

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCH IN COMMERCE, ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT

CONTENTS

Sr. No.	TITLE & NAME OF THE AUTHOR (S)	Page No.	
1.	IMPACT OF MARKETING ACTIVITIES ON CONSUMER BASED BRAND EQUITY - A CASE STUDY OF PAKISTAN'S MOBILE SERVICE SECTOR	1	
	SHAHZAD GHAFOOR & UZAIR FAROOQ KHAN		
2.	UNDERSTANDING THE RELATIONSHIPS OF CORPORATE IMAGE, EMOTION, VALUE, SATISFACTION, AND LOYALTY AMONG AIR PASSENGERS: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE	13	
	DR. HAFEDH IBRAHIM		
3.	GAME THEORY AS ANOTHER PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATION OF POLITICAL MARKETING: EVIDENCE FROM NIGERIA'S ELECTORAL PROCESS DR. ROWLAND E. WORLU		
4.	CORPORATE UNDERSTANDING OF TAKĀFUL DR. WAHEED AKHTER, MR. HASAN AFZAL & MR. ALI RAZA		
5.	SMALL AND MEDIUM SCALE ENTERPRISES AS A SURVIVAL STRATEGY FOR EMPLOYMENT GENERATION IN NIGERIA DR. AREMU, MUKAILA AYANDA & DR. (MRS.) ADEYEMI, SIDIKAT LARABA		
6.	A STUDY ON LABOUR WELFARE FACILITY (WITH REFERENCE TO AFT, PONDICHERRY) S. POONGAVANAM		
7.	INTERNATIONALIZATION OF INDIAN RUPEE - AN EMPIRICAL STUDY SHRINIVAS R. PATIL & DR. RAMESH R. KULKARNI		
8.	PROFITABILITY PERFORMANCE OF PUBLIC SECTOR BANKS-AN EMPIRICAL STUDY M.RAJESH & DR. N R V RAMANA REDDY		
9.	GLOBAL INTEGRATION OF ORGANISATION IS EFFECTIVE THROUGH LEGISLATION: A PERSPECTIVE ON THE CURRENT ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT DR. S. P. RATH, PROF. BISWAJIT DAS & ANAND IYENGAR	56	
10.	NON-PERFORMING ASSETS: A STUDY OF SCHEDULED COMMERCIAL BANKS IN INDIA DR. M. JAYASREE & R. RADHIKA	60	
11.	SOLVENCY ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC SECTOR UNDERTAKING: A CASE STUDY OF POWER FINANCE CORPORATION LIMITED (PFCL) DR. S. K. KHATIK & TITTO VARGHESE	64	
12.	GLOBAL FINANCIAL CRISIS AND ITS EFFECT ON REAL ESTATE SECTOR IN INDIA DR. SANMAN JAIN N & NISHI S JAIN	71	
13.	AN INTROSPECTIVE ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOR ON THE BASIS OF DEMOGRAPHY: A SURVEY (WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO FMCGS) DR. B. CHANDRA MOHAN PATNAIK & PRAKASH KUMAR PRADHAN		
14.	PROFITABILITY ANALYSIS OF ICICI BANK DR. K. MANIKANDAN, DR. S. MANIVEL & DR. R. VELU RAJ	81	
15.	WHAT SAVED INDIA FROM THE GLOBAL ECONOMIC MELTDOWN? DR. S. RAGHUNATHA REDDY & DR. A. AMRUTH PRASAD REDDY	86	
16.	PERFORMANCE AND RISK ANALYSIS OF MONTHLY INCOME PLANS (MIP) OF SELECTED MUTUAL FUNDS DR. ASHOK KHURANA & DR. BHAVET	90	
17.	CONSUMER BUYING BEHAVIOUR OF GREEN PRODUCTS DR. H. C. PUROHIT	94	
18.	CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY STRATEGIES FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: INDIAN EXPERIENCE	98	
	DR. VILAS M. KADROLKAR		
19.	A STUDY ON MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF INDIAN BANKING SECTOR IN THE EVENT OF RECENT GLOBAL ECONOMIC CRISIS- AN EMPIRICAL VIEW	106	
19.	A STUDY ON MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF INDIAN BANKING SECTOR IN THE EVENT OF RECENT GLOBAL ECONOMIC	106	
	A STUDY ON MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF INDIAN BANKING SECTOR IN THE EVENT OF RECENT GLOBAL ECONOMIC CRISIS- AN EMPIRICAL VIEW M. S. RAMARATNAM, R. JAYARAMAN & B. BALAJI SRINIVASAN e-PROCUREMENT USING REVERSE AUCTIONS FOR CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS		
20	A STUDY ON MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF INDIAN BANKING SECTOR IN THE EVENT OF RECENT GLOBAL ECONOMIC CRISIS- AN EMPIRICAL VIEW M. S. RAMARATNAM, R. JAYARAMAN & B. BALAJI SRINIVASAN e-PROCUREMENT USING REVERSE AUCTIONS FOR CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS T. BALADHANDAYUTHAM & DR. SHANTHI VENKATESH PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS WITH SUSTAINABLE GROWTH RATE: A CASE STUDY	110	
20	A STUDY ON MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF INDIAN BANKING SECTOR IN THE EVENT OF RECENT GLOBAL ECONOMIC CRISIS- AN EMPIRICAL VIEW M. S. RAMARATNAM, R. JAYARAMAN & B. BALAJI SRINIVASAN e-PROCUREMENT USING REVERSE AUCTIONS FOR CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS T. BALADHANDAYUTHAM & DR. SHANTHI VENKATESH PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS WITH SUSTAINABLE GROWTH RATE: A CASE STUDY JAGADISH R. RAIYANI TRANSFER PRICING- A STUDY OF TRANSFER PRICING METHOD USED BY SELECTED COMPANIES MANU KALIA FACTORS IN FACILITATING THE PROCESS OF OBTAINING FUNDS FOR SMES: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON VISAKHAPATNAM DISTRICT	110	
20 21 22	A STUDY ON MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF INDIAN BANKING SECTOR IN THE EVENT OF RECENT GLOBAL ECONOMIC CRISIS- AN EMPIRICAL VIEW M. S. RAMARATNAM, R. JAYARAMAN & B. BALAJI SRINIVASAN e-PROCUREMENT USING REVERSE AUCTIONS FOR CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS T. BALADHANDAYUTHAM & DR. SHANTHI VENKATESH PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS WITH SUSTAINABLE GROWTH RATE: A CASE STUDY JAGADISH R. RAIYANI TRANSFER PRICING- A STUDY OF TRANSFER PRICING METHOD USED BY SELECTED COMPANIES MANU KALIA FACTORS IN FACILITATING THE PROCESS OF OBTAINING FUNDS FOR SMES: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON VISAKHAPATNAM DISTRICT DR. P. P.CHANDRA BOSE EMPLOYEES' WORKPLACE EMOTIONS IN ORGANIZATIONS	110 118 123	
20 21 22 23	A STUDY ON MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF INDIAN BANKING SECTOR IN THE EVENT OF RECENT GLOBAL ECONOMIC CRISIS- AN EMPIRICAL VIEW M. S. RAMARATNAM, R. JAYARAMAN & B. BALAJI SRINIVASAN e-PROCUREMENT USING REVERSE AUCTIONS FOR CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS T. BALADHANDAYUTHAM & DR. SHANTHI VENKATESH PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS WITH SUSTAINABLE GROWTH RATE: A CASE STUDY JAGADISH R. RAIYANI TRANSFER PRICING- A STUDY OF TRANSFER PRICING METHOD USED BY SELECTED COMPANIES MANU KALIA FACTORS IN FACILITATING THE PROCESS OF OBTAINING FUNDS FOR SMES: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON VISAKHAPATNAM DISTRICT DR. P. P.CHANDRA BOSE	110 118 123 128	

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EMPLOYEES' WORKPLACE EMOTIONS IN ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This paper suggests that feelings (moods and emotions) play a central role in the leadership process. More specifically, it is proposed that emotional intelligence, the ability to understand and manage moods and emotions in the self and others, contributes to effective leadership in organizations. Four major aspects of emotional intelligence, the appraisal and expression of emotion, the use of emotion to enhance cognitive processes and decision making, knowledge about emotions, and management of emotions, are described. Then, it propose how emotional intelligence contributes to effective leadership by focusing on five essential elements of leader effectiveness: development of collective goals and objectives; instilling in others an appreciation of the importance of work activities; generating and maintaining enthusiasm, confidence, optimism, cooperation, and trust; encouraging flexibility in decision making and change; and establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organization.

KEYWORDS

Emotional Intelligence; leadership, organizations.

INTRODUCTION

motion is defined as "a complex feeling state accompanied by physiological arousal and overt behaviours". The words 'Emotion' and "Motivation", in essence, imply motion. Motivation is typically functional because a motivated person moves himself towards some goal. But, emotion is primarily expressive because an emotional person is moved. Emotion can be motivating to the extent that human activity towards certain goal is influenced and sustained by feelings. Whenever we try to attain happiness or get rid of anger, irritation, etc emotion plays significantly a motivated role. Emotions can be managed through conscious practices. Morris and Feldman (1996) defined emotional labour as "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions". This definition comes from an interactionist approach, where emotions are expressed in, and partially determined by, the social environment. This perspective is similar to those of Hochschild (1983) and Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) in that it acknowledges that emotions can be modified and controlled by an individual and the broader social setting determine when that happens. These authors proposed that emotional labour consists of four dimensions: (a) frequency of interactions, (b) attentiveness (intensity of emotions, duration of interaction), (c) variety of Emotions required and (d) emotional dissonance. Emotional dissonance was discussed by Hochschild (1983) as a state wherein the emotions expressed are discrepant from the emotions felt.

Generally, individuals experience a physiological state of arousal or emotion (anger or fear), and they then have an emotional tendency (attack or flee). This corresponds with Frijda's (1986) idea of "action readiness," and Freud's (1936/1961) idea that emotions provide clues about the environment. The arousal state from emotions informs them and gets them in a bodily state to respond to the situation. But in today's society, people learn to regulate that emotional tendency, so that their emotional reactions to other people don't result in "fight or flight" (Cannon, 1932). So, these "action tendencies" to respond to emotion-producing stimuli are overridden by coping or regulatory processes so that people do not act inappropriately in social settings (Lazarus, 1991).

IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

STUDIES OF COGNITION AND EMOTION IN ORGANISATIONS

Attribution, Affective Events, Emotional Intelligence and Perception of Emotion by Ashkanasy and Tse (2002). In particular there are three areas of research in emotions in organisational settings that have important implications for managers. First, affective events theory tells managers that the ostensibly minor hassles and uplifts that people experience at work every day accumulate to determine organisational members' affective states, and these states can subsequently affect their attitudes and behaviours at work; second, work on emotional intelligence is introducing a new appreciation of the role of emotional perception, understanding, and management in organisations, popularised recently by Goleman (1995, 1998); and third, managers are now coming to appreciate the pros and cons of emotional labour in organisations, as popularised by Hochschild (1983), and the implications of these for management practice. In this respect, Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) set out five tips for better management of emotions, as follows: i). Rather than seeing jobs as purely rational undertakings, managers need to assess the 'emotional impact' of each employee's job, and to design job assignments that take this into account; ii). Organisations are not cold places that people enter just to work. Managers need to create a positive and friendly emotional climate, and to model this through their own behaviour; iii). Managers can encourage a positive emotional climate through rewards and compensation systems; iv). Selection of employees and teams needs to be based, in part, on a positive emotional attitude. Managers should seek to train their employees to improve their emotional intelligence skills and to engage in healthy emotional expression at work

The Relationship of Emotional Exhaustion to Work Attitudes, Job Performance, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2003). Emotional exhaustion has emerged as a central variable for understanding the burnout process. The reasons for this are both empirical and conceptual. Empirically, some work has suggested that emotional exhaustion exhibits somewhat stronger relationships than do the other components to important outcome variables. Conceptually, argued that emotional exhaustion best captures the "core meaning" of burnout. In keeping with these empirical findings and conceptual frameworks, the authors explored the relationship of emotional exhaustion to important work behaviours, attitudes, and intentions.

EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION AND TURNOVER

In work settings, the withdrawal by emotionally exhausted workers can manifest itself by turnover. This effect has been amply demonstrated, and the present study seeks only to replicate it. The role of emotional intelligence in the pursuit of a spiritual life: Implications for individuals in organisations (Harmer, 2007). Research into emotional intelligence and workforce effectiveness suggests organisations that provide employees with the feeling they belong to a community willing to support, guide and help them through the many emotional peaks and troughs of work will be more engaged and committed. Although still contentious, academic research suggests the effective application of individual emotional intelligence at work by leaders and employees at all level is a stronger predictor of organisational effectiveness than traditional intelligence (IQ) or an individual's personality.

At an organisational level, effective emotional intelligence has been shown to underpin: a work team's capacity to identify and ascribe to attitudinal and behavioural norms related to more effective patterns of interacting employees capacity to recognise, understand and navigate boundary and role confusion between work teams, departments, divisions, and the organisation within the broader market context and a sense of organisational accomplishment and trouble free operation, as well as the development of vertical trust, organisational support, and general workplace wellbeing. At an individual and leadership effectiveness level, emotional intelligence is related to a leader's capability to show sensitivity and empathy towards others; build on other work colleagues' ideas; influence others to accept alternative points of view; demonstrate integrity and; act according to prevailing ethical standards by remaining consistent with one's words and actions (Barbuto and Burbach, 2006; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003; Palmer et al., 2003; Palmer et al., 2001).

EMOTION REGULATION IN THE WORKPLACE

A New Way to Conceptualize Emotional Labour by Grandey et al., 2004. Generally, emotions are managed in response to the display rules for the organization or job (Ekman and Friesen, 1975; Goffman, 1959; Hochschild, 1983). These rules regarding the expectations for emotional expression may be stated explicitly in selection and training materials, or known by observation of co-workers. Many work roles have display rules regarding the emotions that employees should show the public. In other words, managing emotions is one way for employees to achieve organizational goals. If an employee were to express a depressed mood or anger toward a co-worker or customer, that would ruin the performance. Hochschild's (1983) dramaturgical perspective offered two main ways for actors to manage emotions: through surface acting, where one regulates the emotional expressions, and through deep acting, where one consciously modifies feelings in order to express the desired emotion. One of Hochschild's (1983) major tenets is that this management of emotions requires effort.

DRAWING INFERENCES FROM EMOTION - EXTENDING THE MEANING OF AN EMOTION

EMOTION CYCLES

On the social influence of emotion in organizations by Hareli and Rafaeli. (2007). Human behaviour is often governed by inferences about other people and the attributions they evoke. As noted above, appraisal theories of emotion suggest that emotions can "tell a story" about the individual experiencing the emotion (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991). Building on such stories people may not only react emotionally, as suggested above, but may also draw inferences about emotive agents. By extension, an agent presumed to be experiencing anger may also be presumed to have been let down, offended, or disobeyed by someone (Tiedens, 2001), which could endow him or her with high power (Tiedens, 2002), which is a key element of the story of anger (Smith and Ellsworth, 1985). Thus, knowledge of an agents' emotion can lead others to presume knowledge of other things about the agent; the presumed knowledge extends the meaning of an emotion to afford information about the agent in addition to how he or she is feeling. Available research suggests that agent emotions can inspire inferences and attributions of three types: (a) the social status or power of an emotive agent; (b) the competence of the agent; and (c) the credibility of the agent.

WHEN CUSTOMERS LASH OUT

The Effects of Customer Interactional Injustice on Emotional Labour and the Mediating Role of Discrete Emotions (Rupp, and Spencer 2006). Emotional Labour Toward the goal of emotion regulation, many organizations have formal policies, known as *display rules*, regarding the expected emotions of their employees (Ekman and Friesen, 1982; Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987, 1990; Sutton and Rafaeli, 1988; Wharton and Erickson, 1995). Adherence to display rules is viewed as a practical necessity because the emotional front—in many cases courtesy, friendliness, and cheerfulness—plays an important role in fostering positive customer perceptions of service quality (Schneider and Bowen, 1985; Schneider *et al.*, 1980). Although disagreement exists regarding an explicit definition of EL (Glomb and Tews, 2004), our focus is on the degree of effort involved in emotion management during interpersonal transactions.

When employees' true emotions are not consistent with emotional display rules, they might engage in one of two forms of EL strategies: surface acting (modifying facial expression) or deep acting modifying inner feelings; Grandey, 2003; Hochschild, 1983).Research has indicated that surface acting has more negative effects on employees than does deep acting (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2003; Gross, 1998; Morris and Feldman, 1997; Pugliesi, 1999). Surface acting is more likely to be used by inexperienced employees than by those with more on-the-job experience (Grandey, 2003). The current study's conceptualization of EL is consistent with the notion of surface acting. That is, employees must expend effort and exercise control to modify outward emotional displays (i.e., surface act) when their internal feelings conflict with those required by display rules.

Bridging Justice and Emotional Labour via Affective Events Theory One class of affective events includes situations where individuals feel they are treated unfairly. For example, Weiss *et al.*, (1999) as well as Krehbiel and Cropanzano (2000) have presented empirical evidence showing that individuals experience anger when treated unfairly and happiness when treated fairly. Clayton (1992) and Mikula (1986) also provide evidence that anger is a common Consequence of injustice perceptions. The current study seeks to extend this research by exploring how situations involving interactional mistreatment by customers serve as affective events.

WHEN CLERKS MEET CUSTOMERS

A Test of Variables Related to Emotional Expressions on the Job (Rafaeli, 1989). Clerk Attributes: Sex Role Socialization and Conveyed Emotions The first part of the study examined clerk sex and its relationship to the emotions conveyed on the job. Gender differences in nonverbal behaviour are well documented (Deaux, 1985). It is commonly argued that men tend to display nonverbal cues that reflect power and authority, whereas women typically display more warmth and liking cues (Bem, 1974; Frieze and Ramsey, 1976; Siegler and Siegkq 1976). A similar pattern of differences is also evident when verbal behaviour is observed (Putnam and Mc-Callister, 1980).

It is unclear; however, to what extent the results of previous studies on gender differences can be generalized to emotional behaviour on the job. Previous research has described behaviour in social settings. In contrast, the present study focuses on *set*tings in which feeling rules emerge as part of an organizational or occupational socialization process. Thus, a first question of this study is whether gender differences-which have been documented in other settings, will be evident in the emotions conveyed when service employees interact with customers.

If gender differences due to sex role socialization transfer to behaviour on the job, then female employees can be expected to display more warmth and friendliness cues than male employees. In contrast, managerial literature recommends the display of positive and esteem-enhancing emotion by all service employees (Ash, 1984; Peters and Austin, 1985). Thus, organizational feeling rules endeavour to suppress gender differences in emotional expressions. When organizational feeling rules are followed, female and male employees *can* be expected to smile and greet all customers to a similar extent. Local feeling rules, however; may not overcome gender-linked differences in emotional expression. Sex role socialization is a lifelong process, supported by myriad sources including child rearing policies, parental masculinity and femininity, and other parental attributes and behaviours (Bem, 1974; Looft, 1973; Spence and Helmreich, 1978). In contrast, organizational socialization involves fewer sources of influence and pertains to a narrower domain of behaviours. Thus, it is expected that gender differences will be evident in emotional behaviour on the job.

MANAGING EMOTIONS IN THE WORKPLACE

Do Positive and Negative Attitudes Drive Performance? by Wharton, 2007. Employees' moods, emotions, and overall dispositions have an impact on job performance, decision-making, creativity, turnover, teamwork, negotiations, and leadership. People are not isolated 'emotional islands.' rather, they bring all of themselves to work, including their traits, moods and emotions, and their affective experiences and expressions influence others," according to the paper, co-authored by Donald Gibson of Fairfield University's Dolan School of Business. An "affective revolution" has occurred over the last 30 years as academics and managers alike have come to realize that employees' emotions are integral to what happens in an organization, which has been doing research in the area of emotions and work dynamics for 15 years. "Everybody brings their emotions to work. You bring your brain to work. You bring your emotions to work. Feelings drive performance. They drive behaviour and other feelings. Think of people as emotion conductors. "Three different types of feelings are as follows: i) Discrete, short-lived emotions, such as joy, anger, fear and disgust, ii) Moods, which are longer-lasting feelings and not necessarily tied to a particular cause. A person is in a cheerful mood, for instance, or feeling down. Iii) Dispositional, or personality, traits, which define a person's overall approach to life. "She's always so cheerful," or "He's always looking at the negative." Emotions don't have to be grand and obvious to have an impact. Subtle displays of emotion, such as a quick frown, can have an effect as well. Emotions in the workplace Research, Theory, and Practice by Ashkanasy, (2000).

AFFECTIVE EVENTS-EMOTIONS MATRIX

A Classification of Work Events and Associated Emotions as follows:

AFFECTIVE EVENTS THEORY (AET)

Affective Events Theory (AET) (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) proposes that organizational events are proximal causes of affective reactions. "Things happen to people in work settings and people often react emotionally to these events. These affective experiences have direct influences on behaviours' and attitudes" (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Recent research by Fisher (1998) has supported the hypothesized relationship between moment-to-moment emotions and outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit. AET also proposes that stable work environment features such as job scope predispose the occurrence of certain types of affect-producing events. For instance, an enriched job might more often lead to events involving feedback, task

accomplishment, and optimal challenge, which may lead to the emotions of pride, happiness, and enthusiasm. AET will be very useful for managers to know what types of events are most likely to produce positive or negative emotions, so that the incidence of the former can be enhanced and the latter reduced. This study asks the question: What organizational events or situations cause employees to experience specific emotions while at work? The aim of the research is to construct an event-emotion matrix that shows the relationship between categories of job events and the corresponding emotions experienced by people. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) used definitions from the World Book Dictionary, "a happening, especially an important happening" and from the Random House Dictionary, "something that occurs in a certain place during a particular period of time." This definition stops short of bringing the individual perceiver into the picture.

COGNITIVE APPRAISAL THEORY

Cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1966), on the other hand, posits that individuals will only feel the same emotions if their appraisal of the event is the Gendering Emotions, Gendering Teams, Construction of Emotions in Self-managing Teamwork. Studies of organizations have shown that gender is a central component in the analysis of emotions in the workplace (Hochschild, 1983; Leidner, 1993; Parkin, 1993; Rafaeli, 1989). Emotions play an important part in maintaining inequality between women and men at work; for example, a gender division of emotional labor constitutes the structural base of many service industries and perpetuates the ghettoization of women in low-paid service jobs (Hall, 1984; Hochschild, 1983; Leidner, 1993;). In addition to the well-documented gender division of emotional labour, the ways in which specific emotions are constructed in the daily interaction among employees' for example, the meanings that emotional displays are given by colleagues and superiors also maintain women's subordinate status with respect to men (Fineman, 1993).

COMMENTARY: EMOTIONS AS AN ORGANIZING PRINCIPLE

Emotion studies in organizations have often focused on the control exerted by organizations over emotions, by individuals over emotions, or the effects of emotions on performance. In this section, two organizational studies were described, which examine an aspect of emotion in organizational life rarely acknowledged: the role of emotion in creating and maintaining organizational hierarchies. Emotional Competence and Leadership Excellence at Johnson and Johnson: The Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Study by Kathleen Cavallo, PsyD. The study revealed a strong relationship between superior performing (HiPR) leaders and emotional competence, supporting theorist's suggestions that the social, emotional and relational competency set commonly referred to as Emotional Intelligence, is a distinguishing factor in leadership performance. Leaders who received performance ratings of 4.1 or greater on a 5-point scale were rated significantly higher than other participants in all four of the Emotional Intelligence dimensions of Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Social Skills by Supervisors and Subordinates. Peers found HiPR leaders to be stronger in the Self-Awareness and Self-Management clusters. Six competencies were found to distinguish HiPR's across all three rater groups, specifically, Self-Confidence, Achievement Orientation, Initiative, Leadership, Influence and Change Catalyst.

Emotion is often described either in psychological terms as an individualized, intrapersonal response to some stimulus, or, by contrast, a socially constituted phenomenon, depending upon the disciplinary perspective one adopts. The power relations pre sent in patriarchal organizational forms bring men into direct. Control of others' emotions and in shaping the emotional labor of others. The experiences of competition and domination likewise produce emotions in male s such as elation when they win and anger when their hegemonic position in the hierarchical structure is challenged. Furthermore, there are emotionalized zone s in organizational settings that invite male expressions of emotion such as retirement parties and other ceremonials, and the "forceful" defense of one's social place in meetings.

Organizational actors quite rationally draw upon their emotions to evaluate their circumstances. This ensures that members will behave in ways that are consistent with their self-interests. Hence, according to this perspective, emotion underwrites rational decision making and enables employees to behave in ways that are rational for them. The behaviors of leaders and decision makers have been described as psychologically defensive reactions to unconscious fears and anxieties and unresolved early life experiences (Fineman, 1993, 1996; Morgan, 1986). As an example, authoritarian leadership styles has been interpreted as manifestations of repressed hostility and anxiety derived from the experience of being reared by harsh disciplinarian caretakers (Fineman, 1996). Other defensive posture s adopted by leaders in response to unrecognized and unconscious fear, anger, or envy may include coalition building, influence tactics or divide and conquer forms of control (Zaleznick, 1970). A leader's unconsciously motivate d destructive impulse s may have the effect of undermining cooperation among members and create a culture that perpetuates rivalry and competition at a level that may be damaging to organizational goal attainment. Emotions, to be sure, do not emerge in isolation and they are not merely inner phenomena. They have objects, and they occur within some context.

The Role of Communicating Social Emotions Accompanying Apologies in Forgiveness by Hareli and Eisikovits (2006). Apologies are an effective strategy used by transgressors to restore relationships with an injured party. Apologies are often motivated by emotions the transgressor feels in relation to the situation. We report the results of two studies that examined how an injured person's knowledge that an apology was driven by one or more of the social emotions of guilt, shame, and pity affected forgiveness. Findings suggest that the knowledge that guilt and/or shame motivated the apology increased forgiveness. In contrast, knowledge that pity induced the apology decreased forgiveness. These findings are consistent with the view that the communication of emotions has the social function of monitoring and shaping social relationships.

The effectiveness of an apology in achieving the resolution of a social conflict depends on, among other things, verbal and non verbal components included in the apologetic message and on how this message is perceived by the injured party (IP). Indeed, apologies may include combinations of different components such as acceptance of responsibility for the misdeed that led to the break-up of the relationship, expressions of caring about what had happened, and offers of help. Research indicates that the extent to which an apology contains such components determines the level of forgiveness it achieves. An additional factor that determines an apology's effectiveness is information concerning how the transgressor feels about his/her wrongdoing toward the IP, and the extent to which such feelings instigated the apology. Because emotions convey to others important information concerning the state of the person experiencing them (Oatley and Johnson-Laird, 1987; Parkinson *et al.*, 2005), emotions known to prompt an apology can determine the impression an apology makes on its audience should s/he become aware of them.

A transgressor may experience a myriad of emotions following his/her undesirable act toward the IP. Such feelings typically arise from considerations of the way one's actions hurt the offended party and damaged the relationships with him/her. These feelings can also arise from assessment of personal implications the misdeed carries for the transgressor. That is, how the transgressor's character is going to be perceived by others including the IP following what that transgressor did to the IP. The present research provides evidence that information concerning the social emotions that motivate an apology serves the social function of affecting the likelihood of repairing broken social relationships following a transgression. It implies that people are sensitive to this information and consider it when deciding how much they forgive a transgressor. This is in line with the more general view that the function of the communication of emotion is to monitor and shape social relationships.

Emotional Intelligence and Stress Resiliency: A Relationship Study (Garg and Rastogi, 2009). The study has been conducted on a sample of 140 students having technical backgrounds. The findings suggest that students being emotionally intelligent can lead them to be resilient to stress, which determine their success at personal and professional front. One of the factors that have been focused is the "emotion" which drastically effect students' life. This factor has been highlighted with a view that the students being more at competitive edge, experience more stress which impede their academic performance and other scholarly activities. It has also been experienced that students being engrossed in cultivating rational intelligence are stressed and a physiological arousal occurs which leads to panic and interferes with an individual's performance believed that students being continually task-focused are more stressed which interfere with cognitive processing and consequently inhibit learning and memory. As earlier stated, that students being more at competitive edge are usually preoccupied with stress, which make them emotionally weak, and when unsuccessful in achieving their targets, this deteriorates their academic performance. That is, students' level of achievement is significantly related to their emotions as it is observed that more is the balance of emotions, greater success is experienced by the students. Or, we can say that emotional intelligence along with high IQ plays a vital role in determining the success of students, at personal and professional front.

It has been hypothesized that students who are emotionally intelligent are "more resilient to stress" and tend to develop positive attitude within them. Their interpretive styles of perceiving stress empower or disempower them psychologically and make them resilient to stress. Thus, coping mechanisms that utilize avoidance are associated with poorer academic performance (Carver and Sheier, 1983; Bagget and Saale, 1996), while optimistic students achieve higher academic performance compared with pessimistic students. The customer is not always right: customer aggression and emotion regulation of service employees (Grandey, 2004). The study focuses on a behavioral term that refers to verbal communications of anger that violate social norms: verbal aggression, or hostility. This term is clear about the behaviors of interest, avoids the fuzzy boundaries associated with the different terms noted previously, and is not necessarily associated with intra-organizational members as the previous terms have been. Consistent with this variable of interest, in the current study we focus on call center employees who only engage in voice-to-voice service interactions, allowing verbal aggression to be the primary method of communicating anger or hostility.

Two general ways that service workers can emotionally regulate is through surface acting (i.e., engaging in behavioral change) and deep acting (i.e., engaging in cognitive change) (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting entails modifying behaviors by suppressing or faking expressions (Brotheridge and Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2000). Deep acting refers to internal change: changing cognitions through perspective taking (reappraising the situation by taking another's point of view) or positive refocus (focusing attention on positive things to regulate feelings) (Gross, 1998). We also examined venting emotions—a dysfunctional response to customers (Bitner *et al.*, 1990; Grandey, 2003) that happens when the individual does not regulate emotions. Surface acting has been linked to burnout and lower service performance, while deep acting has been positively related to service performance.

EMOTIONAL LEADERSHIP THROUGH EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE: HIGH ACHIEVERS DO IT; LOW ACHIEVERS DON'T

The definition of emotional leadership is the leading of followers through the proper identification and management of an array of emotions and influencing the outcome of their subsequent needs. Leader decisions must incorporate follower emotions about the organization, the department, the culture and/or the project. When a leader disregards follower emotions, follower attention is divided between what they should do and what they want to do. For most followers, emotional distress detracts from performance especially when that distress is a result of leader/follower conflict regardless if the leader is a high achieving or low achieving leader. Leading follower emotions should be the first priority for anyone building an organization, changing an organization or simply looking to leave a legacy in an organization (King, 2009). Emotional Leadership is rooted in relationships of Emotional Quotient (e.g., Emotional Intelligence). They are: The Interpersonal Realm, The Intrapersonal Realm, The Adaptability Realm, The Stress Management Realm, and The Good Mood Realm. An emotionally intelligent leader knows that, "Good relationships and coping strategies are the key to our success from the initial bonding between parent and child to the ability of a manager to bring out the best in [their] employees". The study concludes that successful leadership starts with emotional leadership by focusing on follower emotions as part of the leadership process. Without it, followers fail. The truth is when followers fail, leadership fails.

EMOTIONS AND LEADERSHIP

The role of emotional intelligence, (George, 2000) feelings (moods and emotions) play a central role in the leadership process. More specifically, it is proposed that emotional intelligence, the ability to understand and manage moods and emotions in the self and others, contributes to effective leadership in organizations. Four major aspects of emotional intelligence, the appraisal and expression of emotion, the use of emotion to enhance cognitive processes and decision making, knowledge about emotions, and management of emotions, are described. Five essential elements of leader effectiveness: development of collective goals and objectives; instilling in others an appreciation of the importance of work activities; generating and maintaining enthusiasm, confidence, optimism, cooperation, and trust; encouraging flexibility in decision making and change; and establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organization. What distinguishes moods from emotions is their intensity. Moods are pervasive and generalized feeling states that are not tied to the events or circumstances which may have caused the mood in the first place. Moods are relatively low intensity feelings which do not interrupt ongoing activities. Emotions are high intensity feelings that are triggered by specific stimuli (either internal or external to the individual), demand attention, and interrupt cognitive processes and behaviors. Emotions tend to be more fleeting than moods because of their intensity. Emotions often feed into moods so that, once the intensity of an emotion subsides because the individual has cognitively or behaviorally dealt with its cause, the emotion lingers on in the form of a less intense feeling or mood. When people are in positive moods, their perceptions and evaluations are likely to be more favorable, they are more prone to remember positive information, they are more self-assured, they are more likely to take credit for successes and avoid blame for failures, and they are more helpful to others. Positive moods have been found to enhance flexibility on categorization tasks and facilitate creativity and inductive reasoning (Isen et al., 1985, 1987). Conversely, negative moods may foster deductive reasoning and more critical and comprehensive evaluations. Emotional intelligence does not only entail being aware of one's own emotions, but also using these emotions in functional ways. First, emotions can be useful in terms of directing attention to pressing concerns and signaling what should be the focus of attention (Frigda, 1988; George and Brief, 1996). Second, emotions can be used in choosing among options and making decisions; being able to anticipate how one would feel if certain events took place can help decision makers choose among multiple options (Damasio, 1994). Third, emotions can be used to facilitate certain kinds of cognitive processes. As mentioned earlier, positive moods can facilitate creativity, integrative thinking, and inductive reasoning, and negative moods can facilitate attention to detail, detection of errors and problems, and careful information processing (Isen et al., 1985, 1987; Salovey et al., 1993; Sinclair and Mark, 1992). Finally, shifts in emotions can lead to more flexible planning, the generation of multiple alternatives, and a broadened perspective on problems.

Emotional knowledge is concerned with understanding both the determinants and consequences of moods and emotions, and how they evolve and change over time. People differ in their awareness and understanding of how different situations, events, people, and other stimuli generate emotions. A leader who is surprised when followers' initial reaction to an announced restructuring is fear and anxiety is not knowledgeable about the determinants of emotions. Over time, emotions and moods change fear and anxiety might evolve into a negative mood and then to apathy or to a more intense state of agitation. While emotions can progress in different ways enthusiasm can lead to further levels of excitation or to a less intense sense of general well-being some people are especially attuned to these kinds of progressions and their causes. In order for leaders to generate and maintain excitement and enthusiasm, they must be able to appraise how their followers feel, and be knowledgeable about how to influence these feelings. They must also be able to anticipate how followers will react to different circumstances, events, and changes, and effectively manage these reactions. Leaders need to manage emotions such that followers are aware of problems yet, given the collective vision, are confident about resolving problems and feel optimistic about the efficacy of their personal contributions. Moreover, leaders need to be able to distinguish between the emotions their followers are actually experiencing, their 'real' feelings, and the emotions they express.

Impact of Emotional Intelligence, Ethical Climate, and Behavior of Peers on Ethical Behavior of Nurses by Satish and Joseph (2008). This study examines factors impacting ethical behavior of 103 hospital nurses. The level of emotional intelligence and ethical behavior of peers had a significant impact on ethical behavior of nurses. Independence climate had a significant impact on ethical behavior of nurses. Other ethical climate types such as professional, caring, rules, instrumental, and efficiency did not impact ethical behavior of respondents. The research suggests that both individual factors (e.g., emotional intelligence) and attributes of the hospital (ethical behavior of peers, independence climate) may impact ethical behavior. While the results of this study have unique implications for healthcare providers, they also have broader implications for other types of organizations and the field of business ethics. Nurses need a lot of emotional energy to interact with patients and be understanding towards those for whom they are responsible (Amendolair, 2003). This study suggests that emotional intelligence may have a significant impact on ethical behavior of nurses. A major component of a nurse's job is to take care of patients. Thus, nurses with personal qualities such as self-confidence, personal honesty, empathy, self management, and knowledge of personal strengths and weaknesses are more likely to make ethical decision. It is possible that training and development efforts aimed at increasing emotional and social competence can help nurses understand their own emotions and the emotions of others.

EMOTION IN THE WORKPLACE

Emotions in workplace settings and emotional intelligence are hot topics in management today. Leading business journals such as Fortune and Harvard Business Review have featured articles on emotional intelligence. The aim of this article is to acquaint managers with intriguing new research that examines both

emotional intelligence and the broader issue of emotion. This has been shown to play a powerful role in workplace settings this research has a strong potential for practical application in organizations within many broad human-resource functions such as selection, performance management and training, as well as implications for more narrow domains like customer service. It concluding that the study of emotions in organizational settings has provided new and important insights in to the way in which people in organizations behave and we offer advice for managers to enable them to develop and to maintain a positive emotional climate in their organizations(Ashkanasy et al., 2002).

Emotional Intelligence with its Psychological dimensions among software professionals (Nithya and Rau, 2009). Software Professionals are those people whose pace of work has increased to a high level and it becomes difficult to adjust the schedules for themselves and which in turn made them to become emotionally imbalanced. Under this circumstance, Emotional intelligence is one which makes an individual to become emotionally balanced as it is the ability to reason with, and about emotions. Hence the current paper explains the Emotional Intelligence of Software Professionals which has been designed in such a way that it measures the overall Emotional Intelligence and its three constitutes namely emotional sensitivity, emotional maturity and emotional competency. An empirical investigation has been done on 120 software professionals working in software companies in Chennai. It brings to light the extent of emotional intelligence with its three dimensions among software professionals and to know the awareness level and importance about El among them.

Evidence that emotional intelligence is related to job performance and affect attitudes at work by Lopes *et al.*, (2006). The present study viewed Emotional Intelligence as a set of four interrelated abilities involved in the processing of emotional information. The ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others entails identifying internal cues of emotional experience and emotional information in facial expressions, voice, music, designs, and other stimuli. The ability to use emotions to facilitate thinking entails integrating emotional information with (cold) cognitive process. The ability to understand emotions entails appreciating emotional dynamics and blends of emotions and how these influence thinking and behavior. The ability to manage emotions entails regulating emotional experience in one and in interpersonal situations to attain personal goals and adaptive outcomes.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND WORK PERFORMANCE

Emotional intelligence may contribute to work performance (as reflected in salary, salary increase and company rank) by enabling people to nurture positive relationships at work, work effectively in teams, and build social capital. Work performance often depends on the support, advice, and other resources provided by others (Seibert et al., 2001). Emotional intelligence may also contribute to work performance by enabling people to regulate their emotions so as to cope effectively with stress, perform well under pressure, and adjust to organizational change. Emotional intelligence and interpersonal facilitation: Interpersonal facilitation pertains to (interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment) (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996). Emotional intelligence may contribute to the quality of people's relationships at work because emotions serve communicative and social functions, conveying information about thoughts and intentions, and helping to coordinate social encounters (Keltner and Haidt, 2001). Emotion-related abilities should help people choose the best course of action when navigating social encounters. For example, the ability to decode facial expressions of emotion can help one to evaluate how other people respond to one's words and actions, yielding important information for adjusting one's behavior (Nowicki and duke, 2001). The ability to use emotions to guide thinking can help one to consider both emotions and technical information when evaluating an interpersonal problem. The ability to manage emotions should help individuals experience and express emotions that contribute to favorable social encounters, in part through emotional contagion (Halfield et al., 1994).

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, AFFECT, AND ATTITUDES

Describe important expectations (Parrott, 1993), people are usually motivated to seek pleasant feelings and avoid unpleasant feelings and avoid unpleasant emotions. The ability to manage emotions can help people nature positive effect, avoid being overwhelmed by negative effect, and cope with stress (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Other emotional abilities, such as perceiving and understanding emotions, also contribute indirectly to the quality of emotional experience by helping people to identify and interpret cues that inform self-regulatory action. Therefore emotional intelligence should contribute to positive affect and attitudes at work.

CONCLUSION

In this reviews have taken us some way toward appreciating the rich and varied emotional elements of organizations. They have challenged the conventional manage realist orthodoxy on stress and introduced us to critical theoretical perspectives that offer alternative ways to think about stress in organizations. They have provided a psychodynamic view of how leaders' unconscious emotional processes might influence organizational functioning. They have also dismantled the conventional views of organizational rationality and invited us to think differently about the gendered nature of emotion. In addition, we have a better understanding of how social hierarchy influences emotional labor in the workplace and how individuals are infected by and catch the emotional expressions of others. It provides a clue to other areas sorely in need of investigation such as the neglected issue of the everyday workplace emotions of employees and an analytical treatment of negative emotions (Domagalski, 1999). Apart from those emotions prescribed by organizations and subject to management control, there has been no systematic examination of everyday emotions experienced by and among employees in their daily routines and interactions with one another. There is so much to know about the range and intensity of feelings experienced and expressed by employees as they come together in the workplace, the strength and validity of the effects of emotional contagion and the implications this may have for group functioning, and the effects of power and status on felt and displayed emotions. This essay reviewed here has moved the discussion of emotions in organizations toward the front of the stage. It is now time to lift the curtain.

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