

Emotional Intelligence as a Key to High Performance Organizations: An Expository Analysis of the Literature

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The utility of emotional intelligence has been researched as both a discreet individual ability, and a performance enhancing quality within organizations. This expository analysis synthesizes the existing literature on the value and utility of emotional intelligence within organizations, focusing on enhanced ethics, improvement of leadership capabilities and outcomes, reduction of turnover, enhancement of cross-cultural understanding, reduction of stress, dispute resolution, and employee promotion. The origin and development of emotional intelligence as a behavioral theory is illustrated and its application to the organizational environment is systematically analyzed, with particular note of gaps in the literature and definitional difficulties identified.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, workplace ethics, employee wellbeing, workplace stressors, employee promotion, organizational leadership

INTRODUCTION

Emotional Intelligence is a theoretical construct for the individual ability to understand and utilize emotions to achieve preferred social or organizational outcomes and was first defined by researchers Mayer and Salovey (1990). Made popular in the corporate and business world by a popular series of books by Daniel Goleman (1995, 1998), the theory of emotional intelligence has become a highly relied-upon metric in the business community because of its relationship with applicant and employee leadership potential and organizational benefit in the hiring of management-level professionals (Blank, 2008; Papoutsi et al., 2019). Emotional intelligence has the added benefit of increasing job satisfaction and reducing burnout among employees in public service jobs (Lee, 2018). Because having emotional intelligence has the effect of reducing negative interactions in the workplace, it also significantly reduces employee turnover rates and thereby assists organizations in retaining talent (Bartock, 2019). This expository analysis of the literature focuses on the utility of emotional intelligence to organizations and the improvement of organizational performance and culture. This expository analysis discusses the social and behavioral scholarship that led to the development of emotional intelligence theory, criticism of emotional intelligence as a theoretical construct, and research findings on the value of emotional intelligence in the organizational workplace, in organizational leadership roles, and in career longevity. Finally, notable gaps in the literature are identified for the purpose of explaining why more research is necessary on the relationship between emotional intelligence and high-performance organizations.

A search of the phrase “emotional intelligence” in the EBSCOhost *Academic Search Complete* database returns 5,940 articles at the time of this writing, and the research is clearly multidisciplinary and

interdisciplinary in nature, with both quantitative and qualitative studies on emotional intelligence being published in such diverse journals as the *Journal of Applied Security and Research*, and the *Journal of Management in Engineering* (Adetula, 2016; Butler & Chinowsky, 2006).

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE THEORY

Scholars of human behavior and leadership have sought to understand the contours of the advantage that exists in having the ability to navigate relationships with other people with acumen (Walter et al., 2011). The psychologist David McClelland (1973) succinctly noted, "...to know what is going on in a social setting and to set the correct emotional tone for it are crucial life-outcome criteria" (p. 10). Our human ability or inability to establish high-quality social connections, interpretation of intended meanings, emotional understanding, and regulation of our own often irrational urges have a significant bearing on our ability to succeed in any endeavor requiring cooperation or interpersonal interaction, especially leadership (Van Der Zee & Wabke, 2004). Despite the difficulties of identifying, defining, and measuring these abilities, they have become known as emotional intelligence.

The theory of emotional intelligence was first developed by John Mayer and Peter Salovey (1990) as a framework for understanding the value of human emotional skills and abilities. The concept did not gain widespread attention outside of academia until Daniel Goleman's (1995) bestseller *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ* was published and sold millions of copies around the world. While Mayer and Salovey did not appreciate some of Goleman's arguable exaggerations of the theory's applicability, Goleman himself later became the developer of another academic strain of the theory, which is much cited today (Ackley, 2016; Goleman et al., 2001.) Organizational behavior and leadership researchers have invented many terms that are often inappropriately associated with emotional intelligence. One of the most frequently used, albeit vague, terms is "soft skills," which is not an academic theory with any rigorous definition (Matteson et al., 2016). Emotional intelligence can be distinguished from vague terminology because it constitutes a properly developed academic theory instead of popular self-help jargon (Van Rooy et al., 2005). While society has historically valued the concept of the rational intelligence quotient (IQ), as popularized by Lewis Terman's standardized IQ test from the early 20th Century, researchers have despaired at the narrowness of this formulation for measuring human potential (Terman, 1916; Goleman, 1995). In a classic refutation of the "IQ way of thinking," Howard Gardner (1983) conducted research that found IQ to be an unsuccessful predictor of performance over a spectrum of competencies and too narrow of a metric to be used outside of the most strictly cognitive areas of human life (p. 22). Ever since this departure from orthodoxy, researchers have been attempting to define precisely what these other extra-rational intelligences really are and how to define their contours and nuances (Plucker et al., 1996; Gardner, 1998). There is now broad consensus that the monolithic concept of rational intelligence as measured by the rational intelligence quotient is inadequate in explaining or predicting the superior levels of achievement, success, life satisfaction, and flourishing of individuals with roughly equal or even modestly inferior cognitive processing (Brackett et al., 2011).

As a theory, emotional intelligence is an attempt to answer that inadequacy. There are several experiences in our lives and careers that are best navigated not just with superior information processing but with the more delicate social traits of empathy and self-regulation (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Armstrong et al., 2011; Schutte & Malouff, 2011). These experiences include our physical health, romantic love, and interpersonal relationships (Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2005; Nelis et al., 2011). They involve our quickness to anger or resentment, ability to foresee and forestall dissension, and innate sense of self-worth (Jaffe et al., 2015; Dughi & Anton, 2012). These, and other nuanced facets of ability and character that are bolstered by emotional intelligence, play a prominent role in our ability to lead and serve in organizations.

Early Foundations

Historically, the concepts of rational intelligence and emotion were seen by academics as being in competition or even at direct odds with one another (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The epistemological philosopher Baruch Spinoza (1677) opined in his posthumous 17th Century treatise *Ethics* that human

thinking was layered with three facets of emotion, intellect, and intuition. He suggested that when emotions are dominant within this triad of layers, an individual may think erratically despite having a strong intellect, acting in ways that undermine harmonious relations with others. The ability to hold such emotions in check was, to Spinoza, crucial to a balanced cognition and good human relations.

Until the late 1960s, research on rational intelligence and emotions were largely separate endeavors (Davies et al., 1998). Despite this general separation, the importance of emotional balance and control and its connection with rational intelligence in shaping human behavior was noted repeatedly and for centuries. Early epistemologists such as Henry Noble Day (1877) and James Sully (1910) identified a relationship between emotional influences, rational thought, and how these factors combine to produce an individual's perception of the world. Even such notables as Sigmund Freud (1930) identified the importance of inhibiting the extremes of emotion to live a well-balanced life in his treatise *Civilization and its Discontents*, opining on the role of civil institutions such as law and religion to subdue and discourage the negative emotions of individuals.

The concept of emotional intelligence has more academically refined roots in the writing of Edward Thorndike (1920), who began to divide the monolithic idea of intelligence into sub-groups for discreet study: social intelligence, abstract intelligence, and mechanical intelligence. His definition for the sub-group of social intelligence is often referred to as an early, albeit dated, definition of what is called emotional intelligence today: "The ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls—to act wisely in human relations" (p. 228). One year later, Abraham Meyerson (1921) lucidly postulated, in a way that somewhat mirrors Spinoza's (1677) thinking, that an individual's response to antagonism is not based on intelligence alone or emotion alone, but on a combination of "emotional, instinctive, and intelligent responses" (p. 101). This idea was corroborated by educational researcher David MacKaye (1928), who identified that an individual's emotional composure, measured separately from intelligence, significantly affects productivity, teachability, good habits, and social stability. Finally, Philip Vernon (1933) offered an additional but essential ability in this regard: "...susceptibility to stimuli from other members of a group, as well as insight into the temporary moods or underlying personality traits of strangers" (p. 44).

Psychologist David Weschler (1943) staked out definitive ground for the influence of emotion as a separate factor in human thinking in his groundbreaking paper *Non-intellective Factors in General Intelligence*, published in the *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*. He distinguished between intelligence and intelligent behavior. His specific iteration of a definition was "...the global capacity to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (Weschler, 1944, p. 3). Since then, emotional intelligence has become an umbrella term for multiple distinct but similar theories that draw connections between mental and behavioral traits that are beneficial in fostering productive human interactions and behaviors.

Based on his understanding from Thorndike, Howard Gardner (1983) came to believe traditional intelligence, monolithically measured as an intelligence quotient (IQ), was really a combination of multiple different subtypes of intelligence and that contemporary IQ measurements might not consider the myriad types of intelligence relevant to success in life. He disparaged IQ tests as "...not sufficiently well-honed to allow assessment of an individual's potential or achievements..." (Gardner, 1983, p. 4). In response to this supposition, Gardner (1983, 1993) developed his theory of multiple intelligences and essentially expanded Thorndike's (1920) original division of intelligence sub-groups from three to seven: a) mathematical-logical intelligence; b) verbal intelligence; c) kinesthetic intelligence; d) spatial intelligence; e) musical intelligence; f) intrapersonal intelligence; g) interpersonal intelligence. Later he added natural intelligence as an eighth measure (Gardner, 1995). Importantly to developing future emotional intelligence theories, he split social intelligence into the two sub-groups of intrapersonal and interpersonal. This division of ability at social interaction based on internal self-reflection and external identification of the emotions of others is foundational to later theories (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). By breaking down the monolithic idea of intelligence into component parts, Gardner is credited with spurring research into the component parts of intelligence in a way that eventually led to emotional intelligence theory.

The Ability Based Emotional Intelligence Model

Salovey and Mayer are credited as the developers of the first true emotional intelligence theory, the architect of the term “emotional intelligence” as a standalone concept, and the inventors of the primary measurement instrument for emotional intelligence. According to Goleman (2006), Salovey and Mayer “...could not have envisioned how the scholarly field they founded would be thriving” in later years (p. xii). In their widely cited original paper on the concept, Salovey and Mayer (1990) asserted that individuals experience affective and cognitive information in their interpersonal interactions. While traditional measures of rational intelligence may assist researchers in understanding the value of processing cognitive information, there must be a separate definition and measurement for processing affective information.

From this premise, they developed the original strain of emotional intelligence theory, known today as the ability-based model, and defined emotional intelligence as “...the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). In their continued development of the concept, Salovey and Mayer (1997) later refined the definition to “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (p. 10). Their final and most recent refinement of the definition is pithier: “...the processes involved in the recognition, use, understanding, and management of one’s own and others’ emotional states to solve emotion-laden problems and to regulate behavior” (Salovey et al., 2004, p. iv).

Salovey and Mayer credit the prior work done by Gardner (1983) in directly influencing their theory because his conception of the personal intelligences of interpersonal and intrapersonal social intelligence was so defined as to encompass most abilities associated with the processing of affective information (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The academic lineage of the ability-based model also owes much to prior research showing that an individual’s mood or emotional disposition positively correlated with thinking and judgment (Mayer & Bremer, 1985; Palfai & Salovey, 1994; Salovey & Birnbaum, 1989).

In their initial development of the theory, Salovey and Mayer cited interdisciplinary research on the relationship between emotion and thought, such as that done by Bower (1981) and Zajonc (1980). Ability-based emotional intelligence is based on the idea that intelligence takes a form that goes beyond the capability of intense cognition and that the nimbleness with which some individuals manage their own emotions and others’ emotions is also a significant factor in successful human interactions (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005). Salovey and Mayer assert that individuals with high overall emotional intelligence can more successfully navigate relationships, manage people and complex social environments, and overcome adversity (Salovey et al., 2004). Mere rational intelligence is valuable in terms of the mental processing required for complex information. Still, it does not necessarily make a person more or less able to function in a complex social environment with any level of coherence, whereas emotional intelligence does (Cherniss, 2010). The combination of emotional understanding and application of logical reasoning is a decisive advantage in manufacturing preferred outcomes in any social setting (George, 2000).

The Salovey and Mayer model became known as the ability-based model to distinguish it from an array of other models that came afterward, less strictly based on emotion-related skills. The authors are particularly critical of Goleman’s (1995) widely-read summaries of their research and the strain of emotional intelligence theory spawned by Goleman’s (1998) expansion of the idea into what has been termed the competency-based model, which encompasses a broader range of attributes that go beyond mere ability and stray into workplace competencies. Mayer and Salovey defend their original theory for its rigor in sticking to a narrow four-segment set of abilities: specifically (a) accurately perceiving and expressing emotion, (b) using emotion to facilitate cognitive activities, (c) understanding emotions, and (d) managing emotions for emotional and personal growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). They believe their four-branch conceptualization maintains clarity by not involving extraneous or more ephemeral measures such as optimism, initiative, and self-awareness within the umbrella concept of emotional intelligence (Salovey et al., 2004). While they do not disparage the relevancy of these personality traits, they encourage that “they are better addressed directly and as distinct from ability EI” (Salovey et al., 2004, p. v). By keeping abilities separate from traits, they posit, measures of emotional intelligence can better help researchers distinguish

between the value of those abilities as opposed to “traditional personality attributes” (p. ii). The Salovey and Mayer (1990) model is comprised of four mental ability areas in particular: (a) emotional perception and expression, (b) assimilation of emotion in thinking, (c) understanding and analyzing emotion, and (d) regulation of emotion through reflection. The authors emphasize that their model assumes that emotional intelligence is a true mental intelligence, not unlike spatial intelligence or verbal intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

The Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

After Mayer and Salovey developed the ability-based theory of emotional intelligence, the concept attracted the attention of myriad researchers who put their own twist on the theory (Van Rooy et al., 2005). After studying Darwin’s (1872) writings on emotional expression within animals, clinical psychologist Reuven Bar-On (1997; 2006; 2010) developed emotional-social intelligence theory based on the idea that a combination of interpersonal and intrapersonal emotional understanding is human behavior's building blocks. Bar-On’s (1997) original inquiry in the field was to answer the question of why some individuals are more able to succeed in life than others. He defined emotional intelligence as “...interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands” (Bar-On, 2006, p. 22). This mixed model approach goes beyond mere ability and expands the Salovey and Mayer approach to emotional intelligence to include gradually accumulated mood and personality traits (Bar-On et al., 2000). Because of its emphasis on mood traits, the Bar-On metric for emotional intelligence is most often used when the capacities for happiness and satisfaction within the social or organizational environment are being measured concerning an individual’s emotional intelligence.

Bar-on places heavy emphasis on the importance of judgment in making decisions and having a judgment that is informed not just by cold, calculating logic but also by the more raw and intangible information that only emotion can convey (DiFabio et al., 2012). The Bar-On (1997) model comprises, and attempts to measure, the following five broad areas of inquiry: (a) intrapersonal communication, (b) interpersonal communication, (c) stress management, (d) adaptability to situations, and (e) mood. Unlike the ability-based model, each area of inquiry this mixed-model has several subcategories nested within the larger areas of skill or trait.

The Competency-Based Mixed Model

Golman’s (1995) research was mainly based on the research conducted by Salovey and Mayer, but his particular twist on the theory resulted in the generation of the competency-based theory, where the ability of emotional intelligence is combined with other factors such as personality traits and areas of workplace competence, to generate a more extensive and more trait-inclusive theory. This model has been extensively utilized in the business sector for its utility in hiring managers and leaders who embody a broad and deep mix of traits that are useful in managing people and leading an organization toward its objectives. Research by Goleman and Boyatzis (2008) shows that emotional intelligence in the context of the workplace may be crucial to rank promotion and career success generally.

Goleman eventually became the emotional intelligence concept’s de-facto explainer to the layman (Goleman, 1995; Goleman, 1998; Goleman 2001; Goleman, 2011). He described emotional intelligence as more important in career success even than intelligence quotient (IQ). He considered it to be more crucial the higher within an organization a leader reached during their career (Goleman & Cherniss, 2000). Goleman posits that emotional intelligence is a learned competency that can increase with age in the same sense as wisdom, and that individuals can be trained to increase their emotional intelligence within conveniently short periods of time (Goleman, 1998). This formulation of emotional intelligence is most applicable to the workplace because of the focus on competency instead of potential. What matters in an immediate sense within an organization or place of work is a person’s current mastery of specific capabilities within the emotional intelligence umbrella.

While Goleman’s (1995) initial foray into emotional intelligence was in the form of a non-peer-reviewed popular book, his competency-based theory was developed in the more traditional and peer-

reviewed scholarly manner in collaboration with behavioral researcher Richard Boyatzis (Boyatzis et al., 1999). The Goleman (1995) model incorporates five different skill areas: (a) knowing your own emotions, (b) managing your own emotions, (c) motivation, (d) recognizing others' emotions, and (e) managing relationships. Each of these five skill areas has multiple subdomains, and the definitions of each grouping and subgrouping contain jargon relating to the business or workplace environment.

The Trait Based Model

Petrides (2001) was a significant critic of prior emotional intelligence theories, contending that they relied excessively on colloquial language, stereotypes and had shortcomings in scientific validity. Petrides (2001) focuses instead on the subjective experience of emotion and the consequences of such experiences. He distinguishes his trait-based model from the ability-based model by utilizing a subjective self-report methodology rather than an objective assessment of ability. While an ability-based assessment may have advantages in determining an individual's emotion-related cognitive skills, the trait-based assessment has an advantage in measuring an individual's self-perception of their own abilities, whether these abilities are strictly cognitive or come from other domains such as personality distinctions.

Criticisms of Emotional Intelligence Theory

The most common criticism in terms of concept validity and overall coherence of emotional intelligence is that different scholars have proposed multiple overlapping and sometimes conflicting definitions, and these competing theories often have quite variable subcomponents ranging anywhere from four areas of emotional, mental ability (the Salovey and Mayer model) to as many as 25 categories of abilities, traits, and competencies (the Goleman model). Some later researchers, such as Gignac (2010), have proposed their own even further modified definitions of the concept and even proposed dividing emotional intelligence into aspect parts such as maximal and typical versions of emotional intelligence. Part of the reason for having so many overlapping models is that emotional intelligence has been a prevalent topic in academic literature for the past two decades (Averill, 2004). This somewhat convoluted history in the theoretical literature is not necessarily unusual for any theory involving human behavior, but it can be troublesome when different theories and instruments are being used to study the value of emotional intelligence across various settings without using consistent metrics, definitions, or even consistent measurement instruments.

One meta-analysis concluded that emotional intelligence is conceived differently by a multitude of different researchers who have tended to trust their own outline of the concept more than those who came to the topic before them (Van Rooy et al., 2005). Early criticisms indicated that emotional intelligence might simply be a term that restates already existing ideas in a new way as opposed to being a new theory and that further research on emotional intelligence should be abandoned (Eysenck, 1998). More temperate criticisms include the claim that while the original ability-based model was sound and adequately limited to the realm of cognitive abilities, each of the mixed models that came after it too loosely involved a long list of preferable behavioral traits, moods, and dispositions into their models in such an expansive way as to dilute any utility for the theory in rigorous research (Van Rooy et al., 2005; Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000; Mayer, et al., 1999; Salovey, et al., 2004). Indeed, one pair of respected researchers in the field of behavior and leadership felt compelled to write a peer-reviewed commentary lambasting the mixed model approach of Bar-On (2006) and Goleman (2005) as so inclusive in their scope that they should not properly be considered emotional intelligence theories but instead be categorized as a behavioral inventory model (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2003). While these models may still have some utility in helping organizations find employees with preferred traits, their instrumentation does not lend itself to coherent research (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2003). Gignac (2010) has also critiqued both Goleman (2005) and Bar-On (2006) for not providing the reliability scores of their instruments in the technical manuals for their custom-developed survey instruments, expressing concern that having dissimilar scaling within the instruments would make the resulting net score across all subsections less useful for research. Gignac (2010) additionally disparages unnamed "champions of the EI concept" for making "arguably outlandish claims," which is likely a criticism of Goleman in particular for his claim that emotional intelligence is universally more important than IQ (p. 1). Goleman has also been criticized for his emphasis on non-cognitive criteria within his theory,

in particular his including of such ephemeral concepts as “zeal,” “persistence,” and “awareness,” as part of the emotional intelligence sub-skills within his conception (Perloff, 1997).

The original ability-based model of emotional intelligence has not been immune to criticism, even though it has been far less subject to critique in the academic literature. Criticisms of the ability-based model have typically been criticisms of the overall concept of grouping any number of abilities into one general term. One counterproposal to the four-part ability-based model has been to dispense with studying the attributes measured and to develop a “multipolar” research model where each ability contained within the emotional intelligence umbrella is researched completely separately, parsed out for discreet study (Matthews et al., 2012). Salovey and Mayer are receptive to and fairly address many of these criticisms, admitting that the theory needs further study in terms of what emotional intelligence can predict about human behavior, its relationship to other intelligences, whether it is a learnable ability, and how it is best measured across diverse demographics and cultures (Mayer et al., 2004, p. 211).

In fact, Salovey and Mayer positively despair that the theory they developed and the phrase they coined has become retooled and redefined by so many subsequent scholars in a way that they never envisioned and certainly did not endorse (Mayer et al., 2004.) Almost begging others in the field to come back to the basics, they say, “...keeping EI restricted to an ability model that strictly focuses on emotion-related processing makes it possible to analyze the degree to which EI specifically contributes to a person’s behavior over and above traditional personality traits” (Salovey et al., 2004, p. ii). Daus and Ashkanazy (2003) defend the ability-based model by distinguishing it from the other complementary and competing theories. They posit that a properly rigorous theory would have four main qualities: a non-self-report methodology that measures skills instead of perceptions, a focus on ability, not behaviors, simple and brief construction and definition, and distinct scalar measurability (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2003). In their view, the Salovey and Mayer model meets these criteria and may even be the only conception of emotional intelligence that was formed in a manner that is not “disturbing” for being too based on corporate research or ideas developed in popular books (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2003, p. 70).

UTILITY TO ORGANIZATIONS

Emotional Intelligence and Ethical Behavior

Professionals among a wide array of specializations encounter ethical dilemmas on a frequent basis and emotional intelligence aids in resolving these dilemmas. Ethical decision-making occurs within a spectrum of ethical development ranging from obedience and compliance at the lowest levels, concern for human needs and equity at the conventional levels, and transcendence of authority in light of universal principles of justice at the most developed level (Kohlberg, 1984). Ethical challenges can be both abstract and situational and grappled with on either an individual or organizational level (Rubin et al., 2005). Because of the relationship between personal ethics and organizational ethics, a great body of research on ethical leadership has been produced in recent years, studying the effect of individual ethical or unethical decisions on organizational ethics and vice versa.

A number of these studies have shown that when organizational leaders and members of any level possess emotional intelligence, the overall effect on organizational ethical behavior is at least modestly improved (Marques et al., 2011; Fu, 2014). One such study, focusing on the role of emotional intelligence on individual ethics within an organization showed that high EI individuals self-report engaging in fewer unethical behaviors, that high EI individuals are more capable of gauging the ethics of others, and that high EI individuals are more likely than others to be seen by their peers as ethical individuals (Cabral et al., 2014). When survey participants were given an emotional intelligence test and a test of ethical competence, there was a statistically significant correlation between scoring high and scoring low on both indexes, showing that emotional intelligence and ethical competence are linked (Dangmei & Singh, 2017).

A high incidence of ethical misconduct causes symptoms within organizations such as increased employee attrition, poor customer retention, constituency disaffection, diminished organizational reputation, and decreased organizational commitment by employees and leaders (Mahanta & Gaswami, 2020). Research has shown that individuals with higher levels of emotional intelligence display greater

levels of self-awareness as determined by self-report, greater levels of interpersonal connectivity as determined by the self-reported size of their personal and professional network, and that EI has a predictive relationship with workplace ethics as determined by a standardized ethical competence questionnaire (Singh, 2011). Among managers, the predictive quality of emotional intelligence on ethical behaviors is significant, according to a study that simulated a live ethical judgment activity for MBA students who were also presently in management positions (Angelidis & Ibrahim, 2011). A later survey-based study of MBA students confirmed this finding, showing a correlation between those who scored higher on an EI scale and the subjective ethical value of their open-ended responses in three separate hypothetical scenarios (Hopkins, 2018).

The relationship between emotional intelligence and ethics was discussed in Daniel Goleman's book that broke emotional intelligence theory into the mainstream popular culture. Goleman explained that the roots of ethics are in the twin paradigms of empathy and altruism: both of which are human traits encouraged, fostered, and grown through emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995, p. 105). The simple yet delicate act of gently letting down a colleague to avoid hurting their feelings or keeping a nominally low-value promise to maintain feelings of trust - these are displays of empathy that may not equally occur to or seem important to individuals across the spectrum of emotional variation. Possessing emotional intelligence, including the mental capacity to foresee how an action will have feeling-based consequences on others, and to prognosticate the nature of such feeling-based consequences accurately, is of vital importance to maintaining high-quality relationships with others (Goleman, 1995). Even listening with intentionality signals to others that their words are considered valuable and crucial in building rapport, calming distress, and building friendships (Goleman, 1995).

Goleman cites John Stuart Mill's theorization on the topic of "empathic anger" as evidence of the intertwined nature of empathy and ethics, whereby a person feels genuine mental anguish and urges for revenge when they witness or otherwise learn about an injustice that takes place against others whom they care about (Goleman, 1995, p. 105). Mill refers to this arousal of the emotions in righteous anger as the "guardian of justice" inherent in the mind of most human beings, defending the concept of moral outrage as a productive and valuable facet of human nature (Hoffman, 2000, p. 96). After all, the beneficiaries of this moral empathic anger are, in theory, victims in need of our aid or care (Lindebaum & Geddes, 2016). Intervention by one person to the aid of another who is suffering an injustice is guided and perhaps even triggered by this sense of indignation. This feeling may be weaker in low emotional intelligence individuals (Aybek et al., 2015).

For individuals in organizational leadership positions, the delicate balance of mental exertion and emotional dexterity requires an "alignment of body, spirit, and mind" (Brown & Moshavi, 2005). Negative emotions, in particular, can poison this alignment and lead to poor ethical decision-making. Research conducted at North Dakota State University shed light on the power of negative emotions and their relationship with ethics in a study that focused specifically on the negative emotions of sadness and anger and their consequent effects on ethical dilemmas (Krishnakumar & Rymph, 2012). The experimental study showed that sadness and anger separately, and especially in combination, had a statistically significant effect in reducing an individual's ability to make ethical determinations, and furthermore that there was a correlation with the presence of these negative emotions and low emotional intelligence generally (Krishnakumar & Rymph, 2012). Other research, particularly in the area of organizational and business management, has shown that scoring high on a trait assessment, including variables such as judgment and integrity, often does not have the same level of correlation with ethical decision making as having high levels of emotional intelligence, meaning that possessing good intentions alone without an accompanying emotional awareness and understanding may not be enough to promulgate the soundest ethical decisions (Holian, 2006).

One experimental study explored the ethical issue of intentional dishonesty, exposing a potential dark side to emotional intelligence (Pittarello et al., 2018). Participants were challenged to choose between personally benefiting from dishonesty versus keeping a positive self-image through a mock card game. This study tracked the psychological arousal of the participants through scientific tracking mechanisms for heart rate and skin conductance and produced results showing that participants with higher levels of emotional

intelligence, as measured by a separate questionnaire, were less affected in their ethical choices by their physiological reactions. This ability to resist the shame associated with unethical behavior means that individuals who have a greater capacity to control and channel their emotions may also have a greater capacity to overcome the stress and psychological burden of dishonesty (Pittarello et al., 2018). This potential dark side of emotional intelligence was originally put into stark relief in a paper entitled “*The Jekyll and Hyde of Emotional Intelligence*” by widely recognized EI researcher Stéphane Côté at the University of Toronto. Côté explains that high levels of emotional intelligence mean that an individual has not only a greater understanding of their own emotions and the emotions of others but also a corollary understanding of how to manipulate the emotions of others and intentionally mask their own emotive qualities (Côté et al., 2011). Because one of the many rationales for regulation and channeling of emotion is to achieve personal goals, we need not assume that all goals that utilize emotional understanding are virtuous goals. The furtherance of interpersonal deviance, manifesting as exploiting and manipulating emotions, is a potential malevolent way for high EI individuals to navigate the world (Côté et al., 2011).

In fact, two separate studies have demonstrated that individuals with higher scores on emotional intelligence tests may also have more pronounced narcissistic tendencies and therefore may correlate with these individuals treating others in unethical ways or in a manner that selfishly benefits only themselves (Petrides et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2015). The first of these studies was a genetic study where phenotypes were sought for the hallmarks of narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy. The resulting data show that narcissism was correlated with high emotional intelligence test scores while the other two traits were not (Petrides et al., 2011). The second study was an investigation about potential causes of loneliness and produced a statistically significant finding that emotional intelligence was inversely correlated with psychopathy but positively correlated with narcissism (Zhang et al., 2015).

It should be noted that in many of the studies highlighting an ethical drawback to emotional intelligence, high EI individuals often also exhibit other traits or abilities that may independently cause poor ethical behavior. For example, when one study found high emotional intelligence in men to be a reliable predictor of emotional manipulation, the tendency to manipulate the emotions of others was most pronounced in individuals who also exhibited high levels of indirect aggression and high levels of social information processing (Grieve & Panebianco, 2013). For women, high EI was correlated with emotional manipulation but was most pronounced when accompanied by the separate trait of being younger in age (Grieve & Panebianco, 2013). These discoveries indicate that emotional intelligence can be used as a tool for either virtuous or malicious ends, and while it seems the majority of research indicates a correlation between EI and ethical behavior, there may yet be certain other overpowering traits such as narcissism or manipulative intentions whereby EI can be corrupted for socially discouraged endeavors (Davis & Nichols, 2016).

The ability to use one’s greater understanding of emotions, the perceptiveness of emotions, and the intuitive ability to nudge the emotions of others in varying directions, can manifest under certain circumstances as a talent and increased desire for selfish deception. Individuals with high emotional intelligence and high intellectual/cognitive intelligence have been shown to be statistically more likely to intentionally fake their self-report measures on aptitude tests to make themselves appear ideal for specific jobs (Tett et al., 2012). Another study showed that highly emotionally intelligent individuals were more capable of simulating emotions they did not possess by making more convincing facial expressions and a greater capacity to persist in this deception for a longer time without breaking composure (Porter et al., 2011). Since the management of one’s own emotions and the ability to influence the emotions of others can be a highly valuable ability in negotiations, this offers another opportunity for emotional intelligence to be utilized as a tool to achieve selfish ends. Research has shown that emotional intelligence is correlated with a greater willingness and tendency to display aggressive conflict management techniques if such techniques could result in preferred negotiation goals (Moeller & Kwantes, 2015).

The importance of an ethical component in emotional intelligence is apparent in research-based interventions to improve emotional intelligence, especially when considering that some individuals can utilize EI for nefarious purposes. For example, an intervention attempting to improve EI in female children in order to achieve the intended effect of improving academic success may have pure intentions. Such an intervention’s potential for success would be backed up by prior research (Parker et al., 2004). However,

these pure intentions must be tempered with the knowledge that, for example, in young adulthood, women with higher EI also exhibit higher rates of delinquent behavior, specifically the types of behaviors that take advantage of others through manipulation or lying (Bacon et al., 2014).

Helpfully, researchers specializing in neurobiology and human morality have analyzed the question of why many individuals with high EI exhibit higher standards of ethical behavior while some exhibit lower standards of ethical behavior. When children are raised in a traumatic or neglectful environment, their cognitive priors for the value of their abilities, including the ability of EI, are often substantially different than the cognitive priors of children who were not raised in a traumatic or neglectful environment (Narvaez, 2014). This nuance may account for a large variation between those with higher levels of emotional intelligence, nonetheless exhibiting vastly different ethical behaviors. When children experience the world as an unsafe place, it stands to reason they would prioritize, consciously or not, their own safety and needs as opposed to prosocial behaviors. This variance in behavior due to different life circumstances may manifest as acting in ways not typically associated with EI, even when the individual has high EI, such as acting submissively, aggressively in preemptive defense, or passively to avoid interaction (Garaigordobil & Pena-Sarrionandia, 2015).

General Benefits of Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace

Since the development of multiple emotional intelligence theories and metrics, a considerable amount of research has been conducted comparing performance on the various metrics to other qualities in the human experience and the workplace (Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2002; Wolff, 2002; Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Lopes et al., 2006). Where there may be disagreement about the precise definition of emotional intelligence or whether it should encompass abilities, personalities, traits, or competencies, there is broad agreement that having emotional intelligence has been proven valuable in employment. Emotional intelligence has been positively correlated with mental health and psychological wellbeing (Bracket et al., 2011). It has been positively correlated with the development of healthy relationships and the avoidance of destructive behaviors such as drug abuse, alcohol abuse, and smoking (Bracket et al., 2004; Ghee & Johnson, 2008; Peterson et al., 2011). In the workplace, their colleagues rated individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence as having high leadership potential, greater capability in handling stress, and high levels of interpersonal communication ability (Bracket et al., 2011). Emotional intelligence has been shown to be especially valuable in workplace conditions with higher expectations of emotional labor due to such individuals experiencing less stress and fewer complaints (Mikolajczak et al., 2007).

Higher emotional intelligence has positively correlated with effectiveness in resolving conflicts and navigating disagreeable situations (Salovey et al., 2004; Goleman, 1998). Perhaps more impressively, emotional intelligence has also been associated with a greater eagerness to be collaborative, refusal to use forceful attitudes, and less likelihood of avoidance behaviors (Jordan & Troth, 2002). When a team of high emotional intelligence was compared against a similarly situated team of lower emotional intelligence on a problem-solving project, research showed that the higher EI team performed with almost zero conflict, whereas the lower EI team exhibited at least modest levels of conflict (Jordan & Troth, 2004). More recent research has corroborated the theory that emotional intelligence is a crucial predictor of success in problem-solving, particularly in teams (Arefnasab & Babamahoodi, 2012).

The value of EI across multiple distinct professions has been illustrated through multitudinous studies within specific industries across the globe. A study involving thirty-six account officers employed by a debt collection agency showed that the account officers with higher emotional intelligence achieved a statistically significantly greater amount of cash in collections over the same period of time than those with lower emotional intelligence (Bachman, 2000). A study involving 56 Slovenian business managers and executives and another 88 other high-level employees showed greater work satisfaction, career productivity, peer satisfaction in interactions, and tendencies toward cooperation in the workplace, for those with higher EI (Bostjancic, 2010). A study across 135 Catholic parishes found that those parishes managed by priests with higher EI had greater measures of parishioner satisfaction and other organizational outcomes such as improved service attendance and the number and size of donations (Boyatzis, 2011). A study involving 53 entrepreneurs in Italy, each of whom owned and managed small firms, showed that those

entrepreneurs with higher levels of EI had higher levels of firm financial performance (Camuffo, 2012). A study collecting data from 86 separate software development projects found a relationship between the level of EI possessed by the software development teams for each project and the resulting market success and software functionality for their product (Günsel, 2013). A study of 289 telemarketers across three different call centers in the United Kingdom showed a relationship between EI and sales performance and that employees with lower EI levels had higher attrition rates resulting in training and productivity inefficiencies (Higgs, 2004). A small pilot study of EI in the profession of psychotherapy showed a relationship between higher EI and therapist-rated outcomes, as well as lower patient drop-out rates (Kaplowitz et al., 2011). A study involving 120 nurses working in surgical and orthopedic specialties showed that nurses with higher EI were more likely to score higher on a patient survey of the nurse's caring behaviors, including treating patients with dignity, attentiveness in conversation, and respectfulness in regard to clinical embarrassment, spiritual beliefs, and spending the appropriate amount of time to explain procedures and medications (Rego, 2010). Further evidence exists of emotional intelligence benefits to job performance across industries as diverse as sales (Rozell et al., 2006), multinational business (Siegling et al., 2014), public organizations (Shih & Susanto, 2010), retail management (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002), and casino gaming (Prentice & King, 2013).

Emotional intelligence has been shown to reduce aggressive behaviors and, to some extent, explain why such variation in aggressive behavior exists at all (Garcia-Sancho et al., 2017; Lemerise & Arsenio, 2000). Finally, a relationship has been found between emotional intelligence and intentions of finding mutually satisfactory agreements in mediation and willingness to use multiple time-consuming techniques to arrive at such an agreement (Boland & Ross, 2010).

Emotional Intelligence and Workplace Stressors

While we may often think of stress as an individual phenomenon, behavioral and organizational researchers also recognize a phenomenon called organizational stressors. Colloquially, we might call this the classic "toxic work environment." Indeed, one of the foremost scholars on organizational stressors, Cary Cooper (1995), has referred to the phenomenon as the "Black Plague" of the developed and modern professional world (p. 38). Among workers reporting high levels of stress, data on workplace absenteeism shows that a majority of stress-related workplace absences are not for the purpose of sick days or planned vacations but are rationalized by the need to explicitly avoid workplace stressors (Elkin & Rosch, 1990). The broad trends of these stressors include heavy workload, the incremental addition of new tasks, insufficient training, and social/industrial phenomena such as the development of new technologies, globalization, bureaucracy, employee stratification, and the introduction of metrics-driven employee performance oversight (Burke & Cooper, 2006). More narrowly and directly, organizational stressors include the physical demands, pressure of deadlines, decision fatigue, emotional friction with co-workers or supervisors, and coping with making mistakes (Cooper et al., 2001).

To a greater extent today, employees have their day-to-day productive qualities in the workplace analyzed, measured, and compared to arbitrary standards or industry medians. Additionally, the implementation of technologies over time has a cumulative effect whereby an individual hired for a particular role twenty years prior would not have recognized the same workplace if transported immediately to the modern-day. Ironically, one of the most intense workplace stressors is the demands of supervisors for their employees to feign happiness or joy toward others, including customers, despite other demands causing conflicting emotions (Shaubroeck & Jones, 2000). This type of emotional labor, especially alongside other stressors, can have an overall deleterious effect on positive feelings over time.

A major study funded by the National Institutes of Health showed that workplace stress might be the most powerful source of stress in the lives of individuals, surpassing all the other causes (health, family, and personal challenges) in both frequency of stress source and quantity of overall stressful feelings (Yamani et al., 2014). This same study showed that individuals with medium to high levels of emotional intelligence had a greater ability to cope with organizational stressors than those who possessed lower levels of emotional intelligence. Importantly, the higher levels of EI in this study did not just have a relationship with the presence and utilization of coping mechanisms, and it also had a relationship with lower feelings

of stress overall (Yamani et al., 2014). This type of research confirms Goleman's (1995; 1998) hypothesis that emotionally intelligent individuals are better prepared and better able to cope with the wide range of challenges presented in the workplace environment. Emotional intelligence has a facilitating quality between the individual and their occupational environment, whether that environment is particularly social or not. While emotional intelligence is valuable in perceiving and understanding the emotions of others, the internal side of emotional intelligence as a construct is the individual ability to understand and manage one's own emotions, and in a practical sense, this can manifest as coping, emotional stoicism, and the intentional generation of happiness through triggers and planning (Davis et al., 2010).

It may sound like mere wishful thinking that one can intentionally modify their own emotional feelings or generate emotional feelings on purpose to compel themselves to change their own behavior, attitudes, and physical actions - however, these abilities have been used for centuries by individuals on a regular basis. The ability is called "psychological tuning," according to its foremost explainer, interdisciplinary researcher Jamil Zaki (Zaki & Cikara, 2015, p. 473; Zaki, 2019, p. 38). Individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence can nudge or regulate their emotions in a certain direction with various self-induced stimuli. One rather shocking example of this was revealed when Israeli citizens compared to a control group were exposed to literature relating the lived experience of Palestinians in the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, whereby after consuming this literature, they were more likely than the control group to advocate (via survey instrument) for more pro-peace policies (Halperin et al., 2013). A more commonplace example of this psychological tuning or intentionally applied emotional stimuli takes place when an individual plays angry music (as opposed to cheerful music or no music at all) prior to playing in a football game, in order to ramp up their emotional tendency toward competitive feelings (Ford et al., 2018), or when an individual recently diagnosed with cancer intentionally focuses their mind on treatment plans and the love of their family instead of the prospect of death, in order to avoid depressive episodes (Wang et al., 2014).

The outcome of workplace stressor impact on employees can be tremendous and life-changing, or worse, life-ending. The negative effects do not stop at the time clock, affecting the employee's interaction with their family, their physical health, mental health, and even the likelihood of developing numerous types of diseases, especially cardiovascular complications caused by the stress-induced constriction of blood vessels and their net effect on blood pressure (Kivimäki & Kawachi, 2015). Fortunately, research has shown that emotional intelligence has an inverse relationship with workplace stress, enabling individuals with moderate to high levels of EI to either cope with organizational stressors with greater success or absorb the same stressors with a lower negative effect, including fewer negative symptoms. High EI individuals have been shown to have a greater likelihood of developing coping mechanisms and having greater success at utilizing those coping mechanisms at reducing their stress levels (Ogińska-Bulik, 2005). High EI individuals have additionally been shown to register higher on assessments of their own understanding of coping mechanisms available, a greater sense of clarity on the nature of the sources of stress, and a greater ability to moderate their reaction to the sources of stress (Simarjeet & Sriparna, 2018). The moderating effect of EI has played a major role in the research literature as an area where the benefits of EI are transformational. High EI individuals are more likely than similarly situated individuals to develop a sense of personal ownership and connection to their labor, including identifying with the labor as a personal mission, rather than merely a necessary evil (Extremera et al., 2018). This sense of personal connection with one's labor, tying the difficulties of the work to a larger mission, results in a tendency among the individual to see hardship overcome as a point of pride, satisfaction, and relief as opposed to a source of resentment, disparagement, or consternation (Mérida-López et al., 2018).

Emotional Intelligence and Cross-Cultural Understanding

The traits of intercultural competence and cross-cultural understanding are linked with emotional intelligence, especially for individuals with high proficiency in the emotional intelligence areas of understanding emotions and perceiving emotions (Crowne, 2013; Gabel et al., 2005; Lin, Chen & Song, 2012). To understand emotions means that an individual can identify the underlying causes of emotions, how and why emotions change, and how emotions affect behavior (Salovey et al., 2002). To perceive

emotions means that an individual can identify feelings and thoughts and discriminate between honest and dishonest expressions of emotions or moods (Salovey et al., 2002).

In one study where negotiation transcripts of 124 American and East Asian business negotiators were coded for traits of cultural intelligence (also known as CQ), researchers identified that the highest CQ performers within the study also had high levels of emotional intelligence and empathetic traits (Imai & Gelfand, 2010). Similar research findings have corroborated this research in various settings. Researchers who studied college students' ability to communicate effectively in a diverse classroom setting found a correlation between degrees of emotional intelligence and effective intercultural communication (Washington, 2013). One interesting study showed that emotional intelligence assists with intercultural communication partly because it reduces apprehension about such communication, thereby making the intercultural dialogue less anxiety-inducing (Fall, 2013). Further research has shown that emotional intelligence is an element in the facilitation of constructive cooperation that is necessary by parties taking part in intercultural interaction, largely because of the relationship between EI and the personal characteristics of self-confidence, self-awareness, and motivation (Iaburova, 2017). In a related discovery, emotional intelligence has been found to assist with the intercultural adjustment period for individuals who are adapting to new surroundings or being immersed in a new culture (Shmueli-Gabel, 2005).

In regard to workplace interpersonal relationships, emotional intelligence has been shown to have utility in the development of mutually beneficial goals and objectives with colleagues, encouraging positive feelings about the importance of work projects and initiatives, the maintenance of enthusiasm generally, and engendering trust with co-workers including supervisors and subordinates (George, 2000). There may also be an additional benefit of EI in assisting individuals' contribution toward the establishment of a meaningful identity for their place of employment and a net effect, across all these interpersonal utilities, of burnishing an individual's ability to lead within an organization with a greater level of efficacy (George, 2000). When multiple individuals within a work-related team or group have high levels of emotional intelligence, performance increased in part due to the reciprocal effect of positive interpersonal interactions between these employees, producing higher levels of in-team trust, higher density friendships among work colleagues, and greater levels of interpersonal communication on non-work topics among co-workers (Zhang et al., 2020).

Anger Management and Dispute Resolution

Aristotle wrote, "Anybody can become angry, that is easy; but to be angry with the right person, and to the right degree, and at the right time, and for the right purpose, and in the right way, that is not within everybody's power..." (Aristotle, 310 B.C./1984). Multiple studies have determined emotional intelligence to play a crucial role in anger management and de-escalating fractious interactions among individuals. Anger, as a particularly negative and powerful emotion, can play a role in the destruction and degradation of professional and personal relationships, loss of influence and happiness in personal interactions, as well as a deciding role in law enforcement infractions determinations of misconduct, and termination from police personnel. Anger management, as a skill or ability, is about more than merely controlling and inhibiting one's own emotions. Instead, anger management is best understood as the skill or ability to express anger when useful, inhibiting expressions of anger when not useful, suppressing one's own feelings of anger when appropriate, and finally, understanding and manipulating the anger of others for constructive purposes.

As an emotive expression, anger is found more frequently among individuals who exhibit higher levels of mental neuroticism and lower levels of agreeableness (Garcia-Sancho et al., 2017). Importantly, among individuals with either low or high levels of neuroticism or agreeableness, emotional intelligence plays a moderating role in the emotive expression of anger, with the anger still present but manifesting in far less physical and intimidating forms (Garcia-Sancho et al., 2017). This buffer or behavior-moderating role for emotional intelligence can be exploited in multiple forms in extremely varied human spaces such as schools, athletics, workplaces, and family life. For an academic-setting example, in an extensive three-year study, researchers found that emotional intelligence training over a prolonged period of time for an experimental group of students, compared to a control group, resulted in fewer instances of verbal aggression, physical aggression, feelings of anger, feelings of hostility, and misbehavior infractions in general (Castillo-Gualda

et al., 2018). This intervention may at first sound time-intensive and intense in terms of curricular delivery, but in reality, the intervention amounted to extremely short periods of emotional intelligence coaching at weekly intervals, sometimes for mere minutes at a time (Castillo-Gualda et al., 2018). In the athletic setting, individuals often experience a range of angry emotions, including base-level anger, anger combined with dejection, anger combined with combativeness, and anger combined with anxiety (Nicolas et al., 2019). In an athletic-setting study that followed the emotional expressions of ultramarathon runners over one month surrounding the time before and after a major running event. Higher EI runners experienced greater levels of happiness whether or not they performed at the highest running times or whether they placed or medaled in the running event. Lower EI runners experienced lower levels of happiness and higher levels of anger, even if they medaled or placed in coveted finishing spots for the running event (Nicolas et al., 2019).

In the family context, a study was conducted involving youth group therapy for anger among adolescents with substance-abusing fathers (Hojjat et al., 2017). As a cohort, the children of parents who abuse substances experience a range of emotional aberrations compared to their peers, including higher levels of emotional instability, quickness to anger, and intensity of anger once triggered. In an experimental intervention involving eight weekly ninety-minute emotional intelligence training sessions for the experimental group and no emotional intelligence training for the control group, the two groups were compared before and after the intervention utilizing a recognized aggression scale instrument. The result was that with similar starting points in terms of aggression, the experimental group saw statistically significant progress in the reduction of four anger subtypes when compared to the control group, meaning that emotional intelligence skills are valuable in the overall reduction in angry tendencies, even beyond other traditional therapies (Hojjat et al., 2017). An example from the workplace includes research conducted among nursing staff at a large hospital, whereby emotional intelligence training for the purpose of anger management was found to significantly reduce the number of instances of patient hostility toward hospital staff (Eslamian et al., 2010).

Recognizing that there can be a useful time and place for anger within one's interactions and that even the unpleasant emotion of anger can be utilized toward certain productive goals in interactions, one study found that people who prefer to feel anger in confrontational situations have higher emotional intelligence than those who do not, and individuals who wish to feel happiness in confrontational situations tend to have lower emotional intelligence (Ford & Tamir, 2012). This understanding that sometimes "getting angry is smart" has led to further discoveries about the nature of emotional intelligence (Ford & Tamir, 2012, p. 685). For example, a negotiator can use anger, including either their own anger or the intentional triggering of another's anger, as a tool in overall negotiation strategy and securing a favorable outcome (Katz & Sosa, 2015). Also, leaders who evoke anger as a motivating workplace mindset, within reason, can have positive outcomes in industries such as construction, where emotions coursing through the workplace can galvanize worker pacing and productive output (Lindenbaum & Fielden, 2011).

The skill of dispute mediation, negotiation, and resolution is valuable across multiple leadership positions in many industries but perhaps especially important in law enforcement, where officers are expected to quell disputes between community members, de-escalate disputation to prevent crimes, and interact with individuals experiencing or causing civil discord. While most mediation, negotiation, and resolution are informal, research has illustrated the value of emotional intelligence in both formal and informal settings. According to researchers' observations, emotions play a more important role in dispute resolution than parties or facilitators of disputes may realize, and improper control or lack of control of certain emotions can neutralize progress toward resolution and agreement (Kelly & Kaminskiene, 2016). The possession of emotional intelligence by the resolution facilitator has the effect of optimizing the conditions for progress in a resolution-seeking setting of nearly any kind, formal or informal, including legal, economic, and family disputes (Kelly & Kaminskiene, 2016). Because of this important effect, it has even become normal for some law schools to instruct and train students in a manner intended to increase their emotional intelligence so that when they engage in mediation or other dispute resolution processes such as negotiations, they have a greater capacity to understand, empathize, express feelings, and utilize their emotions positively in these crucial settings (Reilly, 2005; King, 2008). Additionally, in the legal context, emotional intelligence has been explored as an integral skill not simply in achieving resolutions

but in achieving resolutions that make the parties to the disputation happier with the agreed-upon outcome (Reilly, 2010).

The application of EI in conflict resolution settings can also operate as a distinct advantage in the formation of terms favorable to the individual with higher emotional intelligence or to a facilitator with high EI who is attempting to ensure fairness of terms between the disputing parties. While traditional assumptions about disputation may value a nondescript poker-face approach and cold calculation to achieve maximal concessions by the other side, new research shows that these traditional conceptions of conflict resolution strategy are flawed and more likely to backfire than a more emotionally intuitive approach informed by EI, concepts of empathy, and acknowledging that some display and utilization of emotion may indeed be desirable and beneficial (Katz & Sosa, 2015). Among the identified benefits are a greater capacity to identify another participant's compliance or intransigence, an enhanced ability to develop creative solutions or ideas for resolution, fostering of trust between participants to the dispute, and a tendency to avoid combativeness that could poison deal-making (Katz & Sosa, 2015).

The effectiveness of dispute resolution can be measured by several elements, including satisfaction with the terms, ability to achieve end goals, avoidance of protracted debate or discord (or generally the swiftness of the resolution), and the preservation of amicable relations between the parties to the dispute as opposed to damage in the relationship. Ineffective management of emotions can decrease effectiveness across each of these areas. For example, participants must know that when they display anger, it may create fear in others, or when they display timidity, it may induce feelings of sympathy in others (Keltner & Kring, 1998; Van Kleef et al., 2006). These understandings of emotion are crucial in producing preferred outcomes, with higher emotional awareness having been proven a statistically significant factor in achieving a greater share of a debated outcome (Foo et al., 2004). This understanding of the interrelated nature of emotions explains, for example, why buyers tend to favor sellers who exercise their capacity to listen and who have a greater tendency to express emotions such as concern and empathy and explains why such sellers benefit from these tendencies (Cherniss, 1998). The value of emotional intelligence in these settings fluctuates across different cultures globally but is universally positive despite the varying levels of value (Sharma et al., 2017). This value has some level of universality because, despite the cultural context, there are commonalities involved in dispute resolution that are universal, such as the importance of establishing genuine and communicative, and non-combative rapport among the participants, which is significantly aided by higher levels of emotional intelligence (Kim et al., 2014).

In a dispute resolution simulation designed by emotional intelligence researchers, it was found that a participant's emotional intelligence, specifically the subset of emotional intelligence in regard to understanding the emotions of others, predicted their counterpart's satisfaction with the outcome of the resolution at the end of disputation (Mueller & Curhan, 2006). Having emotional intelligence during a resolution process does not merely improve one's own assessment of disputation outcomes, and it positively influences the other party to agree and to agree with greater levels of satisfaction. Unfortunately, in this study, the precise methods by which higher EI individuals facilitated or triggered these higher levels of resolution satisfaction in their counterparts were not specifically examined (Mueller & Curhan, 2006). Further examination in other research has shown that intentional attention paid to emotion in conflict settings by the participants in those settings creates a phenomenon labeled conflict transformation, where participants begin with end goals in mind, but as they learn the emotional weight behind these decisions, begin to move further toward compromising, hedging, and significantly less position entrenchment (Jameson et al., 2009). Additionally, individuals participating in dispute resolution are more capable of communicating information to the other participants, or at least a greater willingness to be engaged in a manner that communicates more information (Tamta & Rao, 2017).

Due to this measured benefit in applying EI to dispute resolution, some research has focused on whether emotional intelligence training for professional and volunteer mediators has a beneficial effect. One such qualitative exploration found that when mediators were asked about whether their mediation training sufficiently covered how to handle emotional reactions, a full 67% replied that their training was insufficient in this regard, and when asked about whether they thought such training would be effective for their duties, 94% of participants believed so (Schreier, 2002). This survey result indicates that there may be

a greater hunger for emotional intelligence training among conflict resolution specialists than is currently being supplied. These and similar discoveries about the skills and abilities of individuals in conflict resolution settings has led to an entire field of research known as conflict intelligence, or the study of skills associated with successful and beneficial handling or constructive management of interpersonal conflict, wherein emotional intelligence has a prominent role (Coleman, 2018).

Emotional Intelligence in Organizational Leadership

According to Riggio and Reichard (2008), leadership's most important emotional elements include emotional expressiveness, emotional sensitivity, and emotional control, which all happen to be embedded in the emotional intelligence framework. Individuals with these emotional abilities are more likely to project charisma and have the needed interpersonal connective skills to motivate followers (Riggio & Reichard, 2008). Research by George (2000), using the ability model of emotional intelligence, showed that high EI plays an “important role” in effective leadership (p. 536). Particularly, her pioneering work in studying the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership showed that the subcategory of ability to understand and manage the emotions of oneself and others is of significant value in leading organizations, businesses, or other enterprises (George, 2000).

Ever since that original research pathway was forged, a multitude of confirmations have appeared in the academic literature. When 200 managers were given the MSCEIT emotional intelligence test and the widely used MLQ leadership questionnaire, a positive correlation was discovered between high performance on both instruments (Dabke, 2016). In a study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and the facilitation of organizational change by business managers, a similar finding was made as to EI having a measurable positive effect on successfully implementing change (Higgs, 2002). Researchers in organizational behavior have also discovered a link between emotional intelligence and change-making within large bureaucratic institutions (Chrusciel, 2008). Among the likely reasons for this phenomenon are that emotionally intelligent managers are more adaptive, have a greater impact on organizational culture, and can better predict and prevent the social friction points that complicate or prevent change from taking place (Chrusciel, 2006).

The field of research into leadership value of emotional intelligence has been dominated by researchers like Dulewicz and Higgs (1998), who have produced numerous studies establishing EI as an indispensable ability for leaders. In one small study, this research indicated that after being shown an emotionally upsetting video, individuals with high emotional intelligence have a greater capacity to recover and to recover faster (Dulewicz & Higgs, 1998). Another study shows that business managers with higher levels of emotional intelligence also scored higher on established metrics for problem analysis, strategic awareness, and written communication (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003). In theory, a person with these characteristics would have a greater capacity to lead; further research has tended to reinforce that it does. In one study, 41 executives at the top of major companies were given the MSCEIT emotional intelligence test, and their immediate supervisors and subordinates were given a leadership effectiveness instrument to rank their colleagues (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). The resulting data showed a correlation between performing well on the MSCEIT and a positive assessment of these executives' perceived effectiveness by their colleagues (Rosete & Carrochi, 2005). Importantly, even after controlling for personality variation and intelligence quotient, the results showed that emotional intelligence and not the other factors that accounted for the correlation (Rosete & Carrochi, 2005).

A meta-analysis of research in the corporate sector published by the Harvard Business Review concludes that it has repeatedly been shown, over the course of no fewer than 216 studies, that emotional intelligence is a reliable, statistically significant predictor of leadership acumen and traits ascribed with leadership value (Goleman et al., 2002). Another meta-analysis reinforces this claim, especially as related to individuals having the capacity for transformational leadership (Harms & Crede, 2010). Boyatzis and McKee (2005) have discovered that emotionally intelligent individuals are more capable of making their emotions “contagious” throughout an organizational enterprise in a manner that can boost morale and produce productive results (p. 22). In particular, they note that emotionally intelligent leaders have a greater tendency to improve organizational performance while somehow avoiding the common pitfalls of burnout,

perhaps because they are more likely to exercise coping and self-renewal skills than individuals with low emotional intelligence (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). Similarly, survey research conducted with 1,171 U.S. military recruiters showed a positive correlation between performance on an emotional intelligence scale instrument and the recruitment productivity of the recruiters (Bar-On et al., 2005). Interestingly, organizations characterized by not-for-profit status have been shown to contain senior leadership with higher emotional intelligence than organizations characterized by a for-profit mission (Morehouse, 2007).

Emotional Intelligence and Career Longevity

Law enforcement agencies often seek to employ individuals who have a high likelihood of remaining with law enforcement for an extended period so that they can accumulate experience and become more generally capable, well-trained, and cross-trained in a broad range of skills. High levels of turnover in patrol and other entry-level positions can hurt agency morale, community perceptions of agency professionalism and tend to increase problematic interactions (Wareham et al., 2013).

Whether the possession of high levels of emotional intelligence improves law enforcement officer longevity within the profession or not, the value of longevity itself has been widely confirmed across multiple studies in the field of criminal justice leadership. Research has shown that encounters involving officers with more experience on the force result in less exercise of verbal and physical force, on average, by law enforcement officers, even after controlling for other potential causes such as education (Paoline & Terrill, 2007; Donovan, 2007). High turnover within law enforcement agencies has been connected to lower morale among even those agency employees who are not new, as well as to reduced longevity of police chiefs and other senior leadership (Li & Brown, 2019). Police officers who have more experience have been shown to exhibit greater subjective levels of professionalism as determined by peer surveys, even after controlling for age and education (Carlan & Lewis, 2009).

Individuals with emotional intelligence tend to be promoted to leadership roles more frequently, remain in those roles longer, and are seen by colleagues as being successful (Jorfi et al., 2010). Emotionally intelligent employees in the private sector are more likely to report that they find their careers meaningful and fulfilling (Thory, 2016). Employees who report higher job satisfaction also generally have a higher level of emotional intelligence (Jung & Yoon, 2016). Taking each of those findings together, it cannot be surprising that high emotional intelligence individuals, who are more likely to be promoted, more likely to be seen as successful, and more likely to report job satisfaction, are also more likely to remain in their career for a longer period of time (Miao et al., 2017; Brunetto et al., 2012). When high EI law enforcement employees are compared to moderate or low EI employees, the differences in voluntary workplace turnover are statistically significant and starkly divergent (Brunetto et al., 2012). Since the ability to manage one's emotions correlates with less deviant behavior on the job, emotional intelligence also reduces the frequency of involuntary workplace turnover (Kluemper et al., 2013).

Employee Promotion

The exact facets of emotional intelligence that lend themselves to these higher rates of promotion and greater compensation are a matter of academic debate. Some research points to the effect of emotional intelligence in mitigating workplace stress and thereby giving high EI employees a greater ability to thrive even in difficult or challenging circumstances in a way that supervisors might notice (Rani & Yadapadithaya, 2018). Another theory is that the interpersonal and attitudinal differences within higher EI employees cause these workers to build tighter and more reciprocal relationships with supervisors, increasing their odds of promotion from the relationship-building process (Baczyńska & Thornton, 2017). A third theory is that emotional intelligence causes a greater ability or willingness to innovate in the workplace, perhaps meaning that higher EI employees will be noticed by supervisors because of performance associated with innovation or creative thinking on the job and a willingness to implement these creative or innovative thoughts (Zhang et al., 2015; Carmeli et al., 2014). It should also be noted that employees with higher levels of emotional intelligence are less likely to exhibit physical and psychological withdrawal behavior while at work as well as fewer instances of antagonistic behavior while at work, meaning that these individuals may be more likely to be promoted simply due to not exhibiting certain

detrimental behaviors to their own career success as opposed to exhibiting positively beneficial behaviors (Kaur, 2014).

A survey of 375 full-time employees showed that individuals had lower perceptions of their career success if they scored lower on an emotional intelligence instrument and exhibited more signs of shyness than their higher EI counterparts (Taormina, 2019). Among the participants in this study, those with lower levels of EI also reported significantly higher levels of emotional exhaustion from their work. (Taormina, 2019). Other research has indicated that these subjective self-reports of trepidation about career success among lower EI employees may indeed be warranted due to a lower likelihood of being promoted to higher-level positions within the organization. Research has shown a correlation between emotional intelligence and promotion to higher levels of career stage and related benefits such as salary levels (Urquijo et al., 2019). Further research has confirmed the relationship between EI and salary level achieved within organizations, showing that even when controlling for other sociodemographic variables, the presence of high EI levels was associated with the achievement of higher organizational positions on organizational charts and a corresponding higher salary and compensation package, on average (Sanchez-Gomez et al., 2021).

GAPS IN THE RESEARCH

Since the development of emotional intelligence theory by Salovey and Mayer (1990), many counter-proposals, overlapping models, and conflicting models have been proposed in the scholarly literature. Salovey and Mayer (2004) have urged colleagues to use a different phrase than “emotional intelligence” for their models; however, this has not happened widely with the exception of adding modifiers to the phrase such as “mixed model of emotional intelligence.” Research has steadily proceeded and grown within a number of academic disciplines, yet there is still much to be done for two main reasons.

First, because each emotional intelligence model is substantially different, with some considering aspects of personality and mood, some including behavioral traits as opposed to mental abilities, and others even more expansive, these models are not easily comparable to one another in any meaningful way when it comes to data validity. For example, a study using Salovey and Mayer’s model as applied to the leadership ability of school administrators produces results that cannot transitively be compared to the results of applying Bar-On’s model to the leadership ability of school administrators. This inability to directly compare study results is because their respective models are built-in substantially different ways, with divergent component parts. The literature would be much simpler and more cohesive if researchers across academia were applying the same model across a multitude of different scenarios, but instead, they are applying whichever emotional intelligence model they prefer or find particularly useful in the circumstance. This divergence in both input and output makes meta-analysis difficult and means that every literature review on the findings within EI research must be painstakingly broken-down theory by theory. To make things even more difficult, many research projects have developed and used a popular five-factor taxonomy embracing parts of multiple emotional intelligence theories (Palmer et al., 2008). No fewer than 12 different emotional intelligence measurement instruments, many of which are based on entirely different models, have been used in published research. These include Mayer and Salovey’s (2003) MSCEIT test, Bar-On’s (2006) Emotional Quotient inventory (EQ-i), Schuette’s (1998) Self Report Inventory (SSRI), also known as the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES), and various others (Dulewicz et al., 2003; McEnrue & Groves, 2006; Webb et al., 2013).

Second, emotional intelligence is a broadly applicable theory affecting many disciplines. The importance of emotional intelligence, as borne out by much of the literature cited previously, is relevant to many areas of personal and professional experience. Because of this, the range of correlations, comparisons, and even experimental models is almost unending for learning about the application of EI theory and the value of emotional intelligence across nearly every discipline. To illustrate this, consider that papers have been written on the narrowest imaginable applications of the theory, including whether emotional intelligence predicts resilience in breast cancer survivors and whether blind youth exhibit different levels of emotional intelligence than sighted youth (Alarcón et al., 2020; Arshad & Lodhi, 2015).

CONCLUSION

Emotional intelligence offers great potential for understanding differentiation between individuals insofar as their ability to regulate their own emotions, understand the emotions of others, and utilize this information to produce preferred outcomes. Particularly in organizational leadership, where emotional intelligence has proven valuable repeatedly, there is great utility in producing more knowledge on the contours of EI's value within different types of leadership roles, environments, and situations.

Because research has been conducted in these contexts and replicated, showing the value of emotional intelligence to employees in the workplace, it stands to reason that both employees and employers would prefer that emotional intelligence become more commonplace either through intentional recruitment or training to foster these abilities, so that productivity is higher and feelings of satisfaction and empowerment are prevalent.

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