THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLE ADOPTION

Radwa Mohamed
Teaching Associate, German University in Cairo, Egypt
E-mail: radwa.elsaied@guc.edu.eg

Tarek A. El Badawy
Associate Professor, Auburn University at Montgomery, United States
E-mail: tarek.elbadawy@aum.edu

Mariam M. Magdy
Research Assistant, University of Ottawa, ON, Canada
Corresponding author: mhuss059@uottawa.ca

_____

Abstract

This study investigated the influences of different levels of emotional intelligence on the choice of conflict management styles. A sample of employees working in multinational organizations located in Egypt completed the questionnaires. Results demonstrated that individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence prefer the competing style of conflict resolution more frequently than the other styles. Participants reported near averages of using the other styles of conflict management, however, no significant associations were found between these styles and levels of emotional intelligence. These results contradict the argument that Arab and Middle Eastern employees prefer the avoiding conflict resolution style in handling interpersonal conflicts in the workplace.

Keywords: emotional intelligence; conflict resolution; Egypt; multinational organizations; multinationals.
_____

1. Introduction

The sustainability of organizations hinges upon their people's abilities to create and sustain a competitive advantage (Dulewicz et al., 2000). Yet, for people to properly function in highly turbulent and diverse environments, they must be equipped with the tools to handle differences in approaches, opinions, and frames of references. Two controversial, yet critical, tools that are frequently investigated by researchers are emotional intelligence and conflict management (Robbins et al., 2009; Schermerhorn et al., 2005). The continued interest in studying and analyzing social interactions renders

understanding how different levels of emotional intelligence influence the person's choice of conflict management style pertinent (Goncalves et al., 2016).

The interest in emotional intelligence has been increasing greatly in the past few decades; mainly because of the proposition put forward that emotional intelligence is *the* predictor of workplace behaviour (Augusto Landa et al., 2010; Jordan et al., 2004; Zeidner et al., 2004). An impressive number of academic and business literatures linked emotional intelligence to a variety of outcomes, including workplace effectiveness (Singh, 2008), organizational citizenship behaviour (Carmeli et al., 2006), leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction (Law et al., 2008), employees functioning at critical stages of their career (i.e. selection, placement and promotion), and overall job performance (Augusto Landa et al., 2010; Carmeli et al., 2006; Law et al., 2008; Jordan et al., 2004; Zeidner et al., 2004).

In one study developed to identify the victories and failures of eleven American presidents suggested that successful presidents—such as Roosevelt, Kennedy, and Regan—were distinguished from others because of their high emotional intelligence (Robbins et al., 2009). In addition, emotions are not longer viewed as an entity that needs to be kept at bay. However, they must be recognized, regulated, and integrated into each person's life for the person to thrive and achieve her goals (Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017). Hence, it is suggested that employees should train on how to develop their emotional intelligence as a skill that can improve their work performance and organizational productivity (Suliman et al., 2006).

Another equally relevant topic of interest to organizational behaviour's researchers is the management of conflict. Conflicts are increasingly viewed as a double-edged sword (Carter and Phillips, 2017). Managing conflicts is very critical in any organization because conflicts are unavoidable, and if they are neglected or unaddressed, their consequences are detrimental to employees' performance and well-being as well as to the organization's performance. However, successful management of conflicts provide employees with the opportunity to improve the decision-making process, accelerate creativity and performance and build trust between and within the employees. Thus, managing conflicts properly would add significant value to the organization (Suppiah et al., 2006; Shih et al., 2010).

Few past researches have considered the implications of emotional intelligence on conflict resolution (Godse et al., 2010; Jordan et al., 2004). Hence, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between levels of emotional intelligence and the choice of conflict management styles. The study examined the utility of different levels of emotional intelligence in expecting the type of conflict management style employees adopt.

The structure of this paper is as follows. We start with a brief literature review on emotional intelligence and conflict management. The second part of this paper is devoted to the methodology. Afterwards, the results of the data analysis are discussed. We conclude with our proposed limitations and implications of this study.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Emotional Intelligence (EI)

The inception of emotional intelligence came with the social intelligence theory that was presented by the American psychologist Edward Lee Thorndike in the early 1920s. Thorndike declared that humans possess another type of intelligence unlike abstract or mechanical intelligence called *social intelligence* (Law et al., 2008; Carmeli et al., 2006; Landy, 2005; Zeidner et al., 2004). He defined it as *one's capability to understand and manage human relations*. Thorndike also argued that humans possess three types of intelligence: 1) Abstract intelligence, the ability to understand and manage ideas; 2) Mechanical intelligence, the ability to understand and manage concrete objects; and 3) Social intelligence, the ability to manage interpersonal relations wisely (Carmeli et al., 2006; Landy, 2005).

The term *emotional intelligence* did not appear until the 1990s when two psychologists, John Mayer, and Peter Salovey, wrote their seminal article on their new concept of emotional intelligence. Salovey and Mayer (1990, p. 189) defined emotional intelligence (EI) as "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor ones and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions". They viewed EI as part of one's cognitive ability same as Thorndike's view on social intelligence (Mayer et al., 2004; Mayer et al., 1997). Mayer and Salovey's conceptualization remains the most used and accepted definition (Cartwright et al., 2008; Law et al., 2008). EI is the set of abilities that account for how people perceive, assimilate, understand, and manage emotions (Cartwright et al., 2008; Mayer et al., 2000, Salovey et al., 1990). Bar-on describes EI as "an array of *non*-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (italic added to empathize the difference in positions between researchers) (Bar-On, 2010, p. 57; Cartwright et al., 2008; Zeidner et al., 2004; Mayer et al., 2000). Generally, the literature on intelligence suggests that highly intelligent people are accurate when they choose a solution most proper to the problem, while people low on intelligence are more likely to miss (or misread) clues and hence, reach the wrong conclusions and make the wrong decision (Côté, 2014).

2.2 EI Models

Mayer and his colleagues categorized EI into two models: 1) The mental ability model which focuses on emotions and their interaction with thoughts, and 2) The mixed model which relates EI to a mixture of mental and non-mental abilities as illustrated by both Goleman and Bar-On models (Mayer et al., 2000).

The Mental ability model is based on four dimensions, each one contributes to the development of other dimensions and they are arranged from the simplest to the most complex dimension as a function of the required psychological processes. The first dimension is *'Perceiving and Expressing Emotions'* which indicates one's ability to identify his/her emotions, others' emotions, and to express emotions and emotional needs accurately to others (Mayer et al., 2000; Mayer et al., 1997). The second dimension is *'Assimilating Emotions in Thought'* which reflects the ability to use emotions to arouse attention towards specific important changes or events and to facilitate cognitive activities (Mayer et al., 2000; Mayer et al., 1997).

The third dimension *'Understanding Emotions'* refers to one's capability to understand the complexity of emotions, and the reasons behind emotional expressions. The last dimension is *'Managing Emotions'*. Managing Emotions includes the ability to accept one's or others emotions regardless of their pleasantry, to connect or disconnect from certain feelings according to their usefulness to the context, and the ability to regulate one's or others' emotions for both emotional and personal growth (Mayer et al., 2000; Mayer and Salovey, 1997) and to avoid burnout (Testa and Sangganjanavanich, 2016).

In 1995, the prolific author Daniel Goleman introduced the EI mixed model that combines emotional and intellectual processes (Cartwright et al., 2008; Zeidner et al., 2004). His model embraced five wide subcategories (Mayor et al., 2000) with twenty-five competencies that capture EI.

The five subcategories were: 1) Emotional self-awareness, knowing one's emotions and their relation to one's aims, attitudes, thoughts, and achievements; 2) Social awareness of emotions and empathy, managing one's relations through understanding others' emotions, desires, thoughts and worries and sympathizing with others' spoken or non-spoken feelings; 3) Motivational tendencies, including self-determination, self-actualization and aspiration for achievements; 4) Managing one's emotions, intentionally producing and sustaining agreeable and disagreeable emotions where and when considered appropriate; and 5) Managing others' emotions, persuading others through good communication and interactions and properly handling conflicts (Abrahm, 2004; Zeidner et al., 2004; Mayor et al., 2000).

Bar-On presented another mixed model that was divided into five interrelated dimensions. They are: 1) Intrapersonal competencies involving empathy, sympathy, and social awareness; 2) Interpersonal competencies such as self-awareness, self-actualization and confidence; 3) Stress management competencies embracing instinct control and stress tolerance; 4) Adaptation competencies including flexibility, problem solving, and reality testing; and 5) General mood constituting happiness and optimism (Bar-On, 2010; Mayer et al., 2000).

For the purpose of our study, we rendered the mental ability model promoted by Mayer and Salovey relevant to our intended investigation. The main tenet of the model provides that those who demonstrate high levels of EI have the ability to recognize their negative emotions -such as anger-, contain, regulate and adjust them to encourage constructive behaviours in contrast to those who possess low levels of EI. Therefore, levels of EI have significant implications on how people resolve conflicts in interpersonal interactions (Jordan et al., 2004).

2.3 Conflict Management

Conflict is "a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about" (Robbins et al., 2009, p. 519). Schermerhorn et al. (2005, p.450) defined it as the disagreement between different parties because of substantive issues or friction between them due to interpersonal difficulties.

In the 1930s and 1940s conflict was viewed as a bad and harmful phenomenon that should be prevented or avoided. This traditional view of conflict associated conflict with negative terms such as destruction and irrationality to emphasize its bad influence and alienate individuals from it.Conflict was perceived as a result of miscommunication, lack of trust, and managers' shortening in satisfying the needs and desires of their employees (Robbins et al., 2009). However, this view was replaced with the human relation view of conflict which advocated conflict as a natural, rational, and unavoidable phenomenon in any group.

The most developed view of conflict is the interactionist view that advocates not only the limited acceptance of conflict, as the human relation view of conflict, but also promotes the absolute necessity of maintaining a minimum level of conflict for a group to operate effectively and grow (Robbins et al., 2009). Nonetheless, not all conflicts have positive implications; some conflicts, functional ones, are constructive and beneficial to organizations, groups, and individuals. However, dysfunctional conflicts hold back the performance of organizations, groups, and individuals (Robbins et al., 2009; Schermerhorn et al., 2005; Jordan et al., 2004). Constructive conflicts contribute to organizational success, decision-making and entrepreneurship (Tjosvold et al., 2014).

2.4 Classifications of Conflict

Researchers have classified conflicts into two types that organizations and employees face, namely, substantive conflict and relationship conflict (used interchangeably with emotional conflict and affective conflict) (Hinds et al., 2003). Substantive conflicts result from disagreements over the goals of work or the way of goal execution (Robbins et al., 2009; Schermerhorn et al., 2005; Yang and Mossholder, 2004; Hinds et al., 2003). For example, substantive conflict occurs when there is a disagreement on which strategy to use in marketing a new product (Schermerhorn et al., 2005).

The development of substantive conflicts in the workplace is a natural result of the daily interactions between employees with different points of views (Yang et al., 2004). Mostly employees will diverge in substantive issues such as the organizational goals, strategies, policies and procedures, task assignments, the different ways of using the scarce resources, how bonuses and rewards will be distributed and the like (Schermerhorn et al., 2005). Substantive conflicts are considered constructive as they enhance our understanding of matters being examined (Yang et al., 2004).

Relationship conflict arises due to interpersonal differences, diverse personalities, varied preferences, and attitudes. They cause tensions and frustrations. Relationship conflict is also known as a *clash of personalities* (Yang et al., 2004). Relationship conflict distracts employees from their work and decreases their energies. Managing this type of conflict is arguably time consuming. For example, Robbins et al. (2009) suggested that 18 percent of managers' time is spent on solving problems due to relationship conflict.

2.5 Conflict Management Styles

In 1965, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton classified conflict management styles into problem-solving, smoothing, forcing, withdrawal and sharing (Suppiah et al., 2006; Samantara, 2004). However, this model was refined in 1976 and its styles were regrouped into: Competing, collaboration, avoiding, accommodating, and compromising (Daly et al., 2010; Suppiah et al., 2006; Samantara, 2004; Thomas, 1992). All conflict management styles are placed on a continuum of assertiveness and cooperativeness.

Competing. A person using this style is highly assertive but uncooperative. The focus is on the person's own concerns while she neglects others involved in the resolution. Competing is also a win-lose approach; one of the conflicting parties attain their wants at the expense of others' (Manning et al., 2009; Schermerhon et al., 2005).

Collaborating. A person using this style is high in assertiveness and cooperativeness. They try to resolve the conflict for all parties' sake; considering theirs and others' concerns (Schermerhorn et al., 2005; Robbins et al., 2009). Collaboration is achieved when all parties have the same intention towards solving the conflict through highlighting the differences. The importance of successfully managing conflict has led to the conclusion that understanding what influences conflict is essential to creating a synergy between the conflicted parties (Tuguz et al., 2015).

Avoiding. A person using this style is both uncooperative and unassertive; she has low attention to hers and others' concerns. This party tends to ignore the presence of conflict to suppress it or withdraw from the situation hoping the conflict will disappear (Manning et al., 2009; Robbins et al., 2009).

Accommodating. A person using this style is cooperative but unassertive. The individual suppresses her concerns while placing all attention on others' issues accommodating the differences and highlighting similarities between contradicting parties (Manning et al., 2009; Schermerhon et al., 2005). Accommodation is a lose-win solution because one of the conflicting parties needs to be self-sacrificing (Daly et al., 2010).

Compromising. A person using this style is moderately assertive and cooperative. Using this style, each party needs to make scarifies to achieve something in return. However, all conflicting parties end with partial satisfaction (Daly et al., 2010). There are neither winners nor losers (Robbins et al., 2009).

2.6 The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles

Researchers have provided initial arguments that EI plays an important role in solving conflicts in an effective way (Shih et al., 2010; Godse et al., 2010; Jordan et al., 2004). Emotions and conflicts are closely interconnected that some researchers argued that no one could be aware that he/she is in a conflict unless he/she feels the conflict and becomes emotional about it (Nair, 2008). Conflicts are naturally emotional because they encompass pressures, fears and threats to individuals or groups. Thus, emotional intelligence is expected to be largely related to conflict management (Jordan et al., 2004). People with high EI are assumed to be capable of choosing the most suitable styles of managing interpersonal conflicts such as collaborating and compromising styles due to their ability to regulate their own and others' emotions (Shih et al., 2009). High EI is related to constructive conflict management (cooperative, assertive, win-win) approaches (Schlaerth et al., 2013).

Few investigations have focused on the influence of EI (using ability traits model) on the choice of conflict management styles (Godse et al., 2010). The relation between

levels of emotional intelligence and conflict management styles is not clear. Identifying the nature of this relationship is important in many realms such as the health care sector (Al-Hamdan, Al-Ta'amneh, Rayan and Bawadi, 2018). For example, Jordan et al., (2004) demonstrated that avoiding style of conflict management is adversely related to one's level of EI, specifically the ability to deal with one's emotions. As the person is unable to recognize, control and manage her emotions, she retracts from annoying situations.

In one study utilizing a sample of management undergraduate students, the researchers demonstrated that the integrating style was associated with only the problem solving and social responsibility sub-scales of emotional intelligence (EI), the dominating style was significantly associated with impulse control and high self-regard, and problem solving influenced the choice of compromising style and, interestingly, the avoiding style too (Hopkins and Yonker, 2015).

In another study, Malmrud and Löf (2013) demonstrated that high self-regulation was positively correlated with the adoption of more successful conflict management style. In another study on nurse managers, high EI was associated with the use of integrating style, compromising style, and obliging style, while low EI was associated with the use of dominating style and avoiding style. Moreover, mostly studies investigating this main interaction were developed in Australia (Jordan et al., 2004), India (Godse et al., 2010), or Taiwan (Shih et al., 2010). No studies were found in the Middle East where populations differ significantly in their norms and attitudes. Thus, our first hypothesis was:

H1: *Avoiding* conflict management style is negatively correlated with EI.

Collaboration and competing styles of managing a conflict have positive associations with one's EI and his/her ability to deal with one's and other's emotions (Godse et al., 2010; Jordan et al., 2004). Goleman mentioned in his famous book "Working with Emotional Intelligence" published in 1998 that "Individuals with high emotional intelligence will have superior conflict resolution skills and engage in greater collaboration where emotions are both controlled and generated to develop new solutions that satisfy both parties' needs" (cited in Jordon et al., 2004, p.209). For example, EI was associated positively with integrating, compromising and dominating styles of conflict management in a sample from China (Zhang et al., 2015) and India (Bhattacharya et al., 2016). In accordance with the above discussion, we hypothesized that:

H2: *Collaborating* conflict management style is positively correlated with EI.
H3: *Competing* conflict management style is positively correlated with EI.

The compromising management style is argued to be positively associated with EI (Shih et al., 2009) as well. However, it was concluded that there is inconsistency in results, and this calls for additional exploration of the relationships. Thus, the following hypotheses were outlined:

H4: *Compromising* conflict management style is positively correlated with EI.
H5: *Accommodating* conflict management style is negatively correlated with EI.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The targeted participants for this study were employees from private multinational organizations located in Egypt. A multinational organization is a corporation or an enterprise that manages production or delivers services in more than one country. Multinationals were chosen because they ought to comprehend such organizational behavioural aspects more than local or public organizations in Egypt.

The sample compromised of 70 participants (40 males, 30 females) with a response rate of 53%. Employees' ages were classified into 4 ordinal ranks, (48.6% of participants ranged between 21-30 years old, 28.6% of participants ranged between 31-40 years old, 15.7% of participants ranged between 41-50 years old and 7.1% of participants ranged between 51-60 years old). 19.7% held postgraduate degrees. Participating employees held different managerial and nonmanagerial positions. However, due to the limited response rate, we could not provide significant statistical results for the employees' positions.

3.2 Procedure

We used the Snowball sampling technique to reach our sample participants. This sample procedure was chosen due to the difficulties that may rise in accessing private organizations in Egypt. Organizations refrain from participating in research due to privacy concerns. In addition, Egyptian employees are reluctant to take part in behavioural studies.

Organizations that agreed to participate in our study were asked to provide us with the organizational email addresses of their interested employees. A softcopy version of the questionnaires was created and sent to employees. Employees were instructed to fill-in the questionnaire and send it back. In addition, anonymity was assured. Participating employees were asked to forward the questionnaire to their interested colleagues.

3.3 Instrument

The Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) was adopted. The SREIT operates with a 5-point Likert type of scale and it contains 33 items. Participants were asked to rate the items from 1 to 5 where 1 represented totally disagree and 5 represented totally agree. The SREIT components are divided into Perception of Emotions, Managing Own Emotions, Managing Others' Emotions, and Utilization of Emotions. Studies that used this test have reported that it is valid and reliable with internal consistency of 0.90 and 0.87 for two different samples (Dimitriades, 2007).

The Thomas Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) was used to identify employee's conflict management styles. TKI is a designed to measure an individual's response to conflict situations. TKI describes an individual's behaviour along the two dimensions of assertiveness and cooperativeness. These two basic dimensions of behaviour define five different modes as previously discussed, namely, Avoidance, Compromise, Collaboration, Competing and Accommodation. The average Cronbach's Alpha for this scale is 0.60.

3.4 Data Analysis

The collected data were analyzed using the statistical software package SPSS. To test the hypotheses, Pearson correlation and Regression tests were used to identify the nature and strength of the relationships between emotional intelligence and the choice of conflict management styles.

4. Empirical Results and Discussion

As demonstrated in Table 1, participants reported that they often adopt either avoiding or compromising conflict management styles. This is evident by the higher means.

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations for the Conflict Management Styles

	Means	**Std. Deviations**
Avoiding	6.90	1.84
Compromising	6.69	1.79
Accommodating	5.93	2.14
Competing	5.57	2.62
Collaborating	4.87	1.66

Source: Data analyzed by the authors

With respect to the investigated correlations, only the competing conflict management style demonstrated significant correlation with the overall level of EI (p <

0.05). This indicates that participants with higher levels of EI demonstrated higher tendency to adopt a competing conflict management style to address their wants during an interrelation conflict than participants with lower levels of EI. Thus, hypothesis three could not be rejected. Furthermore, the regression analysis demonstrated that levels of EI explains about 8% of the degree of adopting the competing conflict management style [$F_{(1, 68)} = 6.88$, $p = .01$]. However, H1, H2, H4, and H5 were not supported (please refer to Table 2).

Table 2. Correlations between the Variables

	Competing	Collaborating	Compromising	Avoiding	Accommodating
Perception of Emotions	.36**	-.12	-.28*	-.09	-.28*
Managing of Emotions	.23	-.06	-.21	-.06	-.18
Managing Others' Emotions	.06	-.03	-.14	-.03	.14
Utilization of Emotions	.10	-.05	.14	-.14	-.16
Emotional Intelligence	.30*	-.10	-.21	-.09	-.21

Source: Data analyzed by the authors. ** Significant at $p < 0.01$, * significant at $p < 0.05$

In addition, a significant positive correlation was revealed between perceptions of emotions (understanding one's emotions) and the competing management style ($p < .01$) and accommodating ($p < 0.05$). This finding demonstrates that participants who reported higher levels of EI—they acknowledge and regulate their emotions in an effective manner—protects their needs and win interpersonal conflicts more frequently than those with lower levels of EI.

The interactions between levels of EI and styles of conflict management chosen are an understudied topic. We targeted a sample of employees working in private Egyptian organizations to investigate the nature of this relationship. We based emotional intelligence on the ability measure SREIT. We consider this investigation a continuation of Godse et al. (2010) and Jordan and Troth (2004) investigations.

The results of this study demonstrate that persons with high levels of EI select the competing style of conflict management more frequently than other styles. Such findings are consistent with previous research conducted by Jordan and Troth (2004) in Australia. Persons who use the competing or the dominating style prioritise their wants and concerns. However, the results contradict the research of Godse et al. (2010) in India. The researchers reported no correlation between emotional intelligence and competing management style. Nonetheless, the researchers related the findings to the Indian culture which is highly characterized by being collectivistic. Thus, the acceptable norms include caring about others' needs and concerns and avoiding disputes.

Despite the reported close averages of using other styles of conflict management (see Table 1); no associations were found between EI and these styles. The results contradict previous researches (Godse et al., 2010; Jordan et al., 2004; Shih et al., 2009). These findings may be attributed to Egyptian employees' low adoption of collaboration approaches in the workplace. For example, one study demonstrated that the flow of information between Egyptian employees is very slow due to the prevailing culture of high degree of power distance (based on Hofstede's cultural Framework) and the Egyptian people's tendency to move from collectivistic to individualistic culture post 2011, specifically in the workplace (Dennis et al., 2011). In addition, in a study of comparative analysis of conflict styles across cultures, the researchers argued that the Arab Middle Eastern employees prefer the avoiding style in handling interpersonal conflicts in the workplace (Elsayed-El Jiouly et al., 1996). In our findings, the avoiding conflict management style held the highest average. However, its insignificant association with EI suggests that EI plays a crucial role in handling interpersonal conflicts based on the person's acknowledgement of their emotions and of others'.

4. Conclusion

In this study, the relationship between emotional intelligence and the different conflict management styles that employees may adopt during an interpersonal conflict was investigated. The relationship was investigated in an Egyptian setting. Two tests were administered: The Schutt Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) was used to measure EI levels and the Thomas Klimann Mode Instrument (TKI) was used to identify the conflict management Styles adopted by the sampled employees.

The results of data analysis demonstrated positive correlation between EI and the competing style of conflict management. In contrast to previous research, no correlations between EI and compromising and accommodating were evident. We adhere the differences in the findings to the variations in cultural contexts and the relatively small sample size.

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of the present study. Primarily, the sample size was relatively small. Hence, our results must be interpreted with caution and could not be generalized. Second, the long questionnaire may have caused employees to answer the questions haphazardly or randomly out of boredom, fatigue, or time constraints. Third, no cause and effect relationships were examined. Our study revealed important associations that require further investigations.

To improve the generalizability of the study, it would be desirable to extend the research to other industrial sectors in Egypt and with larger sample sizes and explore comparisons between private and public sectors. Further research that examines the relations under investigation should consider other intervening factors such the cultural context; as discussed before, certain conflict management styles are adopted based on

the cultural frame of reference. In addition, positioning EI as an antecedent to conflict management styles is suggested in future research. There is no conflict management style that is appropriate for all situations. People must have the intelligence to choose the style best appropriate to the situation (Marquis and Huston, 2009). In addition, qualifying the context where both concepts are studied in research is essential to reach accurate conclusions, and predictions.

References

Al-Hamdan, Z., Adnan Al-Ta'amneh I., Rayan A, Bawadi H. (2019). 'The impact of emotional intelligence on conflict management styles used by Jordanian nurse managers', *J NursManag*, Vol. 27, pp. 560-566.

Augusto Landa, JM., Martos, MP., Lopez-Zarafa, E. (2010). 'Emotional intelligence and the personality traits as predictors of psychological well-being in Spanish undergraduates', *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal,* Vol. 38 No. 6, pp. 783-793.

Bar-On, R. (2010). 'Emotional intelligence: An Integral Part of Positive Psychology', *South African Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 40 No. 1, pp. 54-62.

Bhattacharya, S., Jain, A., Rangarajan., A, Saksena V. (2016). 'Influence of emotional intelligence on conflict management styles of employees: A study of the Indian railways', *OPUS: HR Journal,* Vol. 7 No. 1, pp. 1-15.

Carmeli, A., Joseman, Z.E. (2006). 'The relationship among emotional intelligence, task performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors', *HumanPerformance*, Vol. 19 No. 4, pp. 403-419.

Cartwright, S., Pappas, C. (2008). 'Emotional intelligence, its measurement and implications for the workplace', *International Journal of Management Reviews*, Vol. 10 No. 2, pp. 149-171.

Conte, J.M. (2005). 'A review and critique of emotional intelligence measures', *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 26 No. 4, pp. 433-440.

Côté, S. (2014). 'Emotional intelligence in organizations', *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 1, pp. 459-488.

Daly, T.M., Lee, J.A., Soutar, G.N., Rasmi, S. (2010). 'Conflict-handling style measurement: A best-worst scaling application', *International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 21 No. 3, pp. 281-308.

Dimitriades, Z.S. (2007). 'Managing emotionally intelligent service workers: Personal and positional effects in the Greek context', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 31 No. 3, pp. 223-240.

Dulewicz, V., Higgs, M. (2000). 'Emotional intelligence: A review and evaluation study', *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 15 No. 4, pp. 341-372.

Elsayed-EkJiouly, S.M., Buda, R. (1996). 'Organizational conflict: A comparative analysis of conflict styles across cultures', *International Journal of Conflict Management,* Vol. 7 No. 1, pp. 71-81.

Godse, A.S., Thingujam, N.S. (2010). 'Perceived emotional intelligence and conflict resolution styles among information technology professionals: Testing the mediating role of personality', *Singapore Management Review*, Vol. 32 No. 1, pp. 69- 84.

Goncalves, G., Reis, M., Sousa, C., Santos, J., Ramos-Organbidez, A., Scott, R.P., and Scott, P. (2016). 'Cultural intelligence and conflict management styles', *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, Vol. 24 No. 4, pp. 725-742.

Hinds, P.J., Bailey, D.E. (2003). 'Out of sight, out of sync: Understanding conflict in distributed teams', *Organization Science*, Vol. 14 No. 6, pp. 615- 632.

Hopkins, M.M., and Yonker, R.D. (2015). 'Managing conflict with emotional intelligence: Abilities that make a difference', *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 34 No. 2, pp. 226-244.

Jordan, P.J., Troth, A.C. (2004). 'Managing emotional intelligence during team problem solving: Emotional intelligence and conflict resolution', *Human Performance*, Vol. 17 No. 2, pp. 195-218.

Landy, F.J. (2005). 'Some historical and scientific issues related to research on emotional intelligence', *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 26 No. 4, pp. 411-424.

Law, K.S., Wong, C.S., Huang, G.H., Li, X. (2008). 'The effects of emotional intelligence on job performance and life satisfaction for the research and development scientists in China', *Asia Pacific Journal Management*, Vol. 25 No. 1, pp. 51-69.

Malmrud, S., and Löf, E. (2013). *Medarbetares skattning av chefers konflikthanteringsförmåga predicerar chefers självskattade emotionsreglering*. Master thesis, University of Gävle, Swedish.

Manning, G., Curtis, K. (2009).*The Art of Leadership* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Companies.

Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P. (1997). 'What Is Emotional Intelligence?' in Salovey P, Sluyter, D (Eds.), *Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence*, New York: Basic Books.

Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D.R. (2000). 'Models of Emotional Intelligence' in Sternberg RJ (Ed.), *The Handbook of Intelligence*, New York: Cambridge University Press, pp. 396-420.

Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D.R. (2004). 'Emotional intelligence: Theory findings and implications', *Psychological Inquiry*, Vol. 15 No. 3, pp. 197-215.

Nair, N. (2008). 'Towards Understanding the Role of Emotions in Conflict: A Review and Future Directions', *International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 19 No. 4, pp. 359-381.

Robbins, S.P., Judge, T.A. (2009).*Organizational Behavior,* United States of America: Pearson Education, Inc.

Salovey, P., Mayer, J.D. (1990). 'Emotional intelligence', *Imagination, cognition and personality*, Vol. 9 No. 3, pp. 185-211.

Samantara, R. (2004). 'Conflict Management Strategies and Organisational Effectiveness', *Indian Journal of industrial Relations*, Vol. 39 No. 3, pp. 298-323.

Schermerhorn, J.R., Hunt, J., Osborn, R. (2005).*Organizational Behavior* (9th ed.), United States of America: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Schlaerth, A., Ensari, N., Christian, J. (2013). A meta-analytical review of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leaders' constructive conflict management. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations. 16*(1): 126-136.

Schutte, N.S., Malouff, J.M., Bhullar, N. (2009). 'The Assessing Emotions Scale' in Stough, C, Saklofske D, Parker J (Eds.), *The Assessment of Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Springer Publishing, pp. 119-135.

Shih, H.A., Susanto, E. (2010). 'Conflict management styles, emotional intelligence, and job performance in public', *International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 21 No. 2, pp. 147-168.

Singh, K. (2008). 'Emotional Intelligence and Workplace Effectiveness', *The Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, Vol. 44 No. 2, pp. 292- 302.

Suliman, A., Al-Shaikh, F.N. (2006). 'Emotional Intelligence at Work: links to Conflict and Innovation', *Employee Relations*, Vol. 29 No. 2, pp. 208-220.

Suppiah, W.R., Rose, R.C. (2006). 'A Competence-based View to Conflict Management', *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, Vol. 7 No. 3, pp. 1905-1909.

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

Tjosvold, D., Wong, A.SH., Feng Chen, N.Y. (2014). 'Constructively managing conflicts in organizations', *Annu. Rev. Organ. Psychol. Organ. Behav*, Vol. 1 No. 1, pp. 545-568.

Tuguz, K., Abu, Samra R., Almallah, I. (2015). 'An exploratory study of the impact of cultural intelligence on conflict management styles: Evidence from Jordan', *Middle East Journal of Business*, Vol. 10 No. 3, pp. 25-40.

Yang, J., Mossholder, K.W. (2004). 'Decoupling task and relationship conflict: the role of intragroup emotional processing', *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 25, pp. 589- 605.

Zeidner, M., Mathews, G., Roberts, R.D. (2004). 'Emotional Intelligence in the workplace: A critical review', *International Association for Applied Psychology*, Vol. 53 No. 3, pp. 371-399.

Zhang, S.J., Chen, Y.Q., Sun, H. (2015). 'Emotional intelligence, conflict management styles, and innovation performance: An empirical study of Chinese employees', *International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 26 No. 4, pp. 450-478.