296.36, p < .0001*

The regression model summary (Table 5.21) was tested for the basic assumptions as done earlier and found satisfactory. The Durbin Watson statistic was 1.81, which was within in the limit and the model produced a significant  $r^2 = 0.081$ ,  $F = 296.36$ ,  $p < .001$  explaining only 7.9% variance in the relationship. The positive regression weights indicating that with higher scores on these scales a corresponding increase is seen in the compromise style

and the equation can be put as follows. The relationship though significant does not explain much variance and therefore we accept the alternate hypothesis H2 here and the equation can be put as

$$\text{Compromise} = 7.012 + .042 \text{ EI (where EI is Emotional Intelligence)}$$

#### 5.5.1.4 Emotional Intelligence and Negotiation style

To test the relationship between emotional intelligence and negotiation style, a linear regression was performed and the hypothesis formulated is as follows.

**H3: There is significant relationship between emotional intelligence and negotiation (approach mode) style of conflict management of managers**

**Table 5.22 Summary of linear regression analysis between EI and Negotiation style**

Negotiation	Value
R	.478
R <sup>2</sup>	.229
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.227*
Unstandardised B value	.077
Durbin Watson statistic	1.79

Note:  $F(1,447) = 132.72, p < .0001$ .

The results from the table 5.22 were found to be significant with  $F(1,447) = 132.72, p < .0001$ , shows that emotional intelligence positively predict negotiation style and accounts to 22.7% variance in the relationship supporting the alternate hypothesis H3. The regression weights were found to be positive with a value of 0.077 indicating that there would be a corresponding increase in the usage of negotiation style with every unit increase in the EI scores of an individual and the regression equation goes as follows.

$$\text{Negotiation} = 3.124 + .077 \text{ EI (where EI is Emotional Intelligence)}$$

### 5.5.1.5 Emotional Intelligence and Withdrawal style

To verify the relationship between emotional intelligence and withdrawal style, which is an avoidance mode, a linear regression was run and the results of the same are presented below in Table 5.23

**H4: There is significant relationship between emotional intelligence and withdrawal(avoidance mode) style of conflict management of managers**

**5.23 Summary of linear regression analysis between EI and Withdrawal style**

Withdrawal	Value
R	.036
R <sup>2</sup>	.001
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	-.001

Note:  $F(1,447) = .584, p > .0001$ .

The regression model testing the relationship between emotional intelligence and withdrawal style was found to be insignificant and therefore the alternate hypothesis (H4) stands rejected.

### 5.5.1.6 Emotional Intelligence and Resignation style

Lastly, to verify the relationship between emotional intelligence and resignation style an avoidance mode of conflict management, linear regression analysis was performed and the results are presented in Table 5.25. The hypothesis formulated is as follows

**H5: There is significant relationship between emotional intelligence and resignation (avoidance mode) style of conflict management of managers**

### 5.24 Summary of linear regression analysis between EI and Resignation style

Resignation	Value
R	.124
R <sup>2</sup>	.015
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.013*
Unstandardised B value	.018
Durbin Watson statistic	1.98

Note:  $F(1,447) = 132.72, p < .0001$ .

The results from the table 5.25 were significant and support the alternate hypothesis H5, showing that emotional intelligence predicts resignation style positively accounting for 1.3% variance in the total relationship and the equation can be put as follows.

$$\text{Resignation} = 10.517 + .018 \text{ EI (where EI is Emotional Intelligence)}$$

To summarise this section, it was found that out of five conflict styles, emotional intelligence significantly predicts all the approach modes of conflict style namely confrontation, compromise and negotiation and one avoidance mode ie the resignation style.

#### 5.5.2 EI levels and Conflict Management styles.

To establish that significant difference exist in the adoption of conflict management styles across different levels of EI (H6), a one way MANOVA was conducted.

**H6: There is a significant difference between groups of different Emotional Intelligence (EI) levels in the adoption of conflict management styles of managers**

The General Linear Model (GLM) procedure in SPSS was used for the analysis here. The one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with the five gender role categories as the independent variables and the five conflict handling styles as the dependent variables. Prior to the analysis, the basic assumptions for conducting a MANOVA test like the independence of observations, normality, multicollinearity, and the homogeneity of variance were checked.

Due to the violation of Box's test of equality of covariance of matrices (Box's  $M = 75.57$ ,  $F = 1.635$ ,  $p < .001$  at 0.005, Pillai's trace, which is more robust than Wilks' Lambda in the heterogeneity of variance, was used. The Levene's test of equality of error variances that tests the assumption of homogeneity of the variances i.e each variable are equal across the groups was also tested and found non-significant. By convention, if the Levene's test is significant, this means that the assumption has been violated. In our case we found that the Levenes test statistic for all the five conflict styles was greater than 0.05, hence the basic assumption has been met, so we proceed with the interpretation. Here the independent variable was the levels of EI namely the four levels of 'Extremely High', 'High', 'Average' and 'Below Average' and dependent variables the five conflict management styles.

As seen below majority of the respondents were in the extremely high category, which was followed by the below average category. Looking at the table 5.25, we find that the approach modes had seemingly high mean scores compared to the avoidance modes of conflict management styles within the different EI levels. A look at the mean values of confrontation style shows that the highest mean value was found in the 'Extremely high' category (14.61), followed by 'High' (12.58), 'Below average' (11.90) and 'Average' category of EI groups with a mean value of 11.75. A similar pattern was seen in

compromise style too with 'Extremely high' group (14.20), 'High' groups (13.19), 'Below average' (13.07) and 'Average' (13.03) category of EI groups.

In negotiation style the highest mean value was reported in the 'Extremely high' group (16.57) followed by 'High' group (14.57), the 'Average' (14.01) and finally in the 'Below average' group (13.70) category. Withdrawal style of conflict management however had a different pattern, as the highest mean value was reported in the 'Below average' category (12.81), then in 'Extremely high' group (12.75). Resignation style reported highest mean value in the 'Extremely high' group (13.78) the next highest in the 'Below average' group.

**Table 5.25 Mean and Standard Deviation of Conflict Management Styles across EI Levels**

EI Levels ↓	Confrontation		Compromise		Negotiation		Withdrawal		Resignation	
	Mean	S.D	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Extremely high	14.61	2.66	14.20	2.79	16.57	2.37	12.75	3.57	13.78	2.94
High	12.58	2.72	13.19	2.78	14.57	2.75	12.24	3.27	12.68	2.74
Average	11.75	2.37	13.03	2.62	14.01	2.77	12.42	2.77	12.88	2.53
Below Average	11.90	3.11	13.07	2.69	13.70	2.93	12.81	2.84	13.44	2.70
Total	12.88	2.99	13.44	2.77	14.87	2.93	12.58	3.17	13.26	2.78

**Table 5.26 Multivariate test Results of Conflict Management Styles across EI levels**

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's Trace	.265	6.779	15.000	1050	.088*

**Table 5.27 Univariate test results for Conflict Management Styles across EI levels**

<b>Conflict Management Styles</b>	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Partial Eta Squared</b>
Confrontation	516.226	3	172.075	22.874	.000	.163*
Compromise	93.699	3	31.233	4.190	.006	.034*
Negotiation	506.082	3	168.694	23.323	.000	.166*
Withdrawal	19.764	3	6.588	.653	.581	.006
Resignation	70.994	3	23.665	3.118	.026	.026*

MANOVA analyses indicated statistically significant differences in the conflict management styles between the different levels of emotional intelligence, Pillai's trace value,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.088$  (See Table 5.26).

The follow-up univariate  $F$  tests (Table 5.27) showed that all the conflict styles except the withdrawal style of conflict management showed significant results. Confrontation with  $F(3, 172) = 22.874$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.163$ , Compromise  $F(3, 31) = 4.190$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.034$ , Negotiation  $F(3, 168) = 23.32$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.166$ , and Resignation style with  $F(3, 23) = 3.12$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.026$ . Similar to the univariate ANOVA, an omnibus multivariate effect for three or more groups should be followed by pairwise comparisons or tests of complex contrasts, the results of which are shown in Table 5.28.

**Table 5.28- Post hoc test results of multiple comparisons within EI Levels**

Conflict management styles	(I) EI levels	(J) EI levels	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Confrontation	Extremely high	High	<b>2.0238*</b>	.39589	.000	1.2452	2.8024
		Average	<b>2.8535*</b>	.41976	.000	2.0280	3.6791
		Below Average	<b>2.7060*</b>	.38709	.000	1.9447	3.4673
Compromise	Extremely high	High	<b>1.0060*</b>	.39410	.011	.2309	1.7810
		Average	<b>1.1674*</b>	.41786	.005	.3456	1.9893
		Below Average	<b>1.1305*</b>	.38534	.004	.3726	1.8884
Negotiation	Extremely high	High	<b>2.0000*</b>	.38818	.000	1.2366	2.7634
		Average	<b>2.5569*</b>	.41159	.000	1.7475	3.3664
		Below Average	<b>2.8681*</b>	.37955	.000	2.1217	3.6146
	High	Extremely high	<b>-2.0000*</b>	.38818	.000	-2.7634	-1.2366
		Below Average	<b>.8681*</b>	.40693	.034	.0678	1.6684
	Average	Extremely high	<b>-2.5569*</b>	.41159	.000	-3.3664	-1.7475
	Below Average	Extremely high	<b>-2.8681*</b>	.37955	.000	-3.6146	-2.1217
High		<b>-.8681*</b>	.40693	.034	-1.6684	-.0678	
Resignation	Extremely high	High	<b>1.0982*</b>	.39762	.006	.3162	1.8802
		Average	<b>.8927*</b>	.42159	.035	.0636	1.7219
	High	Extremely high	<b>-1.0982*</b>	.39762	.006	-1.8802	-.3162
	Average	Extremely high	<b>-.8927*</b>	.42159	.035	-1.7219	-.0636

\*. The mean difference is significant at 0.05 level.

Post hoc analysis (Table 5.28) revealed that in confrontation style the 'Extremely high' group was significantly different to the 'High', 'Average' and the 'Below average' groups of EI. As the level go down from high to below average differences were reported only with the 'Extremely high' category. In compromise style also similar pattern was seen wherein 'Extremely high' group was different from the other categories.

Negotiation style reported the highest mean value of all the conflict styles, and found that the 'Extremely high' group was significantly different to all categories. The 'High' EI group was found to be significantly different to the 'Extremely high' group and 'Below average' group. Resignation style reported significant differences between 'Extremely high' and the 'High' and 'Average' EI groups. The average EI group was found to be significantly different to the 'Extremely high' groups of managers only.

### **5.5.3 Emotional Intelligence, Gender Role Identity and Conflict Management Styles.**

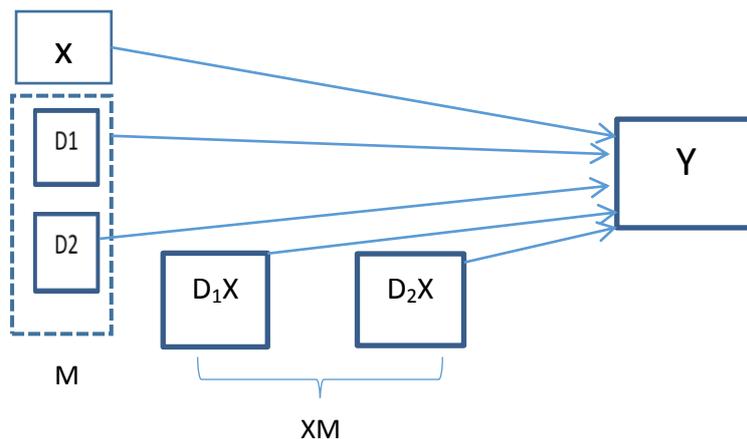
To examine the interrelationship between Emotional intelligence and conflict management style(s) and to find out whether gender role identity i.e being androgynous, feminine or masculine moderate the relationship between the two, five separate regression equations for each of conflict management styles namely confrontation, compromise, negotiation, withdrawal and resignation was done. The hypotheses for the same were set as follows.

To verify whether the gender role identity moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles, simple linear regression was identified and was done using the PROCESS macro version 2.14, in SPSS Version 21. PROCESS is a conditional process modeling program developed by Preacher and Hayes (2013) that utilizes an ordinary least squares-based path analytical framework to test for both direct and

indirect effects. Within the PROCESS Macro, “Model 1” (Figure No: 5.24) as suggested in Hayes and Preacher (2013) was used to test simple moderation.

The present study examines gender role identity as the moderator between the relationships of interest. A moderator is defined as a pre-existing factor that determines which individuals at one level of an Independent Variable will perform better or worse on a Dependent Variable (Kraemer et al., 2008) or it is defined as a variable that modifies the form or strength of a relationship between Independent Variable and dependent variable. Moderation implies an interaction effect, where introducing a moderating variable changes the direction or magnitude of the relationship between two variables. A moderation effect could be (a) Enhancing, where increasing the moderator would increase the effect of the predictor (IV) on the outcome (DV); (b) Buffering, where increasing the moderator would decrease the effect of the predictor on the outcome; or (c) Antagonistic, where increasing the moderator would reverse the effect of the predictor on the outcome (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Keith, 2015).

**Fig. 5.24- Statistical Diagram showing the interrelationship between the variables.**



Source : Model 1 (Multicategorical M with K categories) for PROCESS for SPSS and SAS, 2013-2015, Andrew F. Hayes The Guilford Press

In order to confirm a third variable making a moderation effect on the relationship between the two variables X and Y, we must show that the nature of this relationship changes as the values of the moderating variable (M) change. This is in turn done by including an interaction effect in the model and checking to see if indeed such an interaction is significant and helps explain the variation in the response variable better than before. Since gender role identity, we wish to take as the moderator variable was a categorical variable it was coded using indicators.

The different categories in gender role identity were androgynous, masculine, and feminine, near masculine and near feminine. Of these the undifferentiated (ie near masculine and near feminine) individuals were non-definitive by nature, as suggested by Woodhill and Samuels (2003), who suggested that such individuals are unpredictable as they exhibit low levels on every subscale of gender role identity one could not make accurate predictions regarding EI scores. Therefore in this section only the first three groups and their interaction effects was analysed, hence the sample size reduced to 309. Androgynous category was taken as the reference criterion. Interaction effects were created by creating product terms for the predictor and moderator categorical variable.

Moderation analysis is used when one is interested in testing whether the magnitude of a variable's effect on some outcome variable of interest depends on a third variable or set of variables (Hayes, 2012). Going by the Hayes model, moderation can be tested by looking at the significance of the interaction between emotional intelligence (the independent variable) and Gender role Identity (the moderator) on the conflict management style (dependent variable). The moderator variable was indicator coded and examined using the pick a point approach, in the PROCESS Model 1

developed by Preacher and Hayes (2013), wherein the effect of emotional intelligence will be examined at different levels of gender role identity on the conflict management styles. Accordingly five hypotheses (H7 to H11) for five of conflict management styles were formulated as follows.

- H7: Gender Role Identity moderates the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Confrontation Style of conflict Management of managers.
- H8: Gender Role Identity moderates the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Compromise Style of conflict Management of managers.
- H9: Gender Role Identity moderates the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Negotiation Style of conflict Management of managers.
- H10: Gender Role Identity moderates the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Withdrawal Style of conflict Management of managers.
- H11: Gender Role Identity moderates the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Resignation Style of conflict Management of managers.

In the current study the Independent variable is Emotional Intelligence, suspected moderating variable being Gender Role Identity and Dependent Variable the Conflict Management Style. Here the gender role identity namely androgynous, masculine and feminine were probed into. This was examined using the 'pick a point approach' which is commonly used, wherein it involves selecting representative values of the moderator variable and then estimating the effect of the focal predictor at those values. (Hayes & Matthes, 2009). The gender role identities namely Androgynous, Masculine &

Feminine in the group were indicator coded and androgynous Gender role identity was taken as the reference criterion as this was assigned the lower value. The output and interpretation are presented below

**Table 5.29 Summary of OLS Regression of Confrontation Conflict Management Style from Emotional Intelligence, Gender Role Identity and their Interaction.**

<b>Conflict Management Style</b>	<b>Interaction</b>	<b>Coefficient</b>	<b>S E</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig (p)</b>
Confrontation	a. constant	6.826	1.989	3.431	.001
	Emotional intelligence (EI)	.0443	.0127	3.487	.001
	D <sub>1</sub> - masculine	-6.603	3.462	-1.907	.057*
	D <sub>2</sub> - feminine	-3.974	3.185	-1.248	.213
	int_1 EI *masculine	.0413	.022	1.848	.066*
	int_2 EI *feminine	.0176	.022	.812	.417

*Note*— $R = .454$ ,  $R^2 = .206$ ,  $F(5,303) = 15.73$ ,  $p < .0001$ .

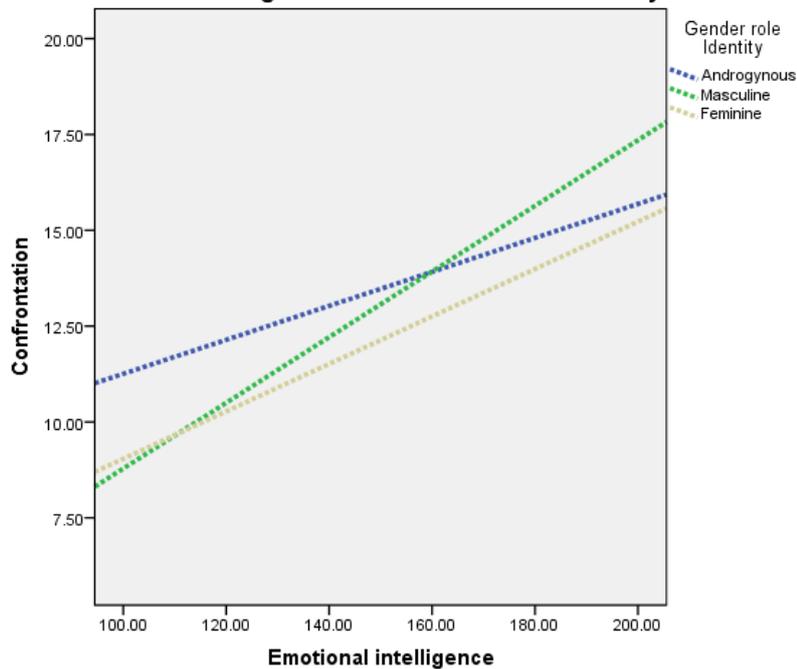
**Table 5.30 Conditional Effect of EI in Groups Defined by Gender Role Identity**

<b>GRI</b>	<b>Coeff (b)</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig (p)</b>
Androgynous	.0443	.0127	3.487	.001
Masculine	.0856	.0184	4.655	.000
Feminine	.0619	.0175	3.532	.001

Table 5.30 shows an estimate of the focal variable at moderator at each indicator code, which tells us that when gender role identity = 1, i.e androgynous, the estimated effect of the manipulation to be significant with

coefficient value of 0.443,  $t(309) = 3.4870$ ,  $p < .001$ . When gender role identity was masculine the effect was found to be significant with a coefficient value of 0.0856,  $t(309) = 4.6547$ ,  $p < .001$ . While the moderating effect of feminine gender role identity between emotional intelligence and confrontation style of conflict management was not found to be significant. Therefore we can conclude that the conditional effect of EI on confrontation style of conflict management was different within the gender role identity categories namely, masculine, feminine and androgynous gender role identities, and found that only masculine gender role identity significantly moderates the relationship between EI and confrontation style. The interaction effect of the same is plotted in Fig 5.25 below.

**Fig 5.25 - Interaction effects plot of Gender role identity between Emotional intelligence and Confrontation conflict style**



The same procedure outlined for the confrontation style was done for testing the hypothesis H8 to H11 and results are summarised as in table 5.31.

**Table 5.31 Summary table of OLS Regression of Conflict Management Style from Emotional Intelligence, Gender Role Identity and their Interaction.**

Conflict management styles	Interaction	Coefficient (b)	S E	T	Sig (p)
Compromise	a. constant	11.770	1.962	5.997	.000
	Emotional intelligence (EI)	.016	.013	1.304	.193
	D <sub>1</sub> - masculine	-.314	3.416	-.092	.927
	D <sub>2</sub> - feminine	-3.974	3.143	-1.264	.207
	int_1 EI *masculine	-.006	.022	-.276	.783
	int_2 EI *feminine	.020	.021	.897	.370
	<i>Note—R = .288, R<sup>2</sup> = .083, F (5,303) = 5.505, p &lt; .0001.</i>				
Negotiation	a. constant	7.651	1.937	3.949	.000
	Emotional intelligence (EI)	.052	.012	4.191	.000
	D <sub>1</sub> - masculine	.141	3.371	.041	.967
	D <sub>2</sub> - feminine	-3.561	3.102	-1.147	.252
	int_1 EI *masculine	-.004	.022	-.181	.856
	int_2 EI *feminine	.021	.021	.978	.329
	<i>Note—R = .399, R<sup>2</sup> = .159, F (5,303) = 11.521, p &lt; .0001.</i>				
Withdrawal	a. constant	9.028	2.298	3.927	.000
	Emotional intelligence (EI)	.0236	.0147	1.605	.109
	D <sub>1</sub> - masculine	.0749	4.001	.0187	.985
	D <sub>2</sub> - feminine	6.984	3.682	1.897	.059
	int_1 EI *masculine	-.0072	.0258	-.280	.779
	int_2 EI *feminine	-.0427	.0250	-1.706	.089
	<i>Note—R = .220, R<sup>2</sup> = .049, F (5,303) = 3.091, p &lt; .0001.</i>				
Resignation	a. constant	12.961	2.067	6.271	.000
	Emotional intelligence (EI)	.004	.0132	.322	.748
	D <sub>1</sub> - masculine	.728	3.598	.203	.840
	D <sub>2</sub> - feminine	-2.289	3.310	-.692	.490
	int_1 EI *masculine	-.007	.023	-.304	.761
	int_2 EI *feminine	.014	.023	.623	.534
	<i>Note—R = .089, R<sup>2</sup> = .008, F (5,303) = .492, p &gt; .0001(ns).</i>				

**Table 5.32 Summary of Conditional Effect of EI in Groups Defined by the Gender role identity.**

<b>Conflict Management style</b>	<b>Gender Role Identity</b>	<b>Coefficient (b)</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig (p)</b>
Compromise	Androgynous	.016	.013	1.304	.193
	Masculine	.010	.018	.566	.572
	Feminine	.036	.017	2.054	.041
Negotiation	Androgynous	.0519	.0124	4.191	.000
	Masculine	.048	.018	2.674	.008
	Feminine	.073	.017	4.247	.000
Withdrawal	Androgynous	.027	.014	1.605	.110
	Masculine	.017	.021	.768	.443
	Feminine	-.019	.020	-.942	.347
Resignation	Androgynous	.004	.013	.322	.748
	Masculine	-.003	.019	-.147	.883
	Feminine	.018	.018	1.01	.317

From table 5.31, we found there were no significant main effects or interaction effects between EI and compromise style. Hence the alternate hypothesis H8 stands rejected. However it was observed that the conditional effect of EI on compromise style (see table 5.32) for feminine gender role identity was different to the other groups and had a higher coefficient value compared to androgynous and masculine gender role identity.

In negotiation style, main effects were found to be significant but interaction effects were not found significant, therefore it was not decomposed further. Since the interaction was not significant, the alternate hypothesis H9

was not supported in this case too. It was however observed on probing that the conditional effect of EI on negotiation style, there was significant differences within gender role identity groups, with the feminine group having the highest coefficient value of 0.0725, androgynous with 0.0519 and masculine with value of .0479.

In the avoidance modes of conflict management styles i.e the withdrawal and resignation styles, neither main effects nor interaction effects were found. The same procedure outlined in the earlier hypothesis testing was used in testing the hypothesis H10 and H11 respectively. And therefore, the hypothesis proposed was not supported. We did not go for further verification due to the non-significant findings. To summarize we found that of the five conflict management styles, only confrontation style had significant interaction effects with gender role identity and EI in predicting a style. Only masculine gender role identity significantly moderated the relationship between EI and confrontation positively.

#### **5.5.4 Emotional Intelligence, Personal and Occupational Variables.**

This section deals with the personal and occupational variables of the respondents surveyed and the influence of these variables on the emotional intelligence score of managers. For the purpose of analysis, in this section emotional intelligence has been considered as the dependent variable. The personal variables considered were: Sex difference, Marital status and the occupational variables included were: Experience and Organisational Status. The following are the results of the analysis

##### **5.5.4.1 Sex and Emotional intelligence**

Studies of Harrod and Sheer (2005); Bindu and Thomas, (2006) in their studies have reported differences in Emotional intelligence across sex. But

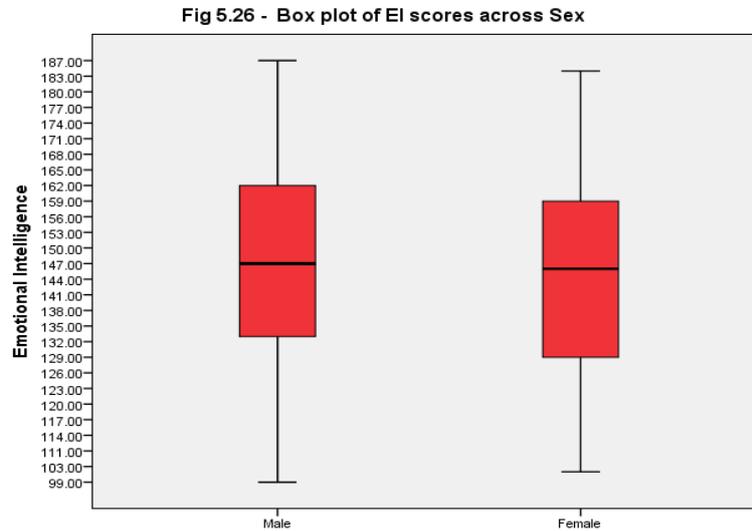
several studies especially self-reported measure of EI (Mayer et al., 1999; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Joseph & Newmann, 2010) claim that women fare better in certain factors of EI than men. The inconclusive findings could be due to socio cultural difference too (Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012). Considering this aspect the researcher decided to study this too and hence hypothesised the relationship as follows

**H12: There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence across the sex of the managers.**

**Table 5. 33 Independent sample T test of EI scores across Sex**

	Sex	N	Mean EI Score	Std. Deviation	F	T	Sig (P)
Emotional Intelligence	Male	268	146.60	20.11	1.087	1.074	.298
	Female	181	144.60	18.49			

As shown in Table 5.33 an Independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare emotional intelligence across sex. There was no significant difference in the scores for males ( $M = 146.61$ ,  $SD = 20.11$ ) and females ( $M = 144.60$ ,  $SD = 18.49$ ),  $t = 1.094$ ,  $p > 0.05$  with a value of 0.298 when  $p > .05$ , the difference between the sample-estimated population mean and the comparison population mean was found not be statistically significantly. Therefore we accept the null hypothesis that males and females do not differ in their emotional intelligence scores. However when we look at the Mean EI scores across gender, it was found that males had slightly higher EI ( $MV=146.61$ ) than females ( $MV=144.60$ )



### 5.5.4.2 Marital status and Emotional Intelligence

Several studies (Madahi & Samadzadeh, 2013; Singh 2003; Bhattacharya, 2004) have quoted that marital status is an important factor that determine emotional intelligence and therefore the following hypothesis was formulated. To prove this assumption, independent sample T test was conducted and shown below.

**H13:** *There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence across the marital status of managers*

**Table 5.34 Independent sample T test showing Emotional Intelligence and Marital Status.**

Emotional Intelligence	Gender	N	Mean EI	Std. Deviatio	F	t	Significance
	Married	300	147.16	19.66			
Single	149	143.05	18.55				

Of the total sample 300 were married and reported higher mean EI scores than those who were not married (N=149). Here again from table 5.34 we see that the  $P < .001$ , with a non-significant value of 0.385, suggests that

the null hypothesis needs to be accepted, and hence a relationship between marital status and emotional intelligence does not seem to exist in our study.

#### 5.5.4.3 Experience and Emotional Intelligence

Studies asserts that emotional intelligence seems to be largely learned, and it continues to develop as we go through life and learn from our experiences, our competence in it can keep growing or it otherwise termed as ‘maturity effect’ (Goleman, 1998; Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 1999). Therefore we hypothesised there is a relationship between experience and emotional intelligence. In the present study the researcher had solicited responses for the total experience and experience as manager from the respondents. Therefore two hypotheses (H14 and H15) were formulated to capture the association of the total experience and managerial experience. Simple linear regression was done to test the former and one way ANOVA for the latter. The hypothesis is stated as:

**H 14: There is a significant association between experience and emotional intelligence of managers**

**Table 5.35 Summary of linear regression between Experience and Emotional Intelligence.**

Experience * Emotional intelligence	Value
R	.176
R <sup>2</sup>	.031
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.029*
Unstandardised B value	.378

Note:  $F(1,447) = 14.32, p < .0001$

The basic assumptions for running a regression like linearity in relationship, multivariate normality, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity

was verified. The linear regression model here was tested for linearity with scatter plots and multi collinearity was verified with the bivariate correlations. The regression analysis table 5.35 indicates that experience has a significant association with emotional intelligence with a significant p value ( $p < .0001$ ). The computed 'r<sup>2</sup>' value is 0.031 explaining a 2.9% of the variance in the relationship and showed positive regression weight of 0.378. The model was found to be significant but explains a very low variability.

#### **5.5.4.4 Managerial experience and Emotional Intelligence.**

Further to our contention that EI increases with experience, we further looked into how years of experience as a manager or team head would be related to emotional intelligence. Hence we set the hypothesis as

***H 15: There is a significant relationship between managerial experience and emotional intelligence.***

To test the hypothesis whether emotional intelligence has a relationship with managerial experience one way ANOVA was performed.

**Table 5.36 Mean, Standard Deviation of EI Scores across the different managerial experience groups.**

<b>Years of experience</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>
Upto 10 years (1)	376	144.41	19.64	1.012
10-19.9 Years (2)	58	152.07	17.37	2.280
20-29.9 Years (3)	10	156.70	17.52	5.539
30 Years and above (4)	5	155.40	11.95	5.344

**Table 5.37 Summary of one way ANOVA between Managerial Experience groups and Emotional Intelligence**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4652.429	3	1550.81	4.179	.006
Within Groups	165150.128	445	371.12		

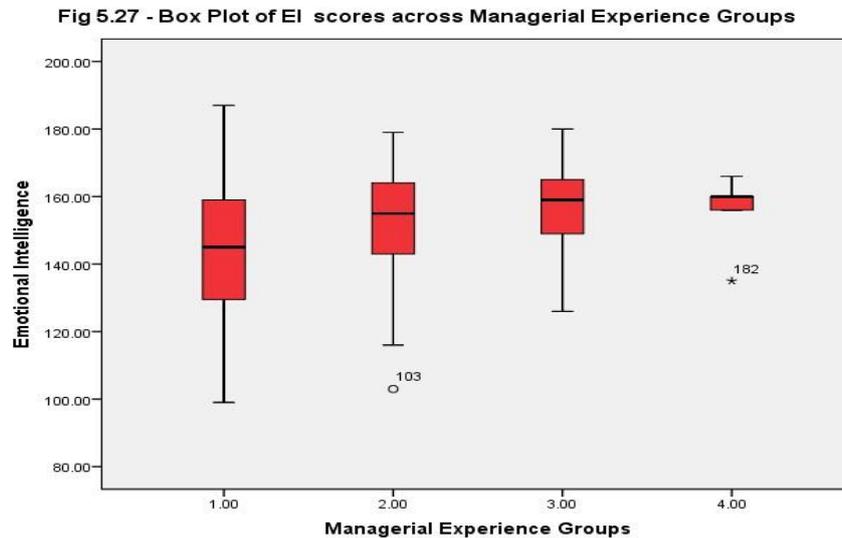
**Table 5.38 Post Hoc test results of Emotional Intelligence across Managerial Experience groups**

Experience as Team leader		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
1.00	2.00	<b>-7.65673*</b>	2.717	.026
	3.00	-12.28777	6.172	.193
	4.00	-10.98777	8.672	.584

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Majority of the managers belonged to the experience category from 1-10 years as team leaders. Of the total sample 83.74% were in this category, 12.92 % between 10-19.9 years, 2.2. % between 20-29.9 years and manager with more than 30 years and upwards was only 1.1%. The p value was found to be significant with  $p < .001$ , with a value 0.006,  $F = 4.179$ .

A post hoc analysis (Table 5.38) was done to analyse where the differences exist among the various experience groups. A look at the mean values of EI shows that it increases with relevant managerial experience in an incremental manner. Post hoc test reveal that there is a significant difference between managers with less than 10 years of team leader experience than the 10- 19.9 years of experience category. However the rest of the categories did not have a seemingly obvious difference in the emotional intelligence scores but they were definitely showing an upward trend in their EI scores. The results are represented using box plots in figure. 5.27.



#### 5.5.4.5 Organisational Status and Emotional Intelligence.

Dijk and Freedman (2007) in their study suggests that employees become more skillful in enhancing their emotional literacy (emotional awareness) and applying consequential thinking as they progress on the employment ladder. An attempt was made to test the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Organisational Status.

**H 16:** *There is a significant difference in Emotional intelligence across the organisational status of the managers.*

**Table: 5.39 Mean and Standard Deviation of EI across Organisational Status**

Organisational status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Junior Management	157	141.65	18.66
Middle Management	208	145.92	20.25
Senior Management	84	153.24	16.74

**Table: 5.40 One way ANOVA between EI and Organisational Status**

Organisational Status		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
	Between Groups	7354.817	2	3677.408	10.096	.000
Within Groups	162447.740	446	364.233			

**Table No: 5.41 Post Hoc Test results of EI across Organisational Status**

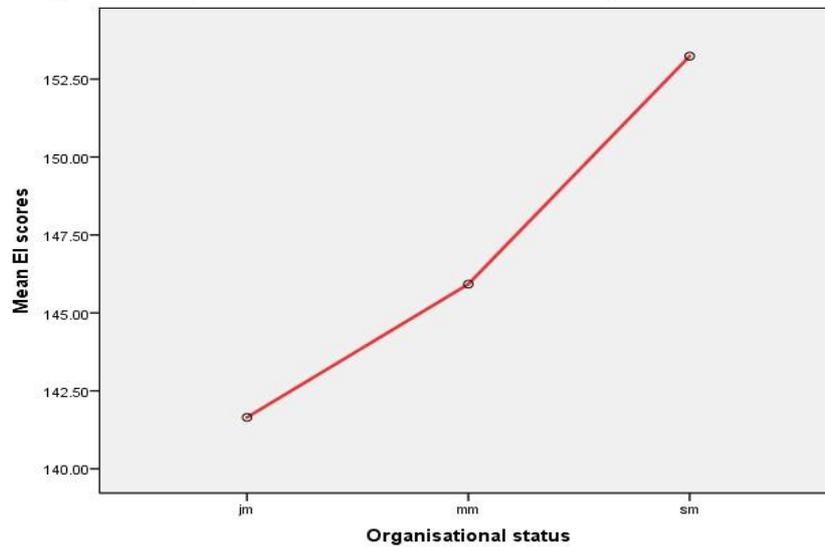
Organisational status	Organisational status	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Junior Management	Middle Management	-4.27340	2.01769	.087
	Senior Management	<b>-11.58841*</b>	2.57993	.000

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

We can see from Table 5.40 that the significance level is  $p=0.000$ , which is below 0.05 and, therefore, there is a statistically significant difference in EI scores across organisational status of Managers. Further to verify which ever groups have significant difference, post hoc multiple comparison tests were conducted. The result of the test shows that those who were in the junior management (MV=141.65) showed significant difference with the senior management (MV=153.24). While significant differences were not found between junior and the middle management as the mean EI scores for the middle management was found to be 145.92, which was only slightly higher than that of the Junior Managerial level (MV = 141.65).

However as seen in the line plot (Fig 5.28) an increasing trend in the EI scores was found as we go from the junior to the senior levels of management.

Fig 5.28- Means plot of Emotional intelligence across Organisational status.



#### 5.5.4.6 Gender Role Identity and Emotional Intelligence

Research studies claims EI may be learnt, and therefore results may differ according to various populations and their socialisation differences across cultures and genders. According to De Freitas (2015) there seems to be a lack of studies analysing ‘within sex’ gender differences, in emotional intelligence as compared to study that looks ‘between sex’ differences. To see whether such differences exist in our study it was hypothesised that EI may vary across the gender role identities. In this section of the analysis, emotional intelligence is considered as the dependent variable and gender role identity as the independent variable. The hypothesis so framed is as follows.

***H17: There exists a significant difference in emotional intelligence across gender role identity of managers.***

A one way ANOVA was done to test the hypothesis, whether EI varies across gender role identity categories of managers. The basic assumptions for

running an ANOVA was verified like the normality, independence of cases, and homogeneity of variances were done. The Levene's test statistics was found to be 0.484, p value was 0.747 ( $p > .001$ ) for homogeneity of variances was not significant. Hence we proceed with the test.

**Table 5.42 Descriptive statistics of EI scores across the various Gender Role Identity.**

<b>Gender Role Identity Category</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>
Androgynous	162	155.66	16.90	1.328
Masculine	73	153.05	17.29	2.0241
Feminine	74	140.88	18.16	2.110
Near feminine	87	131.74	15.77	1.690
Near masculine	53	135.61	15.63	2.147
Total	449	145.79	19.47	.918

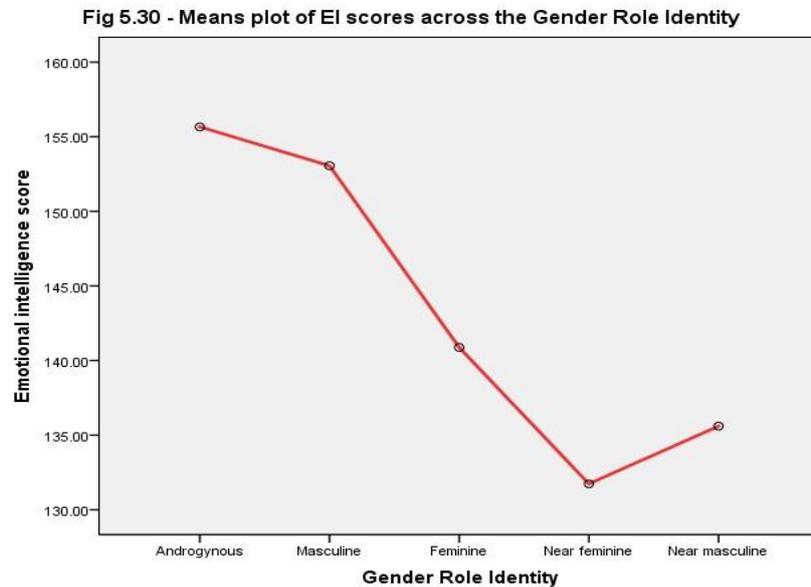
**Table 5.43 - One way ANOVA table of Emotional Intelligence and Gender Role Identity.**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Between Groups	44104.945	4	11026.236	38.948	.000
Within Groups	125697.612	444	283.103		

**Table 5.44 Post Hoc test showing the multiple comparisons across Gender Role Identity.**

(I) GRI	(J) GRI	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Androgynous	Masculine	2.60570	2.37185	.807	-3.8908	9.1022
	Feminine	<b>14.78212*</b>	2.36078	.000	8.3159	21.2483
	Near feminine	<b>23.92486*</b>	2.23643	.000	17.7992	30.0505
	Near masculine	<b>20.05672*</b>	2.66254	.000	12.7640	27.3495
Masculine	androgynous	-2.60570	2.37185	.807	-9.1022	3.8908
	Feminine	<b>12.17642*</b>	2.77558	.000	4.5740	19.7788
	Near feminine	<b>21.31916*</b>	2.67061	.000	14.0043	28.6340
	Near masculine	<b>17.45102*</b>	3.03639	.000	9.1343	25.7678
Feminine	androgynous	<b>-14.78212*</b>	2.36078	.000	-21.2483	-8.3159
	Masculine	<b>-12.17642*</b>	2.77558	.000	-19.7788	-4.5740
	Near feminine	<b>9.14275*</b>	2.66078	.006	1.8548	16.4307
	Near masculine	5.27460	3.02775	.409	-3.0185	13.5677
Near feminine	androgynous	<b>-23.92486*</b>	2.23643	.000	-30.0505	-17.7992
	Masculine	<b>-21.31916*</b>	2.67061	.000	-28.6340	-14.0043
	Feminine	<b>-9.14275*</b>	2.66078	.006	-16.4307	-1.8548
	Near masculine	-3.86814	2.93183	.679	-11.8985	4.1622
Near masculine	androgynous	<b>-20.05672*</b>	2.66254	.000	-27.3495	-12.7640
	Masculine	<b>-17.45102*</b>	3.03639	.000	-25.7678	-9.1343
	Feminine	-5.27460	3.02775	.409	-13.5677	3.0185
	Near feminine	3.86814	2.93183	.679	-4.1622	11.8985

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.



As we see from Table No: 5.42 the highest mean EI score of 155.66 was found to be with the androgynous category, followed by the masculine category (MV= 153.05, SD =17.29) and feminine category (MV=140.88, SD=18.16). The lowest EI was reported with the near feminine category (MV=131.74, SD=15.77) followed by the near masculine category (MV=135.06, SD=15.63), both of which belong to the undifferentiated category. There was a statistically significant difference between the gender role identity categories as shown in the Table 5.42 with a calculated F-value of 38.95 and  $p=.000$ , which implies that the alternative hypothesis (H17) is accepted and can conclude that there is significant difference in emotional intelligence across various gender role identities of the managers. A means plot which shows the observations is represented graphically (See figure 5.30)

Further a Post Hoc test (Table 5.44) was done to identify the differences. It revealed that Androgynous category of managers were significantly different to the feminine and undifferentiated category reporting the highest Mean EI

value of 155.66. Masculine gender role identity with a Mean EI Value of 153.05 was also significantly different to the feminine and undifferentiated category. The feminine gender role identity was significantly different to Androgynous, Masculine and near feminine category of managers. Among the undifferentiated gender role identity, near feminine was significantly different from Androgynous, Masculine and Feminine category, while the near masculine was significantly different to the Androgynous and Masculine category of managers.

Therefore our assumptions that emotional intelligence can be better be explained with gender role identity rather than sex is explained.

#### **5.5.5 Sex and Conflict Management Styles**

Several empirical studies (Gilligan 1993; Croucher et al., 2011) indicate preferences with certain conflict styles in terms of sex, while findings with no difference across sex were also found (Antonini 1998; Boonsathorn 2007). Since there was an inconclusivity in the results, the researcher decided to study this aspect too and the hypothesis was formulated

***H18: There exists a significant difference in terms of sex in the adoption of conflict management styles.***

To prove this hypothesis, that differences in terms of sex exist in the adoption of conflict management styles an independent sample T test was conducted for each of the conflict style and the results are shown in the summary Table 5.45

**Table 5.45 Summary of Independent sample T test of Conflict Management styles (CMS) across Sex.**

Conflict Management Styles (CMS)	Gender	N	Mean score of CMS	Std Deviation	F	Sig
Confrontation	Male	268	12.69	2.87	5.76	.017*
	Female	181	12.20	3.34		
Compromise	Male	268	13.13	2.87	.129	.719
	Female	181	13.06	2.84		
Negotiation	Male	268	14.64	2.98	2.56	.110
	Female	181	14.03	3.36		
Withdrawal	Male	268	12.33	3.15	.078	.780
	Female	181	12.76	3.02		
Resignation	Male	268	13.17	2.79	.181	.670
	Female	181	13.06	2.83		

Note: \* $p < .0001$

As seen in table above, significant differences in terms of sex was found for confrontation style ( $F(1,447) = 5.76, p = .017$ ) only. Males reported higher mean value (12.69) than the female counterparts (12.20) in this style. However significant differences across gender were not observed in Compromising ( $F(1,447) = .129, p = .719$ ), Negotiation ( $F(1,447) = 2.56, p = .110$ ), Withdrawal ( $F(1,447) = 0.078, p = 0.780$ ) and Resignation ( $F(1,447) = .181, p = .670$ ) styles of conflict management.

### 5.5.6 Gender Role Identity and Conflict Management Styles

As the researcher wanted to verify whether conflict management styles of managers varied in terms of their gender role identity we set the hypothesis as

***H19: There is a significant difference in conflict management styles across the gender role identities of managers.***

To get a better understanding of the conflict management styles adopted in terms of gender role identity, multivariate test of analysis of variance (MANOVA) was done. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance

(MANOVA) was conducted with the five gender role identity categories as the independent variables and the five conflict handling styles as the dependent variables. Prior to the analysis, the basic assumptions for conducting a MANOVA test like the independence of observations, normality, multicollinearity, and the homogeneity of variance were checked. Due to the violation of Box's test of equality of covariance of matrices (Box's  $M = 92.404$ ,  $F = 1.47$ ,  $p < .001$  at 0.008, Pillai's trace value was used. Homogeneity of the variances was verified using the Levene's test of equality of error variances that tests the assumption that each variable are equal across the groups. As per the convention, the Levene's test results were found non-significant, and therefore we proceed further as the assumptions have been met

**Table 5.46 Mean and Standard deviation of Conflict Management Styles across the Gender Role Identity Categories.**

	N	Confrontation		Compromise		Negotiation		Withdrawal		Resignation	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Androgynous	162	13.72	2.97	14.31	2.78	15.72	2.85	12.70	3.23	13.62	3.05
Masculine	73	13.33	3.07	13.03	2.60	15.12	2.67	11.60	3.20	13.26	2.65
Feminine	74	11.57	2.59	12.80	2.63	14.30	2.89	13.32	2.92	13.24	2.43
Near feminine	87	10.99	2.86	11.71	2.46	12.45	3.03	12.25	2.72	12.64	2.51
Near masculine	53	11.38	2.50	12.21	2.93	12.70	2.79	12.42	3.15	12.08	2.87

**Table 5.47 Multivariate Test Results of conflict management styles across Gender Role Identity**

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's trace	.299	7.147	20.000	1772.00	.000	.075

**Table 5.48 Univariate test results for Conflict Management Styles**

<b>Conflict Management Styles</b>	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Partial Eta Squared</b>
Confrontation	622.032	4	155.51	19.072	.000	.147*
Compromise	455.905	4	113.98	15.807	.000	.125*
Negotiation	807.102	4	201.78	24.690	.000	.182*
Withdrawal	121.066	4	30.27	3.206	.013	.028
Resignation	121.148	4	30.29	3.947	.004	.034*

Table 5.45 shows the mean values of the conflict management styles across the different gender role identities of the managers. In confrontation style of conflict management style, managers with androgynous gender role identity had the highest mean value of 13.72 with an SD of 2.97, followed by the masculine gender role MV=13.33 and SD=3.07, the lowest was reported with the near feminine category with a mean value of 10.99 and SD of 2.86.

Compromise style of conflict management had a similar trend with androgynous category having the highest mean value followed by masculine and feminine with mean values 14.31,13.03,12.80 and standard deviations 2.78, 2.60 and 2.63 respectively. The Near feminine gender role identity, again had the lowest mean value of 11.71 with a standard deviation (SD) of 2.46 in compromise style of conflict management.

In the case of negotiation style, the mean values reported a very similar pattern. Androgynous (MV=15.72, SD=2.85), Masculine (MV=15.12, SD=2.67), feminine (MV=14.30, SD=2.89), near masculine (MV=12.70, SD=2.79), near feminine (MV=12.45, SD=3.03).

In withdrawal style, the highest mean value was reported with managers of feminine gender role identity with a mean value of 13.32 and an SD of 2.92,

the next with Androgynous gender role identity with MV =12.70 and an SD of 3.23 followed by the near masculine category (MV=12.42, SD=3.15). The respondents with Masculine gender role identity had the lowest mean value of 11.60 in this style with an SD of 3.20. In Resignation style, the highest again was for androgynous (MV=13.62, SD=3.05), masculine (MV=13.26, SD=2.65), feminine (MV=13.24, SD=2.43), near masculine (MV=12.64, SD=2.51) and the last being near feminine (MV=12.08, SD=2.87). However in this style the mean value scores were much closer to each other unlike the other styles.

From table 5.47, the results indicated multivariate effects of gender role identity on conflict management styles (*Pillai's trace*  $F=7.147$ ,  $p=.000<.001$ , *Partial eta squared*  $-0.075$ ) as significant. We now proceed to the univariate test result that showed a significant result for all the five conflict management styles. The Table 5.48 showing univariate test results of MANOVA, shows significant difference across gender roles for all the conflict styles, confrontation ( $F=19.072$ ,  $p=.000$ ), Compromise ( $F=15.81$ ,  $p=.000$ ), Negotiation ( $F=24.690$ ,  $p=.000$ ), Withdrawal ( $F=3.21$ ,  $p=.013$ ) and Resignation ( $F=3.95$ ,  $p=.004$ ) styles of conflict management.

Since significant results were obtained, a post hoc test (Table no: 5.49) was done to find out where the difference lies. The androgynous gender role identity was taken as the reference criterion. We can observe that in confrontation style there was significant difference between androgynous gender role identity and the feminine and the 'undifferentiated' category i.e. near feminine and near masculine categories of managers. The mean value of the respondents was found to be the highest for the androgynous category in this style followed by the masculine category.

**Table 5.49 Post Hoc Test Results of Conflict Management Styles across Gender Role Identity**

Dependent Variable	(I) GRI	(J) GRI	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Confrontation	Androgynous	Masculine	.3935	.40252	.329	-.3976	1.1845
		Feminine	<b>2.1547*</b>	.40064	.000	1.3673	2.9420
		Near feminine	<b>2.7337*</b>	.37954	.000	1.9878	3.4796
		Near masculine	<b>2.3449*</b>	.45186	.000	1.4568	3.2329
Compromise	Androgynous	Masculine	<b>1.2874*</b>	.37852	.001	.5435	2.0313
		Feminine	<b>1.5175*</b>	.37676	.000	.7771	2.2580
		Near feminine	<b>2.6022*</b>	.35691	.000	1.9007	3.3036
		Near masculine	<b>2.1073*</b>	.42491	.000	1.2722	2.9424
Negotiation	Androgynous	Masculine	.5989	.40299	.138	-.1931	1.3909
		Feminine	<b>1.4249*</b>	.40110	.000	.6366	2.2132
		Near feminine	<b>3.2739*</b>	.37998	.000	2.5272	4.0207
		Near masculine	<b>3.0241*</b>	.45237	.000	2.1350	3.9132
Withdrawal	Androgynous	Masculine	<b>1.0948*</b>	.43310	.012	.2436	1.9460
		Feminine	-.6268	.43108	.147	-1.4740	.2204
		Near feminine	.4447	.40838	.277	-.3579	1.2472
		Near masculine	.2824	.48618	.562	-.6731	1.2379
		Near feminine	<b>1.0715*</b>	.48586	.028	.1166	2.0263
		Near masculine	.9092	.55287	.101	-.1773	1.9958
Resignation	Androgynous	Masculine	.3632	.39051	.353	-.4043	1.1307
		Feminine	.3802	.38869	.329	-.3837	1.1441
		Near feminine	<b>.9798*</b>	.36821	.008	.2561	1.7034
		Near masculine	<b>1.5480*</b>	.43837	.000	.6864	2.4095

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

In compromise style, managers with androgynous gender role identity were significantly different to masculine, feminine and the 'undifferentiated' category. While in the case of negotiation style, significant differences were observed between androgynous and feminine and the 'undifferentiated' category of managers. The highest mean value was reported with androgynous and masculine gender role identity with  $MV = 15.72$  and  $MV = 15.12$  respectively.

In withdrawal style, significant differences were observed from androgynous ( $MV = 12.70$ ) to the masculine ( $MV = 11.60$ ) and near feminine ( $MV = 12.25$ ) gender role identity. The feminine category had the highest mean value reported in this style. Significant differences were observed amongst the managers between the androgynous and the 'undifferentiated' category in the resignation style. The highest mean values was found to be reported with androgynous ( $MV = 13.62$ ), masculine ( $MV = 13.26$ ), feminine ( $MV = 13.24$ ) followed by the undifferentiated category (near feminine and near masculine with  $MV=12.64$  and  $MV = 12.08$ ).



# Chapter 6

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

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### Contents

6.1 *Major findings of the study*

6.2 *Discussion of findings*

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This chapter summarises the major findings of the research. It further proceeds to review the findings in the context of the literature and existing knowledge in the relevant area.

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The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles adopted by managers in the service sector. The study also analysed if gender role identity moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and adoption of conflict management styles. The relationship between gender role identity and conflict management styles was also analysed. Further the influence of personal and occupational variables on emotional intelligence and conflict management styles independently were also verified. This chapter summarises the findings of the research work and proceeds further onto the explanation of the results and its discussion.

### **6.1 Major findings of the study**

- ✓ There was a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and approach modes of conflict styles namely confrontation, compromise and negotiation style of managers. There was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and resignation style which is an avoidance mode, but not found with withdrawal style of conflict management.
- ✓ Masculine gender role identity positively and significantly moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and confrontation style of conflict management of managers. Moderation with feminine and the androgynous category was not significant between emotional intelligence and confrontational style.
- ✓ In the case of compromise, negotiation, withdrawal and resignation style of conflict management the moderating role of gender role identity was not statistically significant amongst managers.
- ✓ There was significant difference in EI levels and adoption of conflict styles. It is observed that managers belonging to the 'extremely high'

group had the highest mean values in all approach modes of conflict styles and significantly different to the other levels of EI. Similar observation was found in Resignation style also

- ✓ Significant difference was observed in Emotional Intelligence across gender role identity categories of the managers, with androgynous category reporting the highest mean value in EI followed by the Masculine category.
- ✓ Personal variables like sex and marital status of the managers did not have a significant relationship on emotional intelligence in our study.
- ✓ A significant difference was observed in emotional intelligence across the organisational status. The mean value of emotional intelligence increases from the junior to senior organisational status, but significant differences were found only between managers of the junior and senior organisational status.
- ✓ Across the gender role identity of managers it was found that conflict styles varies and found to be statistically significant. For all the approach modes of conflict management styles the androgynous and masculine category was different to feminine, near masculine and near feminine categories.
- ✓ Conflict style differences in terms of sex were found to be significant only with confrontation style. Males reported a higher mean value than females in confrontation conflict management style. The other conflict styles however reported no significant differences.

## 6.2 Discussion of findings

This section discusses the major findings and interprets the findings in the light of existing research evidences and tries to explain new insights or patterns observed.

### 6.2.1 Emotional intelligence and conflict management styles of managers

The present study shows that there exists a relationship between emotional intelligence and adoption of conflict management styles amongst managers. Linear regression analysis was conducted to see if the managers' emotional intelligence (total score) has a relationship with conflict management styles. It is seen in the study that emotional intelligence has a direct relationship with approach modes of conflict style explaining much more variance than the avoidance modes of conflict management. The resignation style, an avoidance mode of conflict management though significant was very negligible. Also when analysed in terms of the different levels of emotional intelligence, managers belonging to the 'extremely high' category had a significant difference from the other category of EI levels. The mean values were found to be significantly high for confrontation, compromise and negotiation style. Resignation style, an avoidance mode also found significant difference with higher mean value but not very different from the 'below average' category. Now a further discussion for each of the conflict management style and its relationship with emotional intelligence is discussed further

**Confrontation Style** -There was a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and confrontation style. If we look at the three approach modes of conflict resolution put forward by Pareek (1982) all have high level of "concern for self". The social skills aspect of EI includes several points, one

of which is “Influence”, which means effective persuasive tactics are used (Goleman, 1998; Hay Mcber, 2002). Employees with higher EI are thus likely to use a ‘dominating’ conflict resolution styles that persuade others to accept their points and aim to achieve their objectives (Zhang et. al., 2015). Our findings is consistent to the study of Jordan and Troth (2004) which also found a significant relationship between EI and dominating tactics, indicating that at certain situations, emotionally intelligent individuals may need to dominate to complete the task in the required time. Moreover using a confrontation style is justifiable as it is an approach mode of conflict resolution, where at least an attempt to resolve conflict is made and hence can be termed as an effective way to resolve conflict and also considered to be a leadership quality (Wong & Law, 2002) at times.

Our findings are consistent to several other major studies like (Jordan & Troth 2004; Yu et al., 2005; Heris & Heris 2011; Zhang et al., 2015; Chan et al., 2014; Muhammed &Younus 2014; Sreenivasan & George 2000) and contradicts with some major studies put in the literature, where a negative relationship (Yadav & Awasthi 2016, Chen et al., 2016) or no relationship (Godse & Thingujam 2010) with dominating style was found. Another interesting observation is that most of Asian based or the Middle East population studies support the dominating or the confrontation style, which could be attributed to the strong masculinisation of societies that adhere to instrumental behavioural traits. It is said that favourable outcomes are strongly related to sequences of strongly asserting ones needs by using a competing style (Van de Vliert, 1997; Thomas et al., 2008). The traditional ideology prominent within a patriarchal society is focused on the belief that in order to be in power, one must be dominant and assert the power that one gains upon another (Chemaly, 2013). In a patriarchal society, it is normally the men that

pertain to such roles and men are deemed to be in higher positions than women (Strebelet al., 2006). Therefore, managers may believe that it is necessary to be dominant and assert power on others in order to remain in the higher position and perhaps this could be explaining the adoption of a confronting conflict management style.

**Compromise and Negotiation conflict styles-** For the purpose of the discussion the researcher has taken both the styles compromise and negotiation together, both of which are synonymous to accommodating/obliging and integrating style respectively in conflict styles literature (Rahim, 2002). Also previous research says that these two styles are the most preferred ones amongst employees (Shih & Susanto, 2010). The present study found significant relationships for compromise and negotiation styles, explaining 7.9 % and 22.7% of the total variance respectively.

According to Gross and Guerrero (2000), individuals with higher levels of EI are more likely to prefer integrating and compromising styles due to their efficacy and appropriateness for producing functional or productive results. Chen et al., (2012) observes that unlike other conflict styles, integrating and compromising styles are both beneficial to individual job performance when both parties can benefit from the solution of task conflict.

Studies of Van de Vliert(1997) and Thomas et al., (2008) asserts that favourable outcomes comes by following collaborative overtures to find an integrative way of meeting the needs of both people. Individuals with a sound emotional perception and emotion management skills coupled with personal skills are able to comprehend the situations better. They will be able to resolve conflict by altering the conflict resolution styles from approach and avoidance mode depending upon the situation (Carmelli et al., 2009). Several empirical

studies indicate that EI contributes to a cooperative course of action in conflict management. According to Rahim et al., (2002) higher the EI of a superior the greater would be the use of a problem solving style as opposed to a bargaining style.

Of the two styles, compromise has reported a lower variance compared to other styles, this could be due to the fact that either of the parties will gain little from a compromising conflict style resulting in a moderate satisfaction (Thomas, 1992). The findings again confirm with several other prominent studies (Sreenivasan & George 2000; Yu et al., 2005; Zand et al., 2008; Shih & Susanto 2010; Chan et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015; Abas, 2010; Heris & Heris, 2011) while it contradicts to the findings of (Malek, 2000; Lee, 2009; Pieterse, 2014; Kumari, 2015; Godse & Thingujam, 2010) where a negative association or no relationship was found. Of the three approach modes of conflict resolution this style has got the lowest mean value and reported little variation. This could be attributed, because this is a style where mutual gains are looked for resulting only in a moderate conflict resolution. Studies say that individuals who are highly innovative, risk takers, star performers etc do not prefer compromising style (Thomas et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2015). Similarly differing motivation levels could also be another contributing factor (Kumari, 2015) for such a finding.

Several of the studies reviewed has shown a positive and significant relationship to the integrating style (Jordan & Troth 2002, 2004 ; Foo et al., 2004; Yu et al., 2005 ; Abas, 2010; Godse & Thingujam 2010; Shih & Susanto 2010; Heris & Heris 2011; Zhang et al., 2015; Chan et al., 2014; Hopkins & Yonker 2015; Yadav & Awasthi, 2016). The present study also confirms that emotional intelligence has significant positive relationship with negotiation style (synonymous to integrating style in conflict literature), where

both concern for self and concern for others are taken into consideration. This once again proves that emotionally intelligent people are likely to put other people's interests as an important consideration when solving conflict. The findings also correspond to the model of EI (Goleman, 1988; Schutte et al., 2001) which includes social skills as one cluster, which is defined as effective handling of interpersonal relationships.

The findings of our research also supports the contentions of Trubisky et al., (1991) who argued that in collectivist cultures, people tend to use integrating and compromising styles more often than in individualist cultures. Emotionally intelligent people tend to consider their own and the emotions of others as a basis in framing their relationships with other people (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). These characteristics may lead people to always put other people's interests as an important consideration in solving conflicts. 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 (Shih & Susanto, 2010)

**Withdrawal** is an avoidance mode, wherein the individuals try to get away from the conflict by withdrawing themselves from the conflict situation when it takes place. The results of the present study couldn't find a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and withdrawal style. Withdrawal style is synonymous to 'avoidance' style as per the conflict literature. In this style, the individual does not immediately pursue their own concerns or those of the other person and an attempt to address the conflict is not done (Thomas & Kilmann, 1978). Avoiding might take the form of diplomatically sidestepping an issue, postponing an issue until a better time or simply withdrawing from a threatening situation. Our findings are consistent to several other studies where no association was found between emotional intelligence

and withdrawal style (Zand et al., 2008; Chan et al., 2014; Muhammed & Younus, 2014; Pieterse, 2014)

**Resignation style** is an extreme mode of conflict resolution, where a deliberate avoidance of conflict by denying the unpleasant situation and allowing the conflict to subside on its own. The regression model produced a significant result in our study explaining only 1.3% variance in the relationship. Resignation implies the attribution of success to external factors such as fate or luck or the difficulty level of the task and is associated with negative emotions. Gupta et al., (2016) has found that males belonging to the older generation have a tendency to use this style in an Indian context. A direct relationship with EI was found in this study and hence maybe attributed to socialisation or culture prevailing in the society to such a finding. Study of Metcalf et al., (2006) in a comparison of cultural tendencies found that Indians had a clear preference for either win –win or win- lose strategy. Perhaps the association with resignation style which is an avoidance mode while there is a significant association with approach modes of conflict style could be due to this pattern in preferences.

Overall the results of the study, are consistent with Schlaerth et al., (2013) meta-analytic findings and related finding in the context of a workplace relationships (Stolarski et al., 2011; Veshki & Jazayeri, 2012) that EI was significantly associated with constructive conflict management at work and these styles are a salient aspect of constructive and healthy conflict management in various interpersonal environments. It is found that higher levels of EI may facilitate collaborative and problem-solving behaviours, in which emotions can be controlled and generated to develop new and creative solutions that satisfy the needs of both parties (Jordan & Troth, 2002; Schlaerth et al., 2013), while lower levels of EI can lead to greater use of

forcefulness and avoidance of individuals when faced with conflict, which may signal destructive conflict management (Goleman, 1995).

### **6.2.2 Moderating Role of Gender Role Identity between the relationship of Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles of managers.**

One of the contributions of this research is the introduction of moderating effects of gender role identity in the study of emotional intelligence and conflict management. Much of the research has been on sex differences, not on the identity of an individual. Not much empirical studies are there in this area and hence needs more empirical research with a larger sample sizes across different cultural context as this has a bearing in the formation of gender role identities amongst individuals

When verified for the moderating role of gender role identity between the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles, it was found that masculine gender role moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and confrontation style of conflict management. The conditional effect of the gender role identity at different levels was found to be significant, with masculine gender role reporting the highest coefficient value, the interaction effects however was significant only for masculine gender role.

As cited in Gunkel et al., 2016, gender role identities are culture driven and therefore will have an influence on their approach while resolving conflicts. An explanation for masculine gender role identity moderating the relationship between EI and Confrontation style may be attributed to the strongly 'masculine' classification of Indian society as per Hofstede (1998) cultural dimension. India has 'Masculinity' as the third highest in the world ranking of Hofstede (2010) cultural dimension, with a score of 56, while the

world average is slightly lower at 51. In the above context, a conflict style that complements with the prevailing masculine culture might have been adopted and therefore would be more inclined to adopt a confrontation style in this case.

Studies pertaining to conflict management will unravel different results in a culturally different context (Weiner, 2005). Assuming a particular gender role identity and adopting conflict management modes does not occur in vacuums. Different societies impose rewards and sanctions that influence how conflicts are resolved and both factors are intensely affected by socio-cultural expectations of that particular culture. All these factors in various combinations affect the managerial styles of managers, and female managers imitate the well-accepted male managerial styles as a survival mechanism in the workplace.

A previous Indian study cited (Sreenivasan & George, 2005) reveals that high EI was associated with dominating style. In a comparative study of different cultures on the preference of negotiation styles, Metcalf et al., (2006) found that India and Turkey have the strongest preference for a win-lose continuum. While Turkish respondents were almost equally distributed between the scales of win and lose, Indians showed a clear preference for either a win-win or a win-lose outcome. India as a country primarily follows a collectivist culture with very high 'masculinity' dimension, and governed by a rigid patriarchal system and organisational processes (Chemaly, 2014). When there is a conflict both the manager and subordinates are used to a style which follows a dominating position by the person who has power. In our case we find that though other approach modes of conflict, like compromise and negotiation are used, confrontation style is a predominant significant style used by managers. In an Indian workplace context men have historically dominated

managerial jobs, and an emphasis on “masculine” traits primarily associated with men in gender stereotypes (beliefs about the psychological traits that are characteristic of each sex) over “feminine” traits may exist (Powell & Butterfield, 2015). The finding of the gender role identity coincides with “think manager – think masculine” (Koenig et al., 2011; Powell et al., 2002) and “think manager – think male (Booyesen & Nkomo, 2010; Schein, 2007) phenomenon prevalent in the early 2000s in western countries. The emotional intelligence of the masculine group was also found to be high (MV=153.05) though lower than that of the androgynous group in the present study that reported a MV of 155.66. Our results of ANOVA also confirm that there is not much difference between the two groups of Gender role identity. However confrontation style is considered to be an approach mode in Indian context (Pareekh & Purohit 2011).

According to (Gupta et al., 2016) Indian’s primary socialization is demonstrated through holding on to traditional values of obedience, subservience to authority, collectivism, and a lack of willingness to take initiative (Kakar, 1981) though in present days, there has been an influence of Western culture on elite Indians, characterized by individualism and pragmatism. Therefore we can conclude that managers who are emotionally intelligent with ‘masculine’ identity have a greater tendency to adopt a confrontational style. This group is only 16.3% of the total sample. Confrontation style is synonymous to the dominating (Rahim, 2002) and competing styles (Thomas & Kilmann, 1978) in the conflict management literature. This is a style that takes a decision for one’s own favour mostly, though unreasonable at times would be ideal if time is a constraint and also when subordinates lacks initiative. Therefore this is considered to be an approach mode of conflict resolution. Considering the Indian culture this style

may work. As per Hofstede (2001) masculine culture tends to be more assertive, competitive and strong and therefore in this particular context, naturally there would be a preference of conflict style that resonates with this approach. The study of Gunkel et al ., (2016) has stated that individuals with more masculine identity are less likely to prefer cooperative styles like compromising and integrating style, instead a greater chance to adopt a dominating style and our study confirms this assumption. We can infer that managers believe in resolving conflict but in their own favour itself. Limbare (2012) in his study on leadership and conflict styles has observed that confrontation is the most favoured style and is correlated to those leaders executives who believe in a style based on harmony. Abbas and Joshi (2013) also in their study found that male employees at workplaces resort to a dominating style and the author attributes this to increased income and status in organisations.

We can come to the conclusion that the relative degree to which one identifies or displays societally defined masculine behaviour also known as masculinity is dominant in this study and it predicts that such people have a tendency to use confrontation style while at work. Now, coming to the major group ie androgynous group which constitutes 36.1% of the sample it was found that gender role identities does not moderate the relationship as it was not significant. The other entire four hypothesis for compromise, negotiation withdrawal and resignation style were not supported as all relationships were not statistically significant.

### **6.2.3 Emotional Intelligence, Personal and Occupational Variables**

#### ***6.2.3.1 Sex differences in Emotional Intelligence of managers***

The sex of the managers did not have much influence on emotional intelligence in our study as a significant difference was not found in emotional

intelligence in terms of sex. On a review of the available literature in similar contexts it was observed that some empirical studies point that there are significant differences between the sexes, while other research suggests that there are no differences in emotional intelligence between males and females (Petrides & Furnham 2000; Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Guastello & Guastello, 2003; Hunt & Evans, 2004; Petrides & Furnham 2004; Brackett et al., 2004; Goldenberg et al., 2006; Kumar & Muniandy, 2012; Schutte et al., 2001). The findings of our study were also found to be consistent with those studies. Mayer (2003) one of most cited studies too found no differences between men and women in EI scores. As per gender psychologists, sex by itself does not have any explanatory power unless and until it is coupled with socio demographic or socioeconomic variables (Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012). Therefore it appears that biological sex (between sex differences) is not sufficient for evaluating differences in emotional intelligence between males and females. Perhaps differences ‘within sex’ may throw more light into variations in emotional intelligence.

### ***6.2.3.2 Marital status and Emotional Intelligence of Managers***

A significant relationship was not found between emotional intelligence and marital status of the managers. The findings were consistent to that of Rahim and Malik (2010)

### ***6.2.3.3 Experience and Emotional Intelligence of Managers***

In Working with Emotional Intelligence, Daniel Goleman writes “Our level of emotional intelligence is not fixed genetically, nor does it develop only in early childhood. Unlike IQ, which changes little after our teen years, emotional intelligence seems to be largely learned, and it continues to develop as we go through life and learn from our experiences-our competence in it can

keep growing”. The present study too does not contradict this point; we find that mean value of EI keeps increasing with experience and significant difference was observed across different managerial experience groups. It was found that the mean values of EI increases in an incremental manner, but as we reach the highest experience category corresponding increase was not seen. The present findings are in conformity with (Shiple et al., 2010; Roy & Chaturvedi, 2011).

#### ***6.2.3.4 Organisational status and Emotional Intelligence of Managers***

The test of ANOVA shows that mean scores of EI were the highest at the senior level that supports previous research findings that with experience emotional intelligence increases. The mean values of EI scores for junior, middle, senior management were found to be 141.65, 145.92 and 153.24 respectively. The results correspond to the findings of (Godini & Baghfalaki, 2015) where EI increase as one moves from a lower level to a higher level. It is said that EI unlike other intelligences is one that increases with age and experience (Mayer & Salovey 1997; Goleman 2002). Several other studies confirm the same (Kafetsios, 2004; Day & Carroll 2004; Shiple et al., 2010; Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2012). Both the above findings confirm our hypothesis that EI increases with experience.

#### **6.2.4 Gender Role Identity**

A study on gender role identity has been increasingly important in the present workplace context as we find more women into the workplaces now. The current study finds that majority of the respondent managers were androgynous (36.1%) and more or less equal number of 16.3 % and 16.5% in the masculine and feminine category. A much higher percentage was found in the undifferentiated category with 19.4% near feminine and 11.8% near

masculine category. The increasing proportion of women in managerial positions in recent decades (Davidson & Burke, 2011; Powell, 2012) may have contributed to such a finding where more people in androgynous category are found in which a balanced endorsement of masculine and feminine traits are seen. With more females entering managerial jobs ‘Good-manager’ descriptions may have become more androgynous over time in accordance with the balance conceptualization of androgyny (Bem, 1974; Koenig et al., 2011) and the finding could be partially attributed to this phenomenon. An Indian study by Singh (2013) also found similar results where androgynous managers were high in number, followed by masculine and feminine group.

Donnelly and Twenge (2017) in their meta-analysis finds that women’s entry into work force corresponds to with a sharp increase in their BSRI measured masculinity and androgyny. According to him in the past 20 years women’s ‘femininity’ score have decreased, and ‘masculinity’ increased, while for the men the masculinity score remained more or less stable. Our study is partly similar to the above study, as males retain their ‘masculinity’ or become androgynous, and contrary to their hypothesis we find that only a small percentage of female managers are ‘masculine’ and do have a tendency to stick to their gender stereotype. More number of females falls into the androgynous category too.

Another interesting finding is that a substantial percentage of the managers fell in the undifferentiated category (31.2%) and such a possibility cannot be overlooked as Powell and Butterfield (2015) in his later research work mention the possibility of an ‘undifferentiated’ or lesser masculine or feminine category over a period of four decades.

#### **6.2.4.1 Gender Role Identity and Emotional Intelligence of Managers**

When examined on the interaction between gender role identity and EI, it was found that the highest mean EI score was found to be with the androgynous category, followed by the masculine category and feminine category. The lowest EI was reported with the near feminine category followed by the near masculine category, both of which belong to the undifferentiated category. We observe here that androgynous and masculine gender role identities were significantly different to other gender role identities. The androgynous and masculine identity was dominant in the study and reported higher mean EI values. Our findings are consistent with some of the prominent studies (Gaustello, 2003; Ardolino, 2013; Stassart et al., 2014). Gaustello (2003) in his study says that emotionally intelligent people would express a wider range of gender role behaviour and preferences than would people who were not so emotionally knowledgeable and further supported that androgyny predicts high emotional intelligence in his study. As per (Sargent, 1981) both instrumental and expressive behaviour (androgyny) are critical for managerial effectiveness. The results of our study are therefore promising.

#### **6.2.4.2 Gender Role Identity and Conflict Management Styles of managers**

It was found that the androgynous managers had the highest mean scores in all the approach modes of conflict management style's namely negotiation, compromise and confrontation styles in the order, while the masculine group had the highest mean value for negotiation, followed by confrontation and compromise. This was consistent to the findings of Brewer et al., (2002), where androgynous used integrating style and masculine preferred competing style. The feminine group however followed a mixed approach avoidance mode, wherein the highest mean value was reported for the negotiation, withdrawal,

resignation, confrontation and compromise style. It was observed that androgynous and masculine groups use more of negotiation strategy which is synonymous to the integrating style found in other conflict literature, and this is considered to be the best for resolving conflicts as it not only solves the problem but also enriches the interpersonal relationships (McFarland, 1992). In our study almost 18.2% of the variance is explained by this style. Individuals who possess masculine traits tend to be more assertive and achievement-oriented hence the relationship between the masculine gender role and the confrontation style was expected. This style accounts to more than 14.7% of the variance. The feminine group also had their first preference for negotiation style followed by withdrawal and resignation style. The relationship of feminine gender role to withdrawal style was consistent to the study of Brusko (2010). However an analysis of conflict management styles in terms of gender role identity is warranted as there is a lack of empirical studies in this area.

### **6.2.5 Sex differences in Conflict Management Styles of Managers**

When analysed on sex differences in conflict management styles, we found that sex differences were significant only with confrontation style. In the case of confrontation style, males reported a slightly higher EI than the females. None of the other style showed significant difference in Conflict management styles. Studies of Holt and Devore (2005); Thomas et al., (2008); Goel, (2012); Croucher et al., (2011), are consistent to this finding where males reported higher scores in this style. The sex difference in confrontation style could be attributed to personality factors as well as sex role socialisation and its enforcement in organisation that is dominant in the prevailing culture. While our study cannot differentiate these influences, it does demonstrate the strength of the resulting gender difference for one style alone. In a patriarchal society, as found in India it is normally the men that pertain to such roles and men are

deemed to be in higher positions than women (Hofstede, 2010). Since the prevailing culture has an influence on the managers they may believe that it is necessary to be dominant and assert power on others in order to remain in the higher position and perhaps this could be explaining the adoption of a confronting conflict management style. The compromise, negotiation, withdrawal and resignation style did not report any significant gender differences and our finding is consistent to the studies of Antonioni (1998); Havenga (2006); Boonsathorn (2007); Manyak and Katona (2010).

Overall the findings from the data indicate that managers with a higher EI use multiple conflict styles, as we could not identify a specific preference for one particular conflict style. Also, Emotional intelligence emerged as a significant predictor for conflict styles namely confrontation, compromise and negotiation, which were functional in nature as per the model proposed by Pareek and Purohit (2011). Therefore the hypotheses researched and the conclusions reached support a positive response to the assumptions that emotional intelligence does help resolve conflicts. From the data we can observe, that higher the EI, the greater the tendency to use functional conflict resolution strategies among the managers. Such a finding also supports the existing literature that emotional intelligence extends as a theory of performance which predicts managerial effectiveness in the workplace, particularly in behaviors which involves leading others. (Goleman, 2001; Hay Mcker, 2002).

Also when gender role identity was introduced into this relationship, we found that 'masculinity' dimension of Gender role identity moderated the relationship between EI and confrontation conflict style. As per Pareek and Purohit (2011) confrontation is an approach mode of conflict style and termed to be functional as an attempt is made to resolve conflict. This style

is acceptable in Indian culture and we found that male managers and managers with masculine gender role identity tend to use this style often.

The findings thus throw some new light on the traditional presumption that the prevailing culture does influence the socialization process of gender. India being a male dominated society, this was perhaps identified as an acceptable conflict style by managers with high masculinity. Simultaneously, a sizeable number in the sample did not show any interaction effects of emotional intelligence and gender role identity on other conflict styles. Unlike past findings in the gender identity theory, a lesser emphasis on traits associated with either sex, were found in this case. But when examined independently with conflict styles it was found that androgynous and masculine managers use more of approach modes of conflict styles. This adds on to existing gender identity theory as we see that specific pattern was seen with only those groups who had high 'masculinity' and indicates the influence of a prevailing male dominated culture in the study. The results of our study also suggest the need for further theoretical and empirical attention on the 'undifferentiated' managerial groups as this also has emerged substantially over the past decades and not much research efforts have been done in this direction (Powell & Butterfield, 2015).

Our findings also show that male managers score slightly higher than women on the confrontation style alone. Such a finding could be due to the combined effect of complex individual traits like personality and the sex role socialization. Except this style the other findings did not show a significant difference in conflict management styles in terms of gender (Gunkel et. al., 2016; Korabik et. al., 1993) adding on to the theory on gender research. This adds on to the contemporary thoughts that the conflict management style

differences across sex may be disappearing (Thomas et al 2008) but the culture may have an impact (Gunkel et al., 2014).

This study contributes to the literature of individual differences in explaining conflict management styles, demonstrating that individual traits like emotional intelligence predict functional styles of conflict management. The findings of our data also indicate, that more than sex differences, it is perhaps the gender role identity of the managers that better explains conflict styles pattern in a workplace. So rather than focusing on sex differences it is ‘within sex’ differences that need to be considered. Future theory building should perhaps consider the cultural dimensions too to understand conflict style usage as gender role identity is developed as a part of socialisation.



# Chapter 7

## SUMMARY, IMPLICATION AND CONCLUSION

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### *Contents*

- 7.1 *Overview of the Study*
- 7.2 *Implication of the Study*
- 7.3 *Conclusion of the Study*
- 7.4 *Scope for Future Research*

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This chapter gives a brief overview of the study, the implications of the major findings for managers and concludes with suggestions on further scope for the research in future.

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## 7.1 Overview of the Study

The study was an attempt to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles and to verify the role of emotional intelligence in constructive conflict management. The role of gender role identity in moderating this relationship was also examined. The objectives of the study was therefore

1. To identify the relationship between EI and conflict management styles of managers in service sector
2. To verify whether there is difference in conflict style adoption across different levels of Emotional Intelligence of managers in service sector
3. To verify the moderating role of gender role identity in the relationship between EI and conflict management style adopted by managers
4. To find out the influence of personal factors like Sex, Marital Status, Experience and occupational factor like organisational status on emotional intelligence of managers
5. To verify whether EI varies across the gender role identity of managers.
6. To identify differences in conflict management styles across Gender role identity of managers.
7. To identify differences in terms of sex on conflict management styles

The study was done with a sample of 449 managers employed in the service sector operating in the districts of Ernakulam, Trivandrum and Trichur from the state of Kerala. A survey method was deployed for collection of data and the major tools used for the same were: Bhattacharya Emotional Intelligence Scale (BEIS), Conflict Resolution Inventory (CRI) and Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) to measure emotional intelligence, conflict management style and gender role identity respectively. Nineteen hypotheses were

formulated with regard to the objectives and all the hypotheses were tested using appropriate statistical techniques.

The results of the study can be summarised as follows

1. A significant relationship between emotional intelligence and approach modes of conflict resolution was found with the managers. The results show that negotiation styles seems to be the most preferred choice of employees when faced with conflict in workplace, followed by confrontation, compromising styles.
2. It was seen that at higher levels of emotional intelligence more of approach modes of conflict styles was used by managers. Therefore the study confirms that emotional intelligence is a significant predictor to constructive conflict management.
3. The study reveals that masculine gender role identity significantly moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence and confrontation conflict resolution style, while it was not found to be significant with any other conflict style across gender role identity.
4. Managerial experience and organisational status of the respondent managers had a significant impact on emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence shows an increasing trend with experience and also across the organisational status. Higher scores in EI were reported from the junior management to the senior managerial levels.
5. The sex and the marital status of the respondents did not show significant influence on emotional intelligence of the managers.
6. Managers who had androgynous and masculine gender role identity reported higher EI levels.

7. Managers with androgynous and masculine gender role identity used more of approach modes of conflict styles ie confrontation, compromise and negotiation styles.
8. Difference in terms of sex was found only with confrontation style, while the other four styles reported no significant difference.

## **7.2 Implication of the Study**

Managing employees in a service sector poses a set of unique challenges to the managers. Unlike the manufacturing sector, the service offered to the customer itself, is the product and therefore the quality of relationships that a manager-employee dyad share has an effect in the service delivery. Secondly during the service delivery process each employee needs to respond to situations in a unique manner and this process involves management of 'emotions' In fact it is the human element of service delivery that distinguishes management practice in a service setting from management practice in a manufacturing setting. This process of managerial behaviour influencing employee perceptions, and employee perceptions influencing customer out comes, is critical to improving the practice of management in a service sector and therefore such a study becomes relevant in a service sector context for managers (Anderson, 2006). Interpersonal conflicts are bound to happen when managers interact with each other and the way in which conflicts are handled have either a positive or negative effect on its employees, and as per theory, management of emotions have a key role to play while handling conflicts. Hence it is important to capture individual differences like emotional intelligence, sex and gender role identity in the adoption of conflict handling styles of the managers in a workplace.

The observations from the current study adds on to the theory that emotional intelligence is a significant predictor to approach modes of conflict styles finds significant practical implications for managers, HRD professionals as well as employees in a service sector. As discussed earlier, in service sector since the final product offered to a customer is intangible in nature, for a superior customer experience and service transactions to occur, the service offered to the customer by the employees should be delivered rightly. Managers have a significant role to play here in the service delivery process, as they are the ones who set the tone by maintaining good manager-employee dyadic relationships. According to Pareek and Purohit (2011) approach modes of conflict styles try to resolve conflict by influencing and engaging with others in a positive manner so that it enhances people and organizations, rather than destroying people and organization.

Unlike other intelligences, emotional intelligence can always be improved with concerted efforts. HRD practitioners need to pay attention to the EI skills of new recruits which is not given attention currently while hiring and also in promotion or career advancement decisions. Since we have found that the presence of EI predicts preference for approach modes of conflict styles it is recommended that professionals be encouraged to develop their emotional competencies through a reflective practice and experiential learning that will help in sorting out differences in a functional manner.

Our study also reveals that there is an association of emotional intelligence with resignation style which is an avoidance mode of conflicts. The usage of this style by professionals may be explored and HRD professionals may work on this aspect to identify the context under which such style is adopted. Appropriate intervention to neutralise the usage of such styles

is also recommended as avoidance mode generally do not make attempt to resolve conflict.

With increased gender diversity and globalisation where physical boundaries are no more a hindrance in service sector, an assessment of the gender role identity that individuals assume also cannot be side-lined. This finding becomes relevant to practitioners as well as researchers as decisions regarding managerial effectiveness should not be decided solely on the basis of gender. It has relevance in the present context as we see more diversity in terms of gender in the service sector. We need to go beyond social stereotypes and preconceived notions in terms of gender. Introducing diversity training programs that help professionals to identify themselves and others and articulate the deeper issues of conflict dynamics as result of such differences may be made aware by HRD practitioners. Such diversity training programs enables an attitudinal or behavioural change towards sexism, gender stereotyping and patriarchy in the organisation. As part of the skill building exercise future managers can be given awareness on learning about emotional intelligence and conflict management styles as it would be an immense help for preparing for their careers.

The study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on emotional intelligence and conflict management. The role of emotional intelligence in functional conflict handling is still less explored and more empirical studies need to be done in an Indian context.

### **7.3 Conclusion of the study**

The present research was an effort to empirically determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles of managers in the service sector. Relevant theories and models with respect to

this was reviewed and the researcher found that the adoption of functional or dysfunctional styles of conflict and the role of EI as significant predictor among managers is less explored and also a paucity of studies on a gendered analysis of emotional Intelligence and conflict management styles was also found.

The results of the study was found to be promising as it confirmed that emotional intelligence has a significant influence in the preference over conflict styles. At higher levels of emotional intelligence more of approach modes of conflict styles which are termed as functional were used. Gender role identity which is shaped by cultural factor was found to have a significant influence in the preference of conflict styles and it moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence and confrontation conflict management styles. The study therefore is relevant to management practitioners, HRD professionals and also to academic research.

#### **7.4 Scope for future research**

The results of this study offer a lot of opportunities for further research. To begin with, future efforts can study larger populations to understand the conflict patterns across different emotional intelligence levels. The present study has focused only on managers therefore future studies can focus on dyadic studies where the perspectives of both manager and subordinates or peer groups to whom the manager interacts may be included to understand the dynamics of conflict behaviour in a better manner. Methods like scenarios, interviews or even mixed methods can be used to identify the conflict management styles that managers adopt depending in the context. The present study has not taken into consideration the effects of adopting a conflict style on personal or organisational outcomes. Hence future studies can focus on the

effects of conflict style on employee related factors like job satisfaction, job performance and well-being and also to organisational variables like attrition, productivity etc. Lastly emotional intelligence may be influenced by the cultural background of the individual and will have an effect on the preferred conflict styles. A variable cultural intelligence may also be included in future studies.

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# APPENDICES

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## Appendix – I General Information

Dear respondent

This questionnaire is designed as part of my research work on managerial behaviour at workplace. Being practicing managers at your workplace, the information that you provide would help to better understand the aspects of the area of my study. The information so gathered will be used only for research purpose and your anonymity would be highly valued. I kindly request you to answer the questions frankly and honestly.

Sincerely

Smarty P Mukundan

Asst Professor, Federal institute of science and technology, Angamaly  
Research Scholar (Part time) School of Management studies, CUSAT.  
[Smaremin@gmail.com](mailto:Smaremin@gmail.com),  
Mob: 9497195215.

### Personal Information

1	Gender (Pls tick)	Male		Female	
2	Marital status (Pls tick)	Married		Single	
3	Age				
4	Qualification (Pls tick)	Plus 2			
		Degree(Pls specify)			
		Btech			
		MBA			
		MCA			

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		Diploma			
5	Designation				
6	Status in organisation (Pls tick)	Junior management	Middle management	Senior management	
7	Total number of Years of work experience (Pls fill in)				
8	Years of experience as manager (Pls fill in)				
9	Category of service operation you are working; please tick whichever is applicable (Pls tick)	IT/ITES			
		Banking			
		Financial services			
		Health care			
		Hospitality			

**Appendix-II Bhattacharya Emotional Intelligence Scale**

<p><b>Please respond to all the statements given below. There are no right or wrong answers to this questionnaire.</b></p>	<p><b>Never true</b></p>	<p><b>Rarely true</b></p>	<p><b>Sometimes true</b></p>	<p><b>Mostly true</b></p>	<p><b>Always true</b></p>
1. I get unnecessarily tensed in certain work situations					
2. I am stressed even in day to day situations					
3. I feel sad in some specific issues					
4. I often get depressed					
5. I feel that there is no respite(rest or break) from stress					
6. I feel helpless in bad moods					
7. I cannot get myself out of anxiousness in the face of a trial or in deliberations with people					
8. I feel uneasy in handling conflicts and emotional upsets in relationships					
9. I am out of tune in such circumstances that call for my affection					
10. I repent afterwards for things said					
11. I am worried about my own problems					
12. I become thoughtful about those things ,people do not bother to think					
13. I overreact to trifles as per others belief					
14. I can sense the feelings of others					
15. I am quite sensitive to how relationship goes on					
16. I pay complements to deserving people					
17. I get pleasure in challenges and try to solve them					
18. I am satisfied with the performance of my work					
19. I enjoy myself to the facts and concepts of					

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my work at my workplace					
20. I supplement innovative ideas to my organisation					
21. I can sense whether the new ideas will succeed					
22. I prefer brainstorming on a problem to find out a solution for it					
23. In my team I am the decision maker					
24. I think that my performance at work is affected by my family problems					
25. I get frightened when situation changes rapidly					
26. I feel strained with reorganisation in my company					
27. I spare nothing to save myself from being called a fool by my contenders					
28. I am concerned for the conflicts between work and family					
29. I think the time most critical when people form a different opinion than me					
30. I do not think I have a non performing existence					
31. I try to keep good relationship with my boss					
32. I try to keep good relationship with my subordinates					
33. I can easily make acquaintances and friends					
34. I am put into distress with a death of a close friend or relative					
35. I am ready to mend myself if somebody corrects me					
36. I am fully confident of my ability					
37. I can differentiate and compare my feelings					
38. I turn my needle point to the behaviour and not to the man while commenting on anything critically					
39. I am interested to find out a solution for a problem which I face					
40. I know how to make a positive emotion last when I experience it					

**Appendix-III Conflict Resolution Inventory**

<b>Think about the interaction you had with your co-workers at the workplace and use the scale below to indicate how frequently you use this behaviour</b>					
<b>Please respond to all the statements given below. Put a 'x' mark in the Corresponding cell.</b>					
	I rarely behave that way	I Behave that way	I Sometimes behave that way	I often behave that way	I Almost behave that way
1. I confront the situation					
2. I am fearful to break relationships					
3. I try to find out alternative solutions					
4. I keep quite in contradictory situations					
5. I find time to be the best healer					
6. I easily express my feelings					
7. I easily agree to a proposed solution by others					
8. I seek solutions from others					
9. I believe that the best strategy is to avoid conflict					
10. I wait for my emotions to subside					
11. I believe in fight out(argue fiercely) the solutions					
12. I believe in compromising					
13. I take decisions after discussing with others					
14. I don't enter into the conflict					
15. I give my companions sometime to think before initiating talks					
16. I explore the reason for conflict					
17. I accept few demands of the opponent group to resolve conflicts					
18. I jointly go for the mutually acceptable solution					
19. I want to be in the comfort zone while dealing with relations					
20. I tend to delay my efforts in finding solutions for my personal problems					



**Appendix – V**

PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.15

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.    www.afhayes.com

**PROCESS Output Showing the interrelationship between Gender role Identity, emotional intelligence and confrontation style of conflict**

Model = 1

Y = Confrontation

X = Emotional Intelligence

M = Gender role identity

Sample size

309

Coding of categorical M variable for analysis:

Mod	D1	D2
1.00(Androgynous)	.00	.00
2.00 (Masculine)	1.00	.00
3.00 (Feminine)	.00	1.00

Outcome: confrontation

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4541	.2062	7.4171	15.7383	5.00	303.00	.000

Model

	Coeff	se	t	p
Constant	6.8262	1.9892	3.4317	.0007
Eiscore	.0443	.0127	3.4870	.0006
D1	-6.6038	3.4621	-1.9074	.0574
D2	-3.9746	3.1856	-1.2477	.2131
int_1	.0413	.0224	1.8486	.0655
int_2	.0176	.0216	.8120	.4174

Conditional Effect of Focal Predictor in Groups Defined by the Moderator

Variable:

mod	coeff	se	t	p
1.0000	.0443	.0127	3.4870	.0006
2.0000	.0856	.0184	4.6547	.0000
3.0000	.0619	.0175	3.5316	.0005

**PROCESS Output Showing the interrelationship between Gender role Identity, emotional intelligence and compromise style of conflict**

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2886	.0833	7.2205	5.5047	5.00	303.00	.0001

Model

	coeff	se	t	p
constant	11.7707	1.9626	5.9974	.0000
eiscore	.0163	.0125	1.3038	.1933
D1	-.3146	3.4160	-.0921	.9267
D2	-3.9737	3.1431	-1.2643	.2071

int_1	-.0061	.0221	-.2755	.7831
int_2	.0192	.0214	.8970	.3704

Conditional Effect of Focal Predictor in Groups Defined by the Moderator Variable:

mod	coeff	se	t	p
1.0000	.0163	.0125	1.3038	.1933
2.0000	.0103	.0182	.5656	.5721
3.0000	.0355	.0173	2.0535	.0409

**PROCESS Output Showing the interrelationship between Gender role Identity, emotional intelligence and Negotiation style of conflict**

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3997	.1597	7.0334	11.52	5.00	303.00	.00

Model

	coeff	se	t	p
constant	7.6506	1.9370	3.9496	.0001
eiscore	.0519	.0124	4.1914	.0000
D1	.1402	3.3714	.0416	.9669
D2	-3.5605	3.1021	-1.1478	.2520
int_1	-.0039	.0218	-.1813	.8562
int_2	.0206	.0211	.9778	.3290

Conditional Effect of Focal Predictor in Groups Defined by the Moderator

Variable:

mod	coeff	se	t	p
1.0000	.0519	.0124	4.1914	.0000
2.0000	.0479	.0179	2.6743	.0079
3.0000	.0725	.0171	4.2472	.0000

**PROCESS Output Showing the interrelationship between Gender role Identity, emotional intelligence and withdrawal style of conflict**

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2203	.0485	9.9066	3.0909	5.00	303.00	.0098

Model

	coeff	se	t	p
constant	9.0287	2.2989	3.9274	.0001
eiscore	.0236	.0147	1.6052	.1095
D1	.0749	4.0012	.0187	.9851
D2	6.9843	3.6816	1.8971	.0588
int_1	-.0072	.0258	-.2802	.7795
int_2	-.0427	.0250	-1.7055	.0891

Conditional Effect of Focal Predictor in Groups Defined by the Moderator

Variable:

mod	coeff	se	t	p
1.0000	.0236	.0147	1.6052	.1095
2.0000	.0163	.0213	.7680	.4431
3.0000	-.0191	.0203	-.9426	.3466

**PROCESS Output Showing the interrelationship between Gender role Identity, emotional intelligence and Resignation style of conflict**

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.0898	.0081	8.0088	.4923	5.000	303.00	.7819

Model

coeff	se	t	p	
constant	12.9614	2.0670	6.2707	.0000
eiscore	.0043	.0132	.3222	.7475
D1	.7286	3.5976	.2025	.8396
D2	-2.2891	3.3102	-.6915	.4898
int_1	-.0071	.0232	-.3039	.7614
int_2	.0140	.0225	.6224	.5341

Conditional Effect of Focal Predictor in Groups Defined by the Moderator Variable:

mod	coeff	se	t	p
1.0000	.0043	.0132	.3222	.7475
2.0000	-.0028	.0191	-.1469	.8833
3.0000	.0183	.0182	1.0025	.3169

## **LIST OF PUBLICATIONS**

1. **Smarty P Mukundan**, *HR Analytics: A Snapshot view*, (2017), International Journal of Engineering Technology, Management and Applied Sciences, Vol 5(7.)
2. **Smarty P Mukundan** & Lakshmi Radhakrishnan, (2016), *Emotional Intelligence and Perceived Stress: A study with reference to non-clinical employees*, FORUM, Peer reviewed Journal ,Vol1(2), 2016
3. **Smarty P Mukundan**, Dhanya M & Dr K P Saraswthyamma, (2013), *A study on the conflict resolution styles of Generation Y students*, International Journal of Global Business, 6 (1).
4. **Smarty P Mukundan** & SoumyaPriya, *A Study on the impact of Emotional Intelligence on work life balance among IT professionals: An Empirical study at Techno park, Trivandrum*, (2013), GITAM Journal of Management, Vol II, No: 1
5. **Smarty P Mukundan** & K A Zakkariya, *Emotional Intelligence as a determinant of Conflict Style Adoption of Managers: A theoretical perspective*, (2013), International Journal Of Social Sciences And Interdisciplinary Research, Vol 2(2).
6. **Smarty P Mukundan**, *Emotional intelligence (EI) : An imperative skill for managers in the global workplace*, (2013) International Journal of Research in Commerce ,IT & Management, Vol 3(1).
7. **Smarty P Mukundan**, *Employee engagement -An effective tool for talent retention* (2009), Chapter contribution, Human Resource Management: An Anthology of Contemporary Research, Excel Books.